Notos

Developing Intercultural Competence

Integrating Language Awareness into Pedagogy

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Second Languages and Intercultural Council

Notos, in classical mythology, was the name of the South Wind personified, the god of the South Wind. It was chosen as the title of the SLIC journal, like Zephyr for the SLIC newsletter, in recognition of the importance of the winds in Alberta.

Notos

The Journal of the Second Languages and Intercultural Council of the Alberta Teachers' Association

––––––

Contents

Editorial

Megan Sénéchal

Welcome to the Summer 2018 issue of *Notos*. I am grateful for this opportunity to be the editor of *Notos*. After spending years in the French immersion elementary classroom, I moved on to a consulting position with Edmonton Public Schools at the Institute for Innovation in Second Language Education (IISLE), where I am able to support teachers in their daily practice and in their passion for languages.

I remember the difficulty during my graduate studies of finding research conducted in the area of second languages. In my term as editor of *Notos*, I want to help educators access the most recent research conducted in and about second languages in an easy-to-access format. I want to help disseminate knowledge to second language stakeholders, and I want contributors to have an avenue through which they can reach teachers and, in turn, have an impact on student learning.

We live in an age when it is easy to look up any question we have on the Internet and receive multiple answers immediately. While this capability has definite advantages, we cannot always be certain of the quality of the search results. My hope is that *Notos*, a peer-reviewed academic journal, will become a touchstone for best practices in second language education for educators in Alberta.

I encourage *Notos* readers to become contributors to the journal. If you have unpublished research in second languages that can have an impact on stakeholders in education, feel free to submit a draft by e-mail (megan.senechal@epsb.ca) for peer review. Sharing your experiences can help us all become more effective teachers.

My hope as editor is that you will find this journal informative and useful in your practice.

Megan Sénéchal, EdD, is a curriculum consultant with the Edmonton Public School Board. Her greatest research interests revolve around language education, Universal Design for Learning and change management.

President's Message

Diana Boisvert

It gives me great pleasure to celebrate with you the return of *Notos*, the academic journal of the Second Languages and Intercultural Council (SLIC). After the journal's hiatus of four years, SLIC members can once again access research from the second language field in an accessible and convenient format.

We are grateful to our new editor, Megan Sénéchal, who, building on the work of the previous editor, Bill Dunn, has succeeded in putting together this issue of *Notos*. You will perhaps notice the refreshed look, which befits this fresh start for our journal.

Notos is indeed *our* journal. In addition to sharing current university research, *Notos* also provides a venue for SLIC members to publish their own research. If you are in a graduate program or have recently completed one, please consider submitting your research for publication. Members involved in an action research project outside of a graduate program may also submit their work. Every submission undergoes a robust vetting and peer review process before it is accepted for publication. SLIC members can trust the integrity of their journal.

Happy reading!

Engager les apprenants dans l'auto-évaluation de leurs productions écrites : le cas du portfolio d'erreurs

Samira ElAtia et Eva Lemaire

Quelle attention prêter, au niveau universitaire et dans les cours à contenu disciplinaire, à la langue qu'utilisent les étudiants dans leurs productions écrites? Dans quelle mesure est-il nécessaire de s'arrêter sur les erreurs de bas niveau langagier (Pendanx 1998) que les étudiants commettent, en dépit de leur avancement dans leurs études?[1] Que prendre en considération, à plus forte raison quand les cours sont dispensés dans une langue autre que la langue maternelle des étudiants et/ou que la langue d'enseignement représente une langue minoritaire en milieu dominant unilingue?

C'est dans un tel contexte que se déroule l'étude ici présentée. En effet, cette recherche prend pour terrain une institution universitaire francophone de l'Ouest canadien, dans un milieu linguistique majoritairement anglophone. Mais alors que la langue d'instruction est le français et que le corps estudiantin parle essentiellement le français comme L2, se pose la question de la qualité de la langue utilisée par les étudiants, dans leurs écrits en particulier, et d'une « norme académique » à respecter. Cette préoccupation, néanmoins, ne se limite pas à cette seule institution. La qualité de la langue dans les écrits produits par les étudiants au niveau universitaire est de fait au centre d'un débat plus global, que ce soit dans le contexte d'une langue d'enseignement majoritaire ou minoritaire, que ce soit en langue première ou seconde.

En Amérique du Nord anglophone, chercheurs et éducateurs s'interrogent quant au niveau de compétence langagière atteint à l'écrit par les étudiants, dans leur propre langue maternelle. La multiplicité des recherches rassemblées sous la bannière de l'« Écrire pour apprendre »—Writing Across the Curriculum—atteste de ce que le développement des compétences d'écriture ne doit plus seulement relever des cours de langue, mais relève aussi de la responsabilité des cours disciplinaires :

> With growing disappointment about the writing ability of high school graduates, educators are realizing that writing instruction can no longer be confined to the English classroom. (Kelly 2009, 2)

Dans le contexte européen également, Reinhardt et Rosen (2008) soulignent que les étudiants, même spécialistes de langue française, futurs enseignants de français, non-natifs comme natifs, n'atteignent pas nécessairement les compétences à l'écrit qui correspondent à la norme académique attendue.

Cette préoccupation pour la qualité des écrits est également apparente dans les recherches sur l'enseignement en L2 et, tout comme en langue

---

Samira ElAtia is the McCalla Professor of education and the director of graduate studies at Faculté Saint-Jean, University of Alberta. She specializes in language assessment and the evaluation of competencies; her research focuses on issues of fairness in assessment. She is the vice-president of the Canadian Association of Language Assessment.

maternelle, les approches pédagogiques préconisent de plus en plus de mettre l'accent sur la forme linguistique, y compris dans des cours à contenus disciplinaires (Bazerman et coll 2005 ; ElAtia 2011).[2]

Ainsi, dans le cadre de notre étude, nous chercherons à déterminer dans quelle mesure la mise en place d'un portfolio d'erreurs peut être efficace. Tout au long d'un semestre, les étudiants s'y réfèrent pour analyser les erreurs linguistiques qu'ils ont commises dans leurs devoirs écrits, avant d'y remédier de manière active et semi-autonome. Bien que, comme le soulignent Norris et Ortega (2001), on peut difficilement isoler les facteurs contribuant au développement des performances des étudiants, il est ici question d'évaluer la pertinence d'un outil pédagogique pouvant être utilisé aussi bien en cours de langue qu'en cours de contenu ou cours de discipline non linguistique (DNL), avec un public d'étudiants ayant ou non le français comme langue maternelle.

Le cadre linguistique minoritaire de l'étude

Bien qu'inscrits dans une grande université anglophone de l'Ouest canadien, les étudiants au cœur de cette étude ont choisi de poursuivre leurs études sur le campus francophone. Ce campus fait figure de micromilieu francophone au sein d'un environnement dominant anglophone.

Pour la plupart des étudiants, le français représente avant tout la langue employée en salle de classe et la langue de communication avec le personnel académique et non académique. Certains étudiants se saisissent de l'environnement offert par le campus pour pratiquer et faire vivre le français en dehors des salles de classe : dans les couloirs, au salon des étudiants, en résidence universitaire, lors d'évènements culturels ou festifs, etc. Qu'ils soient anglo- ou franco-dominants, ils utilisent le français régulièrement, voire quotidiennement avec leurs amis, conjoints et parents. Leur vie sociale s'inscrit en partie dans la vie sociale et culturelle de la « communauté francophone » locale. Pour d'autres, le milieu majoritairement anglophone de l'Alberta semble offrir peu

d'opportunités pour une pratique authentique hors classe et leurs interactions en français se limitent à celles qu'ils ont avec le personnel éducatif et administratif au sein du campus.

Le français est, pour les uns, langue de la première socialisation. Pour les autres, il s'agit d'une seconde voire d'une troisième langue. La scolarisation antérieure, intégralement ou partiellement en français, a été reçue en école francophone, en école d'immersion, en école anglophone avec une composante français langue seconde ou encore à l'étranger en contexte francophone minoritaire ou majoritaire, pour ce qui est des étudiants internationaux. La complexité de la réalité sociolinguistique vécue par les étudiants fait ainsi éclater les frontières classiques entre français langue maternelle et français langue seconde. Les compétences langagières des étudiants dans cette institution sont variées et ne peuvent être reliées directement à un type spécifique de profil.

L'établissement d'apprentissage offre dès lors un modèle hybride entre enseignement en milieu francophone minoritaire et enseignement en milieu immersif ; un milieu qui, selon Tarone et Swain (1995), offre peu d'occasions de pratique sociale et informelle de la langue cible, hors interaction formelle en classe avec les professeurs et les pairs.

Pour les étudiants de cette étude, l'apprentissage formel et le perfectionnement du français passent par la participation à quelques cours de français-langue, mais ils passent également par les cours disciplinaires dispensés en français. L'objectif principal de cette recherche est d'évaluer la pertinence d'une activité, la tenue d'un portfolio, qui puisse inciter les étudiants à se pencher de manière autonome sur la correction de la langue qu'ils utilisent dans les cours à contenu disciplinaire, et ce avec une intervention minimale de la part de l'enseignant.

Cadre théorique
De la nécessité de conscientiser

Remettant en cause la perspective de Krashen (1982) sur l'apprentissage des langues, les recherches, en particulier celles de Schmidt (1990) et d'Ellis (2008), mettent en évidence

l'importance, dans le processus de développement langagier, du phénomène de « *noticing* » : il s'agit, pour l'apprenant, de prendre conscience des formes linguistiques auxquelles il est exposé, en particulier quand celles-ci se révèlent non conformes à ses attentes et représentations, de l'état de ses savoirs sur la langue. Pour Ellis, l'enseignant se doit clairement d'attirer l'attention sur la forme. En lien notamment avec ces recherches, l'éveil à la conscience linguistique par une focalisation sur la forme semble prendre de plus en plus d'essor et venir en contre d'une vision d'un enseignement des langues uniquement centré sur les aspects communicatifs, et qui délaisserait ou minimiserait toute focalisation sur le code linguistique. Les travaux de Canale et Swain (1980) insistent sur la nécessité d'un équilibre à trouver entre une exposition à la langue, permettant un apprentissage implicite, des activités communicatives et un travail ciblé sur la langue, explicite et métalinguistique. Lyster (2010), en conjonction avec Spada (1997), insiste sur le fait que : « les techniques pédagogiques centrées sur la forme attirent l'attention sur des traits langagiers-cibles que les apprenants n'utiliseraient pas autrement ou même ne remarqueraient pas dans un contexte d'apprentissage orienté sur la communication » (Lyster 2010, 74).

Nussbaum (1999) évoque ainsi un courant de *conscience linguistique*, s'exprimant aussi bien dans la littérature nord-américaine qu'européenne, dans divers contextes d'apprentissage : en incitant les apprenants à prendre conscience de l'écart entre la forme fautive produite et la forme attendue, ceux-ci sont mieux à même de développer leurs compétences langagières.

Mais alors que les travaux de Van Hest (1996) indiquent que les locuteurs natifs et les apprenants de langue seconde (L2) de niveau avancé tendent à focaliser leur attention sur les dimensions discursives des textes produits plutôt que sur les erreurs structurales relevant du bas-niveau, l'objet de la présente recherche et de l'intervention didactique ici décrite est d'évaluer dans quelle mesure la production écrite en français des étudiants, natifs francophones ou pas, peut être améliorée par la tenue d'un portfolio, visant à faire prendre conscience des écarts entre les formes fautives produites et les formes considérées comme correctes par l'enseignant.

Rôle du portfolio dans l'amélioration de la langue

Le portfolio peut être défini comme un ensemble de travaux et de matériaux collectés et assemblés par un étudiant de manière à rendre compte de ses progrès, de ses accomplissements et des activités dans lesquelles il s'est engagé, et ce dans le cadre d'un domaine ou sujet académique particulier.

Pour un portfolio pertinent et complet, la sélection des documents devrait contenir au moins une réflexion de l'étudiant sur son auto-évaluation, des précisions sur les éléments à intégrer au portfolio et, finalement, les critères sur lesquels sera basée l'évaluation du travail (Romova et Andrew 2011 ; Scott 2005). Un portfolio peut appartenir à deux catégories : « *process portfolio* » ou « *product portfolio* » (Chau et Cheng 2010 ; Venn 2007). Dans le premier cas, l'accent est mis sur les étapes de l'apprentissage et le portfolio illustre la progression de l'étudiant. Dans le deuxième cas, l'étudiant s'attache avant tout à démontrer les compétences et habiletés qu'il a acquises en lien avec la détermination préalable d'objectifs de travail. Ce type de portfolio contient alors des échantillons des meilleurs travaux de l'étudiant et vise donc à illustrer les résultats de l'apprentissage.

Dans le cadre de cette étude, le portfolio a pour objectif de mettre en avant le processus d'apprentissage et l'évolution du nombre d'erreurs au cours du semestre. Il doit aider les étudiants à mieux s'approprier leurs travaux (Little 1995), en ce sens qu'il leur donne l'opportunité de s'auto-améliorer (Gülbahar et Tinmaz 2006) par rapport à leur compétence linguistique. Le portfolio doit également permettre de mieux conscientiser/responsabiliser les apprenants quant au processus d'apprentissage dans lequel ils sont impliqués (Abrami et Barrett 2005). Il repose notamment sur l'implication et sur la mise en avant des choix effectués par l'étudiant pour mener à bien son portfolio : étant flexible et personnalisé, il responsabilise pleinement l'individu.[3]

Dans des cours qui ne sont pas des cours de langues en soi, mais des cours de DNL, le portfolio semble donc un outil tout à fait pertinent à explorer en ce sens qu'il promeut l'auto-évaluation et l'engagement individuel de l'étudiant et limite donc la rétroaction que le professeur doit apporter quant à la langue utilisée par les étudiants, tout en offrant une structure pour l'apprentissage (Venn 2007).

Considérations sur la rétroaction

Dans un contexte universitaire, face à la remise d'un devoir écrit, sur quoi doit-on réagir? Et en particulier, pour ce qui nous intéresse dans le cadre de cet article, quelles attentes avoir et imposer aux étudiants en termes de correction linguistique? Il n'existe évidemment pas de réponse simple et unique à cette question. Dans la mesure où les étudiants remettent un texte pour lequel ils sont censés avoir eu du temps et divers moyens pour procéder à une révision linguistique, s'agit-il de se montrer davantage intransigeant, quand bien même la langue utilisée peut être une L2 ou même une langue étrangère? Dans la mesure où les travaux sont remis à l'écrit et recevront une rétroaction différée, les enseignants disposent à priori de temps pour mener à bien une évaluation sur le contenu mais aussi, s'ils le souhaitent, sur la forme et sur la correction linguistique du devoir.

Pourtant, dans la lignée contemporaine de la didactique de la contextualisation et de la complexité (Blanchet, Moore et Rahal 2009), il nous semble que ce sont avant tout les représentations propres aux différents acteurs de l'apprentissage et de l'enseignement qu'il s'agit de considérer à l'heure où survient l'évaluation des textes produits. Selon leurs cultures linguistiques, éducatives, professionnelles ou encore disciplinaires, étudiants et enseignants réagiront différemment à ce qu'ils considèreront être admissible ou non en termes de correction langagière, que cela soit à l'oral ou à l'écrit. Hyland et Hyland (2006, 6) insistent sur le rôle important que jouent les « cultural factors, particularly experiences and backgrounds » sur tout le processus de rétroaction. La rétroaction, dans toutes ses formes et avec toutes ses connotations sociales et culturelles, consolide l'apprentissage et l'enseignement. Avec l'avancement de la recherche sur la question de la rétroaction dans un contexte de L2, on constate de plus en plus que la rétroaction devient un « key element of the students' growing control over composing skills » (p 1). L'apprenant devient actif dans ce processus et démontre un engagement et une réflexion personnels dans ses productions.

Quoi qu'il en soit, afin d'aider les étudiants à prendre conscience de leurs fautes et erreurs,[4] le rôle de la rétroaction apparait primordial. Si, ces dernières décennies, les études se sont multipliées dans le champ de l'acquisition des langues secondes et si celles-ci ont donné des résultats parfois contradictoires comme recensés par Sheen (2010) et Ferris (2010), les récentes méta-analyses de Valezy et Spada (2006) et Mackey et Goo (2007), s'appuyant sur plus d'une cinquantaine de recherches, attestent globalement de l'impact positif de la rétroaction sur l'acquisition d'une seconde langue, et ce pour le développement des compétences orales comme écrites. Ces méta-analyses renforcent notamment la position de Ferris et Roberts (2001), dont les recherches ont montré que les étudiants ne recevant pas de rétroaction sont globalement moins à même de produire un langage correct et d'améliorer leur compétence en production écrite, contrairement à la prise de position de Truscott qui, en 1996, affirmait que toute forme de correction grammaticale était inutile, voire contreproductive.

Toutefois, comme le souligne Lyster (2010, 76), « plusieurs questions demeurent sans réponse quant à l'efficacité de types précis de rétroaction corrective ». Tout comme Bitchener, Young et Cameron (2005), Valezy et Spada (2006, 156) insistent de fait sur la « constellation de variables » qui, outre la seule rétroaction donnée par l'enseignant, peut influencer le développement langagier. Les questions « qui », « quoi », « quand », « comment » corriger n'appellent donc toujours pas de réponses univoques.

En termes de développement des compétences linguistiques, une rétroaction ciblée sur le fond est-elle plus efficace qu'une rétroaction ciblée sur la forme? Ou une combinaison de deux types de rétroaction est-elle optimale? Comparant différentes études, dont certaines évaluent l'efficacité des rétroactions centrées sur la forme

uniquement et d'autres combinent la rétroaction sur le fond et sur la forme, Guénette (2007) ne parvient guère à tirer de conclusion quant à l'efficacité de l'une ou l'autre méthode.[5]

La manière de donner de la rétroaction interroge également enseignants et chercheurs. En didactique de l'oral comme en didactique de l'écrit, on se demande par exemple si la rétroaction directe, où la forme correcte est immédiatement donnée à l'étudiant, est plus efficace que la rétroaction indirecte, où l'attention de l'apprenant est, d'une manière ou d'une autre, attirée sur la forme fautive. Là encore, la recherche ne semble pas parvenir à un consensus évident. Reformulation,[6] incitation,[7] correction explicite[8] apparaissent, aux yeux de Lyster (2010), comme autant de stratégies dont l'efficacité, pour l'acquisition de la langue à l'oral, varie en fonction du contexte d'apprentissage et du public d'apprenants ; soit autant de stratégies avec lesquelles jouer en classe. Les recherches portant sur l'acquisition de l'écrit sont, elles aussi, peu concluantes et ne permettent pas de déterminer de manière certaine si un type de rétroaction devrait primer (Chandler 2003 ; Ferris et Roberts 2001 ; Lalande 1982 ; McGarrell 2010, 2011). Considération intéressante toutefois : pour Ferris et coll (2000), la rétroaction indirecte permettrait davantage d'éveiller les étudiants à la nécessité d'être précis et consciencieux dans leurs futurs textes quand la rétroaction directe permettrait aux étudiants de s'autocorriger de manière plus exacte. Les mêmes incertitudes règnent quant à savoir qui est le plus à même à proposer de la rétroaction suite à la remise d'un texte. Paulus (1999) constate par exemple que la plupart des modifications que les étudiants font de leur propre initiative sur leurs productions écrites sont des modifications de surface quand la rétroaction des enseignants et des pairs amène à des modifications portant davantage sur le sens transmis par le texte. Signalons enfin une récente étude de Sheen (2010), qui indique qu'une rétroaction apportée à l'écrit apporterait de meilleurs résultats qu'une rétroaction donnée à l'oral.

Dans la mesure où, en didactique de l'écrit comme en didactique de l'oral, il ne semble pas y avoir nécessairement de consensus sur la manière de donner de la rétroaction, nous avons choisi, en tant que chercheures et enseignantes, de privilégier avant tout un type de rétroaction amenant à l'autocorrection de sorte que soit engagée l'agentivité (Bandura 2007) des étudiants par rapport à leur apprentissage et par rapport à la qualité de leurs productions écrites, devoirs après devoirs, dans des cours disciplinaires et non uniquement dans les cours de langue. Nous avons également choisi de donner de la rétroaction à l'écrit, afin que celle-ci soit personnalisée, en lien avec le travail écrit rendu, et afin que chaque étudiant puisse la traiter de manière autonome et au moment qu'il jugera opportun. Or, si l'on s'en réfère aux travaux de Graves (2011), l'occasion, pour les étudiants, d'évaluer la qualité de leur écrit suite à la remise d'un devoir universitaire, n'est pas aussi évidente que l'on pourrait le croire. Les résultats de ses récentes recherches (Graves 2011) indiquent en effet que, dans le domaine des arts par exemple, seuls 14 pour cent des textes remis par les étudiants recevraient une quelconque rétroaction sur la forme de l'écrit comme sur la correction linguistique. Pourtant, Lindgren, Miller et Sullivan (2008) notamment, recommandent que les rétroactions soient données sur une base continue, de manière à faire pleinement partie du processus d'apprentissage. Ces rétroactions doivent en effet permettre aux apprenants de faire le point sur leurs connaissances et de mesurer progrès et marge de progression (Zamel 1985). Le risque étant toutefois de décourager les étudiants par trop de commentaires négatifs, il importe, pour Bitchener (2008), de donner certes des rétroactions régulières, mais aussi de veiller à ce que la forme ne soit pas perçue comme intimidante. Lee (2008) insiste quant à lui sur le fait que les étudiants doivent être bien conscients des raisons d'être de la rétroaction, de manière à ce que leur estime de soi ne soit pas atteinte, puisqu'ils s'engagent dans un processus visant à améliorer leurs compétences.

En didactique du français langue première, Simard et Dufays (2010) insistent eux aussi sur la nécessité d'impliquer les élèves dans le processus d'évaluation formative par le biais de l'auto-évaluation. Dans ce champ disciplinaire, tout comme dans le champ—avant tout anglophone—des *writing studies*, les chercheurs et praticiens de

terrain mettent également en évidence la nécessité de maintenir la motivation et l'engagement des étudiants en évitant les indications exclusivement et systématiquement ciblées sur les erreurs linguistiques (Brookhart 2010 ; Roberge 2005). Ils insistent de fait sur l'importance, pour l'enseignant, d'opter pour une posture non pas de simple « correcteur », mais de « lecteur », replaçant ainsi l'étudiant à la place d'auteur.

C'est à la conjonction de la didactique du français langue maternelle et du français langue seconde/étrangère, en raison du public et des cours ciblés (pratique de la dissertation et cours en éducation), que se situe l'intervention didactique détaillée ci-dessous.

La méthodologie
Description des participants

Pour mieux évaluer la fiabilité et la validité du portfolio d'erreurs, deux groupes estudiantins distincts ont été la cible de cette étude, un groupe principal suivant un cours disciplinaire et un deuxième groupe, assistant à un cours de dissertation.

Le premier groupe (groupe A) est constitué de 53 étudiants suivant un cursus universitaire en sciences de l'éducation au niveau baccalauréat. Cette formation les destine à enseigner en milieu minoritaire, au niveau élémentaire ou secondaire : ces étudiants utiliseront donc le français comme langue d'instruction dans leurs futures pratiques professionnelles et feront figure de modèle pour leurs futurs élèves. Le second groupe (groupe B) est constitué des 9 étudiants inscrits dans un cours de dissertation. Ces étudiants relèvent de profils disciplinaires distincts : étudiants en administration des affaires, en sciences, en arts et langues et en sciences de l'éducation. Dans les deux cas, les étudiants sont captifs puisque les cours sont obligatoires. Les étudiants sont pour la plupart en 3e année académique.

Sur le plan de leur profil linguistique et scolaire, les groupes sont majoritairement constitués d'étudiants anglophones, environ 70 pour cent des participants ayant étudié le français comme L2 en école d'immersion (précoce ou tardive). On compte ensuite des étudiants déclarant le français comme langue maternelle et ayant été scolarisés

dans des écoles francophones, soit en milieu minoritaire (Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Colombie-Britannique), soit en milieu majoritaire (Québec, France, Belgique, etc). De manière marginale, quelques étudiants anglophones de l'échantillon de recherche déclarent avoir appris le français comme langue étrangère ou seconde dans un contexte éducatif autre que celui offert par les écoles d'immersion.

Description du portfolio d'erreurs

Avec l'introduction du portfolio dans les pratiques de classe, une seconde vie est insufflée aux travaux après qu'ils aient été lus, évalués et remis aux étudiants par l'enseignant. Dans les deux groupes, cinq devoirs étaient à remettre tout au long du semestre. Pour ce qui est du cours en éducation, ces travaux consistaient en des devoirs de synthèse et/ou de réflexion d'environ deux à trois pages, le sujet étant en lien avec les notions abordées en cours. L'un de ces devoirs était par exemple une synthèse de lectures faites pour le cours. En ce qui concerne le cours de rédaction avancé, chaque devoir consistait en la mise en application de techniques d'écriture pour la rédaction des différentes parties composant cet exercice d'écriture argumentatif particulier qu'est la dissertation. La longueur de ces travaux était donc variable.

Dans les deux cas néanmoins, la remise des cinq travaux écrits imposait aux étudiants un travail régulier. Une fois chaque travail évalué et remis par les enseignants, les étudiants se devaient de se saisir des différentes composantes du portfolio pour le compléter adéquatement. Ces composantes sont présentées ci-dessous.

La liste des erreurs

Une liste des fautes potentiellement présentes dans les écrits des étudiants a été distribuée en début de semestre. Comme le souligne Porquier (1977) « il ne peut y avoir un modèle unique ou une grille universelle d'AE (analyse d'erreurs) . . . car l'identification des erreurs, tout comme l'analyse elle-même, dépend du type de production et des conditions de production ». La liste d'erreurs communiquée aux étudiants (voir Annexe A) n'est donc pas une grille générique, mais une liste adaptée au public, proposée à partir d'un écrit

réalisé la première semaine des cours, servant d'évaluation diagnostique. Cette grille répertorie des erreurs se situant essentiellement au niveau phrastique (ordre des mots, usage adéquat des prépositions, syntaxe de base, etc) et infra-phrastique (choix lexicaux, orthographe). Rappelons que l'objectif de cet outil d'apprentissage est en effet de cibler plus précisément les fautes ou erreurs de bas-niveau langagier, que les étudiants ne sont plus supposés commettre dans le cadre d'écrits universitaires, de manière à ce qu'ils puissent les travailler de manière semi-autonome, avec l'aide de leur professeur, du centre d'écriture de l'université, de leurs pairs, etc. Les compétences de haut-niveau langagier (*higher order concerns*) sont de facto au cœur du travail mené en classe en dissertation, et font l'objet d'une rétroaction différenciée de la part de l'enseignant.

La liste des erreurs a été accompagnée de définitions, permettant aux étudiants de faire un lien entre la terminologie métalinguistique d'une part et les erreurs ou fautes commises dans leurs devoirs d'autre part. Des exemples de chaque type de fautes ont été donnés pour s'assurer de la bonne compréhension des étudiants, et de discussions de groupe engagées. Soulignons à ce stade qu'une même erreur, au vu de la typologie choisie, peut possiblement être identifiée de manière distincte selon les étudiants. Ainsi, un « anglicisme » lexical (utilisation de *batterie* au sens de pile par exemple) relève d'un écart dans le « choix des mots » mais peut aussi induire un écart « sémantique » entre l'intention et la réalisation langagière. De même, les erreurs de « préposition » relèvent bien souvent d'une interférence de l'anglais sur le français et peuvent aussi bien être classées comme des « anglicismes » syntaxiques.

Cependant, comme le rappelle Larruy (2003), on ne peut travailler significativement sur l'erreur qu'en fonction du système de règles intériorisées par le locuteur/scripteur. Demander aux étudiants de classer leurs erreurs en fonction de leur propre représentation de l'erreur commise revient à les engager dans une réflexion quant à l'état de leurs savoirs. Il ne s'agit pas tant ici de développer des compétences métalinguistiques, quoique cet aspect ne soit pas négligeable, que d'amener les étudiants à se construire un portfolio des « données

saisissables » (De Pietro et Schneuwly 2000, 471), faisant sens pour eux, et menant donc potentiellement à un apprentissage.

Aussi, est-il essentiel de souligner que la liste des erreurs en question n'a pas été élaborée de manière à analyser de manière exhaustive et finement critériée les compétences langagières effectives des étudiants, mais qu'il s'agit bel et bien d'un outil à vocation pédagogique et que le principe est de l'adapter au public-cible.

Grille évolutive d'analyse

Les étudiants ont également reçu un exemplaire du tableau d'erreurs (voir Annexe B). Suite à chaque remise de travaux par l'enseignant, qui a préalablement souligné les erreurs/fautes présentes dans les copies, les étudiants ont pour responsabilité d'analyser les erreurs soulignées de manière à les identifier, à les corriger et à les compter (selon le type de faute réalisée). La grille représente ainsi un outil visuel qui permet aux étudiants d'identifier le type de fautes qu'ils commettent le plus fréquemment dans leurs devoirs, de prendre conscience de leurs lacunes ou de leur inattention, et enfin de mesurer leurs progrès au fur et à mesure du semestre.

Exercice de réflexion

À la fin du semestre, les étudiants ont rendu avec leur portfolio d'erreurs une réflexion dans laquelle ils font le bilan de leurs acquis durant le semestre. Les étudiants étaient ainsi invités à auto-évaluer leur progression et à rendre compte de leur expérience d'apprentissage à l'aide du portfolio : en évaluer l'efficacité, rendre compte de leurs pratiques, faire part de leur ressenti.

L'implantation du portfolio d'erreurs

Introduit et expliqué lors de la première session de cours, le portfolio d'erreurs demande l'implication des enseignants et des étudiants tout au long du semestre. Pour ce qui est de l'implication de l'enseignant, deux options ont été explorées. Pour le groupe en éducation, l'enseignant a opté pour une lecture double des copies rendues. À la première lecture, l'accent était mis sur le contenu et sur les critères d'évaluation établis pour le cours. À la

deuxième lecture, l'enseignant indiquait les fautes liées à la langue. Pour le cours de dissertation, la rétroaction portait tant sur les erreurs/fautes de français-langue (les formes soulignées devant être reprises dans le portfolio) que sur le processus d'écriture et la maitrise des normes propres à ce genre discursif (les propositions d'amélioration prenant alors la forme de commentaires sur les copies). À cinq reprises, sur des bases régulières donc, les étudiants de ce cours ont été invités à remettre leur portfolio d'erreurs (accompagné des copies sur lesquelles portait l'analyse). Le professeur pouvait ainsi vérifier que les étudiants analysaient et remédiaient correctement à leurs erreurs et ne restaient jamais dans le doute. Lorsque l'analyse et/ou la proposition de correction se révélai(en)t incorrecte(s), les étudiants se voyaient ainsi suggérer de nouvelles pistes (indices métalinguistiques, suggestion de ressources, etc) pour réévaluer leurs erreurs, avec une rétroaction indirecte donc. En tout temps, les étudiants avaient également la possibilité de consulter l'enseignant pour des questions précises sur la tenue de leur portfolio. Une rétroaction relativement systématique a ainsi été proposée aux étudiants afin d'optimiser l'utilisation du portfolio d'erreurs ; ce dont les étudiants demeuraient libres de se saisir ou pas. Pour ce qui est du cours en éducation, les modalités différaient légèrement puisque l'enseignant, après avoir remis les devoirs, encourageait les étudiants à le rencontrer pour des *teacher–students conferencing* afin de discuter de leurs erreurs et tenter, inductivement, de les analyser/d'y remédier. Un créneau de deux heures par semaine a été établi en début de semestre. Le projet s'inscrivant dans une logique d'autonomisation, les étudiants n'étaient pas obligés de se présenter, mais l'opportunité de le faire leur était bel et bien offerte. Force est de constater qu'en début du semestre, les étudiants s'en sont peu saisis. Néanmoins, à partir du troisième devoir, plus du tiers des étudiants de ce groupe se sont présentés aux séances de conferencing, pour une durée moyenne de 10 à 15 minutes.

Qu'ils aient choisi ou non de se rapprocher de leur enseignant, tous les étudiants avaient quoi qu'il en soit pour responsabilité d'identifier le type d'erreurs réalisé dans leurs écrits en se basant sur la liste d'erreurs distribuée en début du semestre. Il leur fallait ensuite corriger les fautes,

puis faire le bilan du nombre d'erreurs commis par type de fautes en utilisant le tableau des erreurs. C'est à la fin du semestre que s'ajoutait l'écrit réflexif, invitant les étudiants à penser l'utilisation et la pertinence, pour eux, du portfolio, ainsi qu'à mettre en mots les éventuels progrès réalisés par ce biais. Dans le cadre de ce dernier écrit, les étudiants devaient :

1. Faire le bilan du nombre d'erreurs dans les 5 devoirs écrits et expliquer comment ils ont identifié et corrigé les fautes.
2. Proposer une réflexion sur le type de fautes le plus répandu dans leurs écrits : quelles en sont les causes? Comment y remédier à l'avenir?
3. Évaluer la pertinence de ce portfolio : est-ce qu'ils l'ont trouvé utile pour améliorer leur écrit, ou était-ce pour eux une perte de temps? Quelles suggestions peuvent-ils donner à l'enseignant pour un meilleur usage de cet outil?

Méthodologie de la recherche

Cette étude, exploratoire, repose sur une méthodologie mixte. À la fin du semestre, les étudiants ont remis l'intégralité de leur portfolio à l'enseignant, avec les documents établis en début de semestre auxquels s'ajoutaient les corrections apportées aux devoirs réalisés tout au long de l'année. En se basant sur les documents des étudiants, les chercheurs ont codifié les données en faisant un bilan de nombre de fautes par type d'erreurs, par devoir, par classe et pour chaque étudiant.

Pour le cours de dissertation, le nombre de fautes fut calculé en pourcentage d'erreurs (nombre d'occurrences fautives identifiées par les étudiants pour 100 mots écrits) dans la mesure où la longueur des devoirs pouvait varier significativement. Ces chiffres rendent donc compte, de façon normalisée, de la fréquence d'erreurs dans les devoirs. Pour le cours en éducation, le calcul s'est basé sur le nombre d'occurrences fautives par devoir, sachant que la longueur moyenne de ceux-ci était stable (environ 325 mots). Les écrits réflexifs ont donné lieu à une analyse thématique de contenu.

La méthodologie ici utilisée emprunte donc à une approche quantitative en ce sens que l'on calcule le nombre de fautes produites par les étudiants tout au long du semestre. Mais l'étude tient également de la recherche qualitative dans la mesure où sont utilisées des données collectées en milieu naturel, avec une analyse inductive de ces données, dans le but de comprendre le point de vue des participants à l'étude (Bogdan et Biklen 2007). Ce dernier aspect est plus précisément lié à l'analyse de contenu faite à partir des réflexions écrites par les étudiants quant à l'utilisation du portfolio.

Nous avons ainsi souhaité évaluer dans quelle mesure la tenue du portfolio tout au long d'un cours pouvait amener les étudiants à être davantage attentifs à la qualité du français utilisé dans les écrits qu'ils remettent à leur enseignant, indépendamment du contenu et du travail requis dans le cours.

Les résultats de l'étude

L'analyse des grilles remises par les étudiants permet dans un premier temps de mesurer la fréquence et l'évolution des erreurs/fautes par type, par étudiant et pour le groupe-classe. Les figures 1 et 2 permettent de visualiser l'évolution du nombre de fautes suite à chaque devoir : ils indiquent une réduction de plus de 50 pour cent des erreurs entre le premier devoir et les quatre devoirs subséquents pour l'ensemble du groupe-classe, dans le cas du cours en éducation aussi bien que dans le cas du cours de dissertation.
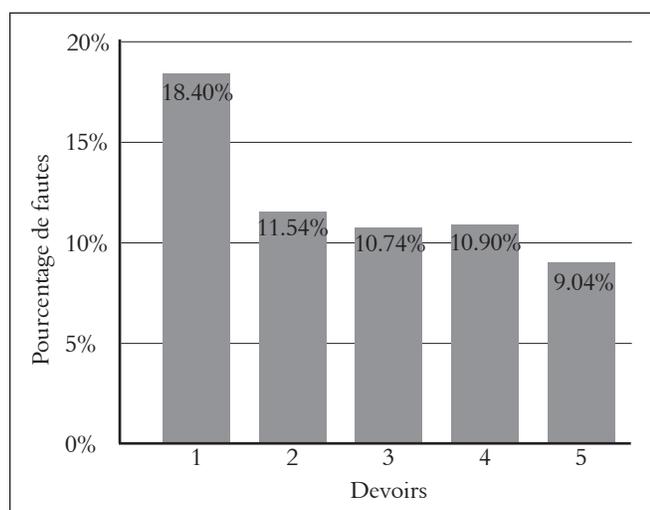
FIGURE 1. Pourcentage d'erreurs dans les cinq devoirs des étudiants du groupe A.
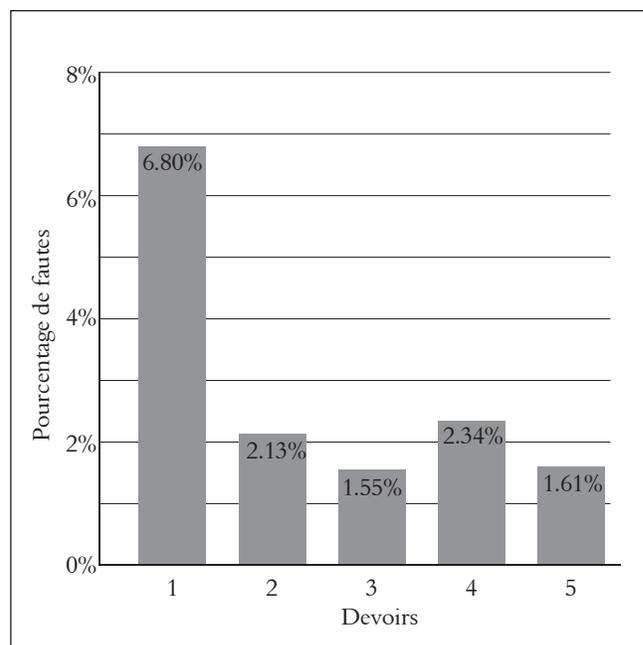
FIGURE 2. Pourcentage d'erreurs dans les cinq devoirs des étudiants du groupe B.

On observe, dans les deux cas, que le nombre d'erreurs demeure à peu près constant suite au premier relevé, avec une très légère recrudescence des erreurs dans l'avant-dernier devoir. Les deux cours et les devoirs écrits qui s'y rattachent étant clairement distincts, on peut penser que cette recrudescence n'est pas tant imputable à la réalisation d'un devoir particulier qu'à, possiblement, un relâchement de l'attention des étudiants à ce stade. Par ailleurs, la reproduction de cette étude avec un nombre d'étudiants plus grand pourrait permettre de vérifier si les écarts statistiques apparaissent véritablement importants. Quoi qu'il en soit, il demeure que la réduction du nombre d'erreurs entre le devoir 1, en début de semestre, et le devoir 5, en fin de semestre, apparait significative pour le groupe A comme pour le groupe B.

On constate une diminution plus importante des erreurs relevées entre le devoir 1 et le devoir 5 dans le cadre du cours de français/dissertation par rapport au cours en éducation : dans le premier cas, le nombre de fautes a été divisé par plus de trois entre le premier et le second devoir, dans le second cas par un peu moins de deux. Pour autant, il est intéressant de souligner qu'on retrouve dans les deux groupes une évolution relativement similaire du type de fautes au long du semestre, ainsi qu'une répartition relativement similaire des fautes par devoirs.

Les figures 3 et 4 ci-dessous représentent le type et la fréquence des erreurs-types survenues sur les cinq devoirs. Pour le groupe A comme pour le groupe B, le type d'erreurs le plus fréquemment identifié par les étudiants est le choix des mots. Pour le groupe A, le deuxième type d'erreurs le plus répandu dans les écrits des étudiants peut être classifié dans deux catégories : des fautes de sémantique générale où le sens des phrases n'était pas clair et des fautes de structure générale où la structure de la phrase ou du groupe nominal et/ou verbal n'était pas appropriée. Pour le groupe B, les fautes d'accord de différents types (accord du sujet avec le verbe, de l'adjectif avec le nom, du participe passé) constituent un bassin majeur d'erreurs dans les copies des étudiants.

Discussion

Le portfolio s'est avéré un outil efficace pour conscientiser les étudiants et les engager dans la correction de leurs erreurs à l'écrit. En effet, les résultats généraux montrent que les étudiants, une fois leur attention attirée vers leurs erreurs, ont pu faire en sorte d'en éviter un bon nombre entre le premier devoir et les devoirs suivants. Le premier relevé de fautes semble causer un « effet-choc », une prise de conscience permettant aux étudiants par la suite de mieux prêter attention aux erreurs de bas-niveau
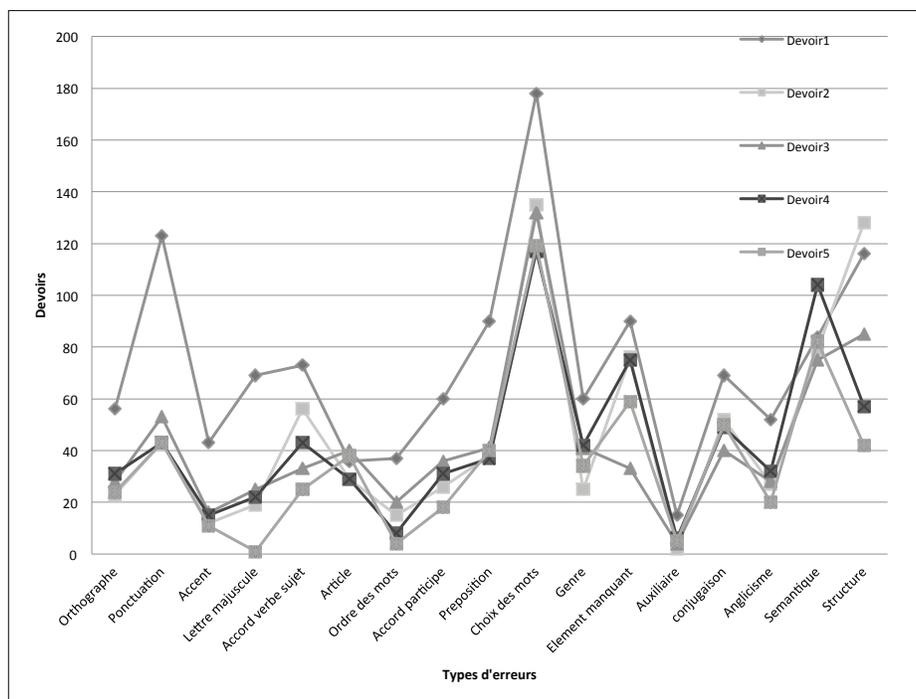

FIGURE 3. Type et fréquence de chaque erreur survenue dans chaque devoir—groupe A.
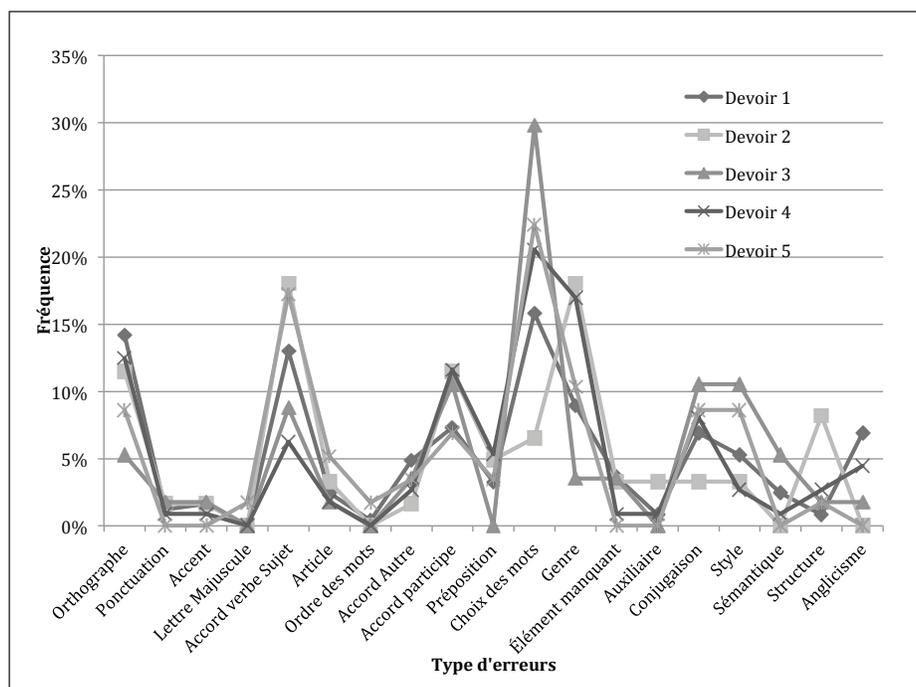

FIGURE 4. Type et fréquence de chaque erreur survenue dans chaque devoir—groupe B.

qu'ils commettent. Le fait qu'en cours de dissertation, les fautes aient décru suivant la même progression qu'en cours d'éducation semble indiquer que le journal d'erreurs ait joué un rôle important dans la progression. Il est possible que la focalisation sur la forme, nécessairement plus grande en cours de dissertation, un cours d'écriture, qu'en cours d'éducation, ait accentué la progression des étudiants. Il n'est sans doute d'ailleurs pas anodin que, pour le groupe B, la plus significative diminution d'occurrences fautives concerne les règles d'accord, notamment du participe passé, quand un travail linguistique ciblé a été mis en place dans la classe, les grilles d'analyse ayant rapidement permis de pointer cette lacune grammaticale chez tous les étudiants du groupe-classe. En cela, les résultats sont conformes aux recherches de Lyster et Ranta (1997) qui, étudiant les élèves issus des écoles d'immersion, insistent sur le potentiel de séquences de cours prenant soin d'attirer l'attention des apprenants sur la forme linguistique ciblée avant d'entamer des exercices de grammaire et autres activités de production et de réexploitation. Dans ce cas, l'attention des étudiants a été attirée quant à la fréquence des accords à réaliser, en particulier des participes passés, dans une situation de communication académique particulière, l'argumentation écrite, d'où une prise de conscience quant à la nécessité de maitriser et appliquer les règles afférentes pour éviter de multiplier les erreurs. Par ailleurs, on remarque que le portfolio d'erreurs s'est révélé efficace pour remédier à l'ensemble des erreurs-types.

En ce qui concerne la nature des erreurs, on ne peut que constater la prégnance des anglicismes identifiés comme tels dans les écrits des étudiants, vivant en milieu majoritairement anglophone. Cette prégnance coïncide avec les résultats de recherche de Van Weijen et coll (2009), qui ont démontré à quel point la langue première peut influencer la production écrite en L2 chez des apprenants de langue. On souligne également que, d'après les études de Lyster et Ranta (1997), les anglicismes sont caractéristiques du « parler immersion » et, fossilisés, ils font partie des traits langagiers les plus difficiles à modifier chez les élèves issus de ce système de scolarisation. La présence d'anglicismes, y compris chez les étudiants natifs, atteste de fait des contacts de langues qui se produisent nécessairement en milieu bilingue. Notons que l'attention des enseignants envers les anglicismes ou emprunts lexicaux est susceptible de différer selon leurs représentations quant aux normes linguistiques à appliquer en contexte plurilingue, au niveau académique, et selon le profil disciplinaire des étudiants concernés (étudiants en lettres et langues, étudiants en éducation, etc).

Qu'en pensent les étudiants?

À la fin du semestre, les étudiants des deux groupes ont partagé leurs réflexions sur leur utilisation du portfolio d'erreurs, en lien avec leur progression. La majorité des étudiants affirment adhérer à la logique d'autocorrection ainsi mise en place et ont apprécié que l'enseignant leur laisse la responsabilité de remédier à leurs erreurs, en soulignant et non pas en donnant d'emblée une correction. La rétroaction indirecte, par laquelle l'enseignant attire l'attention sur la forme fautive sans proposer de solution explicite (Lee 2008 ; Lyster et Ranta 1997) a ainsi eu la préférence des étudiants sur la rétroaction directe. Les étudiants ont également apprécié avoir une démarche claire et simple à partir de laquelle revoir le texte (analyser les formes soulignées, les corriger, les compter). En cela, les résultats convergent avec ceux de l'étude menée par McGarrell (2011), qui indique que les étudiants sont plus enclins à se corriger suite à de rapides et directives consignes, portant sur la mécanique de la langue, la grammaire et le vocabulaire que suite à des suggestions de révision portant sur les dimensions discursives-textuelles.

Les étudiants ont également fait part de leur étonnement après avoir comptabilisé pour la première fois leurs erreurs : en cela l'exercice a bien agi comme un révélateur, notamment pour prendre conscience du nombre de fautes, y compris d'inattention, qui entachent leurs devoirs et dont ils pensent pouvoir se débarrasser facilement par une relecture plus attentive.

Ainsi, parmi les apprentissages réalisés par le biais du portfolio d'erreurs, les étudiants des deux groupes soulignent quasi unanimement la (re)découverte de l'importance de la relecture, qu'ils disent maintenant appliquer plus

systématiquement et dans toutes les disciplines, et qui explique, selon eux, l'importante diminution de leurs erreurs suite au premier relevé de fautes. Les étudiants notent également que leur travail de relecture est devenu plus rapide, sachant plus précisément cibler leur attention sur les erreurs qu'ils commettent le plus fréquemment. Plusieurs affirment avoir commencé à procéder à des relectures ciblées avant la remise de leurs devoirs, ce qu'ils ne faisaient pas dans le passé.

Dans les deux groupes, les étudiants affirment également que la tenue du journal d'erreurs, qui repose sur une logique de (semi) autonomie, les a incités à revoir certaines règles de grammaire et d'orthographe qu'ils n'auraient pas révisées sinon.

En termes de motivation, le groupe A et le groupe B semblent ne pas avoir réagi de manière identique face au portfolio d'erreurs, sachant que, dans les deux cas, la tenue du portfolio était posée comme faisant partie intégrante du cours, mais que seul le groupe A était gratifié de points supplémentaires pour tenir ledit portfolio.

Le fait que les chercheures aient été à la fois les enseignantes dans ces cours peut avoir amené un biais, mais notons que, parmi les 53 étudiants du groupe A, seuls deux étudiants ont déclaré ne pas avoir apprécié l'usage du portfolio. Ces derniers n'ont pas aimé le fait de devoir « faire plus de travail » une fois leurs devoirs rendus : ils ont d'ailleurs refusé d'identifier leurs fautes et de les corriger. Ces étudiants estimaient qu'il n'était pas pertinent de recevoir de commentaires quant à leur correction linguistique quand le cours était avant tout un cours disciplinaire, devant transmettre des contenus en sciences de l'éducation. Parmi le groupe B, les réactions des étudiants apparaissent plus mitigées quant à l'utilisation du portfolio d'erreurs. Plusieurs soulignent que, bien qu'ils aient remarqué leurs progrès, la motivation à améliorer leurs compétences ne suffisait pas face à une activité parfois jugée chronophage et répétitive. Le fait que la tenue du portfolio n'ait pas été notée en cours de dissertation a clairement eu tendance à rendre ce ressenti plus prégnant que pour le groupe d'étudiants en éducation, ce qui met en évidence l'importance de la récompense par la note, y compris avec de jeunes adultes en formation académique.

Conformément aux conclusions de Hyland et Hyland (2001), il apparait que les étudiants se sont saisis diversement de la rétroaction, ici donnée via le portfolio d'erreurs, même si de manière globale l'exercice a été apprécié et a amené à des améliorations significatives en termes de correction linguistique.

Conclusion

Le but de cette étude exploratoire était d'améliorer la qualité de la langue écrite des étudiants dans deux cours universitaires différents, en utilisant un portfolio. Il s'agissait de voir si les étudiants prendraient l'initiative de corriger les fautes repérées dans leurs productions écrites, dans la mesure où une structure leur aurait été donnée (identifier, corriger, comptabiliser). Suite à cette première phase d'expérimentation du portfolio d'erreurs, les résultats obtenus dans le cours en éducation et dans le cours de dissertation nous encouragent à poursuivre des études plus approfondies.

Afin d'augmenter la motivation des étudiants, la motivation intrinsèque n'apparaissant pas comme moteur en soi, il est envisagé de systématiser l'attribution d'une note pour la tenue du portfolio.

Par ailleurs, le portfolio pourrait être introduit avec une étape supplémentaire, à savoir la remise d'une deuxième version pour chaque devoir remis et analysé. Si l'on peut s'attendre à des réticences face à l'introduction d'une telle étape pouvant être perçue comme chronophage, cela permettrait néanmoins de mieux faire apparaitre l'écriture comme processus complexe, depuis la recherche documentaire, l'élaboration d'un plan, la rédaction d'un ou de plusieurs jets jusqu'aux dernières révisions/relectures. À cet égard, si le ciblage des fautes de bas-niveau langagier a permis d'obtenir des améliorations significatives en la matière, dans quelle mesure le portfolio gagnerait-il ou perdrait-il au contraire de son efficacité en s'étoffant et embrassant également un travail sur les compétences de haut-niveau langagier?

La mise en place d'une collaboration renforcée entre enseignants, étudiants et centre de monitorat entre pairs et/ou centre d'écriture pourrait également être envisagée. Un tel espace d'éducation non formelle pourrait venir en appui

des cours et offrir un espace-temps supplémentaire pour permettre aux étudiants de discuter les erreurs linguistiques relevées dans leur portfolio, et ajouter ainsi une dimension collaborative au travail d'auto-évaluation. ElAtia et Berman (2008) remarquent que le temps que les étudiants consacrent à travailler entre pairs sur la structure de la langue, hors classe, est fructueux : les étudiants sont motivés à profiter des services de monitorat offerts, ce qui permet par ailleurs aux enseignants de consacrer moins de temps à la remédiation des erreurs linguistiques de base pendant la classe. Les recherches de Lemaire et Wilson (2011) indiquent en outre que les étudiants se prêtant au monitorat entre pairs, collaborant avec les moniteurs formés du centre d'écriture de l'université, gagnent en confiance et affirment améliorer significativement leurs écrits, non seulement sur le plan des erreurs de bas-niveau langagier, visé par la tenue du portfolio, mais aussi sur le plan des opérations relevant du haut-niveau langagier ; une dimension qui pourrait être introduite dans une version étoffée du portfolio.

Suite aux résultats positifs obtenus, une recherche sur un échantillon plus large devra être menée, dans d'autres cours de rédaction comme dans les cours de DNL, des cours de sciences ou d'économie par exemple. Un échantillonnage plus large permettra de confirmer si les écarts dans l'évolution par type de fautes sont significatifs et de déterminer si le portfolio permet d'intervenir de façon privilégiée sur tel ou tel type de fautes. La mise en place d'une collaboration accrue avec des espaces tels que les centres d'écriture/de monitorat entre pairs pourrait également fournir de nouvelles données quant à la capacité des étudiants à s'auto-/hétéro-corriger et à améliorer leurs compétences par ce biais.

Par ailleurs, on constate que la réduction du nombre d'erreurs commises par les étudiants-cibles s'est manifestée dès le deuxième devoir, suite au premier relevé dans la grille d'analyse, et qu'une stagnation (effet plateau) est ensuite apparue. Dans quelle mesure l'« effet-choc » obtenu suite au premier relevé serait-il suffisant pour que les étudiants se soucient davantage de se relire et de remédier aux erreurs les plus fréquemment commises? Ou le maintien de l'attention tout au long du semestre est-il

essentiel pour obtenir des effets à long terme? Dans une prochaine recherche, on se proposera de réduire le nombre de devoirs pour lesquels l'usage du portfolio est requis et d'évaluer ainsi l'impact de cet outil d'apprentissage selon sa fréquence d'utilisation. Des post-tests pourraient également être ajoutés au protocole afin d'évaluer à long terme l'impact du portfolio d'erreurs, tout comme pourrait l'être la mise en place de groupes-témoins.

Annexe A : Liste des erreurs

Orthographe	Problèmes avec l'orthographe d'un mot
Ponctuation	Mauvais choix ou manque de ponctuation
Accent	Mauvais choix ou manque d'accent
Lettre majuscule	Usage erroné de la majuscule ou la minuscule
Accord verbe sujet	Accord du verbe avec son sujet est erroné
Article	Le choix de l'article n'est pas approprié. Manque d'article quand c'est nécessaire
Ordre des mots	La place des mots n'est pas bonne
Accord participe	Le participe ne s'accorde pas bien avec le sujet / ou le COD
Préposition	Choix, manque, ou usage excessif d'une préposition
Choix des mots	Choix du vocabulaire
Genre	Erreur entre le féminin et le masculin
Élément manquant	Quelque chose manque à la phrase
Auxiliaire	Fautes entre les verbes conjugués avec avoir et être
Conjugaison	Mauvaise conjugaison et choix du temps approprié
Anglicisme	Usage de mots ou structures anglais. Faux amis

Sémantique	L'idée de la phrase n'est pas claire.
Structure	La structure de la phrase n'est pas correcte

Annexe B : Tableau des erreurs

	Devoir 1	Devoir 2	Devoir 3	Devoir 4	Devoir 5
Orthographe					
Ponctuation					
Accent					
Lettre majuscule					
Accord verbe sujet					
Article					
Ordre des mots					
Accord participe					
Préposition					
Choix des mots					
Genre					
Élément manquant					
Auxiliaire					
Conjugaison					
Anglicisme					
Sémantique					
Structure					

Notes

1. D'après Pendanx (1998), les activités de bas niveau renvoient au lexique, à la morphosyntaxe, à la syntaxe de base, à la phonétique, à la prosodie, au graphisme. Les erreurs et activités langagières de bas niveau portent sur le code linguistique, au niveau de la phrase. Les activités de haut niveau s'attachent à la cohérence textuelle, à l'organisation du discours. Cette distinction correspond à la terminologie anglo-saxonne de « *higher* » et « *lower order concerns* ».

2. Connu en anglais sous « focusing on form in content-based courses ».

3. En anglais on parle d'un *sense of ownership* accru par le biais du portfolio (Chau et Cheng 2010 ; Little 1995).

4. Il existe en didactique des langues une différence de nature entre *fautes* et *erreurs* que Larruy (2003, 120) définit ci-après : « Les fautes correspondent à des erreurs de type 'lapsus' inattention/fatigue que l'élève peut corriger (oubli des marques de pluriel alors que le mécanisme est maitrisé). En revanche, les erreurs relèvent d'une méconnaissance de la règle de fonctionnement ». Dans le cadre de cette recherche, les termes *erreurs* et *fautes* seront utilisés indifféremment, comme nous ne cherchons pas à évaluer les raisons d'être des occurrences fautives produites par les étudiants.

5. Guénette (2007) a pris en compte dans sa méta-analyse les recherches de Lalande (1982) ; Robb, Ross et Shortreed (1986) ; Ferris et Roberts (2001) ; Chandler (2003) ; Ashwell (2000) ; Fathman et Whalley (1990) ; Fazio (2001) ; Kepner (1991) ; Semke (1984) ; et Sheppard (1992).

6. Répétition de l'énoncé de l'apprenant par l'enseignant, sans toutefois la forme fautive (Lyster et Ranta 1997).

7. Incitation renvoie, ici, à l'instar de Lyster (2010), aux formes de rétroactions qui n'énoncent pas la forme correcte, mais fournissent plutôt des indices pour enjoindre les apprenants à récupérer ces formes de leurs connaissances acquises. L'incitation engage donc l'apprenant dans une négociation de la forme à utiliser dans le contexte d'énonciation.

8. L'enseignant fournit la forme correcte en précisant que l'énoncé de l'apprenant était incorrect.

Références

Abrami, P, et H Barrett. 2005. « Directions for Research and Development on Electronic Portfolios ». *Canadian Journal of Learning and Technology* 31, no 3 : 1–15.

Ashwell, T. 2000. « Patterns of Teacher Response to Student Writing in a Multiple-Draft Composition Classroom : Is Content Feedback Followed by Form Feedback the Best Method? » *Journal of Second Language Writing* 9, no 3 : 227–57.

Bandura, A. 2007. *Auto-efficacité : le sentiment d'efficacité personnelle.* Bruxelles, Belgique : De Boeck.

Bazerman, C, J Little, L Bethel, T Chavkin, D Fouquette et J Garufis. 2005. *Reference Guide to Writing Across the Curriculum.* West Lafayette, Ind : Parlor.

Bitchener, J. 2008. « Evidence in Support of Written Corrective Feedback ». *Journal of Second Language Writing* 17, no 2 : 102–18.

Bitchener, J, S Young et D Cameron. 2005. « The Effect of Different Types of Corrective Feedback on ESL Student Writing ». *Journal of Second Language Writing* 14, no 3 : 191–205.

Blanchet, P, D Moore et S A Rahal. 2009. *Perspectives pour une didactique des langues contextualisée*. Paris : Éditions des archives contemporaines.

Bogdan, R C, et S K Biklen. 2007. *Qualitative Research for Education : An Introduction to Theories and Methods.* 5e éd. Boston : Pearson.

Brookhart, S. 2010. *La rétroaction efficace.* Montréal : Chenelière Éducation.

Canale, M, et M Swain. 1980. « Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing ». *Applied Linguistics* 1, no 1 : 1–47.

Chandler, J. 2003. « The Efficacy of Various Kinds of Error Feedback for Improvement in the Accuracy and Fluency of L2 Student Writing ». *Journal of Second Language Writing* 12, no 3 : 267–96.

Chau, J, et G Cheng. 2010. « Towards Understanding the Potential of E-Portfolios for Independent Learning : A Qualitative Study ». *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology* 26, no 7 : 932–50.

De Pietro, J-F, et P Schneuwly. 2000. « Pour une didactique de l'oral, ou : l'enseignement/apprentissage est-il une « macro-séquence » potentiellement acquisitionnelle? » *Études de linguistique appliquée* 120 : 461–74.

ElAtia, S. 2011. « Enhancing Foreign Language Writing in Content-Based Courses ». *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education* 7, no 2 : 192–206.

ElAtia, S, et R Berman. 2008. « Classroom Time as a Factor in the Instruction of English for Academic Purposes ». Dans *Linguistics in an Age of Globalization : Perspectives on Arabic Language and Teaching*, dir Z Ibrahim et S A M Makhlouf, 131–45. Cairo : American University in Cairo Press.

Ellis, R. 2008. *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford : Oxford University Press.

Fathman, A K, et E Whalley. 1990. « Teacher Response to Student Writing : Focus on Form Versus Content ». Dans *Second Language Writing : Research Insights for the Classroom*, dir B Kroll, 178–90. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.

Fazio, L L. 2001. « The Effect of Corrections and Commentaries on the Journal Writing Accuracy of Minority- and Majority-Language Students ». *Journal of Second Language Writing* 10, no 4 : 235–49.

Ferris, D R. 2010. « Second Language Writing Research and Written Corrective Feedback in SLA : Intersections and Practical Applications ». *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 32, no 2 : 181–201.

Ferris, D, S Chaney, K Komura, B Roberts et B McKee. 2000. « Perspectives, Problems, and Practices in Treating Written Error ». Colloque présenté au International TESOL Convention, Vancouver, March 14–18.

Ferris, D, et B Roberts. 2001. « Error Feedback in L2 Writing Classes : How Explicit Does It Need to Be? » *Journal of Second Language Writing* 10, no 3 : 161–84.

Graves, R. 2011. « What Assignments Do University Professors Ask Students to Write? » Communication présentée lors de la conférence annuelle de l'Association canadienne de rédactologie, Université du Nouveau-Brunswick, Fredericton.

Guénette, D. 2007. « Is Feedback Pedagogically Correct? : Research Design Issues in Studies of Feedback on Writing ». *Journal of Second Language Writing* 16, no 1 : 40–53.

Gülbahar, Y, et H Tinmaz. 2006. « Implementing Project-Based Learning and E-Portfolio Assessment in an Undergraduate Course ». *Journal of Research on Technology in Education* 38, no 3 : 309–27.

Hyland, F, et K Hyland. 2001. « Sugaring the Pill : Praise and Criticism in Written Feedback ». *Journal of Second Language Writing* 10, no 3 : 185–212.

Hyland, K, et F Hyland, dirs. 2006. *Feedback in Second Language Writing: Contexts and Issues*. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.

Kelly, M. 2009. *Writing Across the Curriculum: The Importance of Integrating Writing in All Subjects.* Récupéré de http://712educators.about.com/cs/writingresources/a/writing.htm.

Kepner, C G. 1991. « An Experiment in the Relationship of Types of Written Feedback to the Development of Second-Language Writing Skills ». *The Modern Language Journal* 75, no 3 : 305–13.

Krashen, S D. 1982. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Lalande, J F. 1982. « Reducing Composition Errors : An Experiment ». *The Modern Language Journal* 66, no 2 : 140–49.

Larruy, M M. 2003. *L'interprétation de l'erreur*. Paris : Clé international.

Lee, H. 2008. « Learner Agency and Identity in Second Language Writing ». *ITL International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 156 : 109–28.

Lemaire, E, et S Wilson. 2011. « Le centre de monitorat entre pairs comme espace de (ré)appropriation de l'écriture ». Communication présentée lors de la conférence annuelle de l'Association canadienne de rédactologie, Université du Nouveau-Brunswick, Fredericton.

Lindgren, E, K S Miller et K P H Sullivan. 2008. « Development of Fluency and Revision in L1 and L2 Writing in Swedish High School Years Eight and Nine ». *ITL International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 156 : 133–52.

Little, D. 1995. « Learning as Dialogue: The Dependence of Learner Autonomy on Teacher Autonomy ». *System* 23, no 2 : 175–81.

Lyster, R. 2010. « Enseignement centré sur la forme et acquisition du genre grammatical en français L2 ». *Revue canadienne de linguistique appliquée* 13 : 73–94.

Lyster, R, et L Ranta. 1997. « Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake : Negotiation of Form in Communicative Classrooms ». *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 19, no 1 : 37–66.

Mackey, A, et J Goo. 2007. « Interaction Research in SLA : A Meta-Analysis and Research Synthesis ». Dans *Conversational Interaction in Second Language Acquisition : A Series of Empirical Studies,* dir A Mackey, 407–57. Oxford : Oxford University Press.

McGarrell, H. 2010. « Native and Non-Native English Speaking Student Teachers Engage in Peer Feedback ». *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics* 13, no 1 : 71–90.

———. 2011. « ESL Students' Revisions as a Mirror of Writing Teacher Commentary ». Communication présentée lors de la conférence annuelle de l'Association canadienne de rédactologie, Université du Nouveau-Brunswick, Fredericton.

Norris, J M, et L Ortega. 2001. « Does Type of Instruction Make a Difference? Substantive Findings from a Meta-Analytic Review ». Dans *Form-Focused Instruction and Second Language Learning*, dir R Ellis, 157–213. Chichester, UK: Wiley.

Nussbaum, L. 1999. « Émergence de la conscience linguistique en travail de groupe entre apprenants de langue étrangère ». *Langages* 134 : 35–50.

Paulus, T M. 1999. « The Effect of Peer and Teacher Feedback on Student Writing ». *Journal of Second Language Writing* 8, no 3 : 265–89.

Pendanx, M. 1998. *Les activités d'apprentissage en classe de langue*. Paris : Hachette.

Porquier, R. 1977. « L'analyse des erreurs. Problèmes et perspectives ». *Études de linguistique appliquée* 21 : 81–97.

Reinhardt, C, et E Rosen. 2008. « M2 = C2? Le CECR, un outil pour penser la place du français dans la construction universitaire européenne ». *Synergies Europe* 3 : 101–12.

Robb, T, S Ross et I Shortreed. 1986. « Salience of Feedback on Error and Its Effect on EFL Writing Quality ». *TESOL Quarterly* 20, no 1 : 83–96.

Roberge, J. 2005. *Corriger les textes de vos élèves, précisions et stratégies*. Montréal : Chenelière Education.

Romova, Z, et M Andrew. 2011. « Teaching and Assessing Academic Writing via the Portfolio : Benefits for Learners of English as an Additional Language ». *Assessing Writing* 16, no 2 : 111–22.

Schmidt, R W. 1990. « The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning ». *Applied Linguistics* 11, no 2 : 129–58.

Scott, T. 2005. « Creating the Subject of Portfolios : Reflective Writing and the Conveyance of Institutional Prerogatives ». *Written Communication* 22, no 1 : 3–35.

Semke, H D. 1984. « Effects of the Red Pen ». *Foreign Language Annals* 17, no 3 : 195–202.

Sheen, Y. 2010. « Differential Effects of Oral and Written Corrective Feedback in the ESL Classroom ». *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 32, no 2 : 203–34.

Sheppard, K. 1992. « Two Feedback Types : Do They Make a Difference? » *RELC Journal* 23, no 1 : 103–10.

Simard, C, et J-C Dufays. 2010. *Didactique du français langue première*. Bruxelles : De Boeck.

Spada, N. 1997. « Form-Focussed Instruction and Second Language Acquisition : A Review of Classroom and Laboratory Research ». *Language Teaching* 30, no 2 : 73–87.

Tarone, E, et M Swain. 1995. « A Sociolinguistic Perspective on Second Language Use in Immersion Classrooms ». *The Modern Language Journal* 79, no 2 : 166–77.

Truscott, J. 1996. « The Case Against Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes ». *Language Learning* 46, no 2 : 327–69.

Valezy, J R, et N Spada. 2006. « The Effectiveness of Corrective Feedback for the Acquisition of L2 Grammar : A Meta-Analysis of the Research ». Dans *Synthesizing Research on Language Learning and Teaching*, dir J M Norris et L Ortega, 133–64. Amsterdam : Benjamins.

Van Hest, E. 1996. *Self-Repair in L1 and L2 Production*. Tilburg, Pays-Bas : Tilburg University Press.

Van Weijen, D, H van den Bergh, G Rijlaarsdam et T Sanders. 2009. « L1 Use During L2 Writing : An Empirical Study of a Complex Phenomenon ». *Journal of Second Language Writing* 18, no 4 : 235–50.

Venn, J J. 2007. *Assessing Students with Special Needs*. 4e éd. Upper Saddle River, NJ : Prentice Hall.

Zamel, V. 1985. « Responding to Student Writing ». *TESOL Quarterly* 19, no 1 : 79–101.

Instructional Strategies for Developing Intercultural Competence in the Language Classroom

Vitaliy Shyyan

This article describes a study in which instructional strategies for developing the intercultural competence of junior high and senior high school students in the language classroom were generated by examining the perceptions of educators. Through focus group discussions and accompanying surveys, language teachers commented on the importance, the feasibility and the use of selected instructional strategies identified in the limited research literature and generated additional strategies for developing students' intercultural competence skills. Implications for further research are also discussed.

The Need for Intercultural Competence Skills

Oksana is wearing a traditional Ukrainian embroidered shirt on a sunny morning, rushing to her school where she works as an English–Ukrainian bilingual teacher. She jokingly calls her school the United Nations because it serves students from more than 50 countries and offers a host of bilingual programs. Oksana is wearing a traditional outfit because today is the school's culture fair. She wonders what she can do to help her students become interculturally competent in the increasingly diverse world.

Current globalization tendencies and increasing immigration dynamics globally and, in particular, in North America have brought about an unprecedented diversity of linguo-cultural makeup. The 2000 United States census data show that foreign-born individuals constituted 11.1 per cent of the total population, an increase of 3.2 percentage points from 1990 (Malone et al 2003). In 2005/06, English-language learners represented 10 per cent of the total student population in the United States (Levine and McCloskey 2009). Similarly, in Canada in 2006, 9 per cent of students spoke a nonofficial language at home (Statistics Canada 2007). These tendencies point to the need for educators to foster students' intercultural competence skills (Nelson 1998).

Language teachers and language teacher educators generally agree that intercultural competence skills are essential for language teaching. Language teacher preparation programs, however, vary widely in how they offer intercultural education courses (Christensen 2007). How can language teachers acquire feasible instructional strategies to assist their students with conceptualizing intercultural similarities and differences? What information is available in the field and what additional research is needed to facilitate effective linguo-cultural instruction?

Vitaliy Shyyan, PhD, is a director of student supports at the Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium, University of California Santa Cruz, Silicon Valley Extension. He works on sustaining and enhancing the assessment system to improve outcomes for diverse students, including English learners, students with disabilities and English learners with disabilities.

Intercultural Competence Perspectives

Because language and culture are interrelated, teachers cannot provide effective language instruction without developing their students' intercultural competence—an understanding of the meaning and importance of culture in people's lives (Bennett, Bennett and Allen 2003). Various approaches to classroom instruction with the goal of developing learners' intercultural competence can be found in the research literature.

Paige et al (2003) identify culture-specific and culture-general learning as pathways to developing intercultural competence. Culture-specific learning entails learning aspects and behaviours of a specific cultural group or setting, whereas culture-general learning focuses on metacultural principles that can be adhered to in various contexts.

Müller-Jacquier (2004) has identified four culture-general approaches contextualized by culture-specific examples:

- Learning through direct exposure to another culture
- Learning through classroom teaching of cognitive content
- Learning through the means of online interaction
- Learning through discussing linguistic differences in the classroom

Blog technology has been increasingly used in facilitating intercultural communication and developing intercultural competence (Elola and Oskoz 2008; Lee 2011). These approaches are grounded in the premises of constructivism and emphasize the developmental nature of intercultural competence.

Bennett, Bennett and Allen (2003) base their constructivist approach on the development of intercultural competence in the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) (Bennett 1993), which has subsequently been updated for the purposes of the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) grounded in this model (Hammer 2009). The DMIS consists of six developmental stages within a continuum of intercultural competence development—three ethnocentric stages (denial, defence, minimization) and three ethnorelative stages (acceptance, adaptation, integration) (Bennett 1993). More recently, minimization was reconceptualized as a transitional stage (Hammer 2009).

In the ethnocentric stages, people experience reality through the lens of their own culture. In contrast, those in the ethnorelative stages perceive reality through multiple cultural perspectives. Bennett, Bennett and Allen (2003) suggest that instruction should be sequenced in accordance with the characteristics and needs of those in each developmental stage to most effectively facilitate the growth of intercultural competence in the language classroom. Therefore, learners with ethnocentric mindsets should be exposed to content that emphasizes cultural similarities and highlights visible cultural differences, while instruction for learners with ethnorelative mindsets should include more-complex intercultural concepts and approaches, such as independent intercultural research and value and norm differences.

Shyyan, Dunn and Cammarata (2014) examined the dynamics of the development of intercultural competence among a group of student teachers from various content areas in the context of an undergraduate teacher education course on language, literacy and culture. The qualitative and quantitative results of the study point to an increased level of intercultural understanding among the preservice teachers, particularly those who entered the course with monocultural mindsets. Additionally, the results indicate a heightened awareness of the pedagogical value of linguo-cultural instruction in content areas, as well as approaches for carrying it out.

The limited research base on instructional strategies is continually growing. According to Bilash and Shyyan (2015), some research focuses on the use of instructional strategies to optimize the instructional process when considering individual student characteristics in the language classroom. In a summary of a three-year study of the instructional strategies high school students reported using for learning a second language, the National Capital Language Resource Center (1996) recommended that teachers build on students' existing knowledge of strategies, as

increased metacognition of how strategies work across skill areas may help students make appropriate strategy selections. Netten and Germain (2005) have addressed the importance of instructional strategies related to language use. Castañeda and Rodríguez-González (2011) recommend meaningful involvement of students in the process of assessment.

In the study detailed in this article, language teachers commented on the importance of strategies available in the current research literature—for instance, countering negative stereotypes through positive generalizations and cultural values; making distinctions between personal, cultural and universal behaviours; using the describe–interpret–evaluate model; using various types of communication styles; and talking about intercultural experiences in the classroom (Corrius and Pujol 2010; Emert 2008; Fowler and Pusch 2010). (The results section includes the complete list of these strategies.) The goal of this study was to identify effective instructional strategies, and the core research question was, What instructional strategies do teachers recommend for developing intercultural competence in the language classroom? The researcher administered the IDI (Bennett 1986, 1993; Hammer 2009) to participants in order to gain additional information about the overall level of their intercultural competence. Through focus group discussions, language teachers sought consensus on the importance of instructional practices that facilitate development of students' intercultural skills. The researcher also collected recommendations from the language teachers on instructional strategy feasibility and use to identify sets of useful instructional strategies for developing students' intercultural competence skills. Finally, the study objectives entailed generating additional instructional strategies recommended by junior high and senior high school language teachers.

Method

This study focused on identifying effective instructional strategies for developing junior high and senior high school students' intercultural competence in the language classroom. The research instruments and procedures used in this study were carefully selected to generate a current picture of intercultural instructional practices in increasingly diverse educational settings.

Key Concepts

The research protocol followed during each focus group used identical research instruments. For consistency, the following definitions of the principal concepts were introduced at the beginning of each focus group session:

- *Culture* is a "set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of a society or social group, and . . . encompasses, in addition to art and literature, lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs" (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization 2002, 18).
- *Intercultural competence* entails "understanding the meaning and importance of culture in one's life as well as in students' and their families' lives; it is the capability to shift cultural perspective and adapt behavior to cultural commonality and difference" (Hammer 2009).
- An *instructional strategy* is defined as "a purposeful activity to engage learners in acquiring new behaviors or knowledge. To be useful for our purposes, an instructional strategy should have clearly defined steps or a clear description of what the teacher does" (Shyyan, Thurlow and Liu 2008, 148).

Participants

The participant focus groups included junior high and senior high school language teachers employed in schools in the capital city of a prairie province in Canada. The educators

- shared their demographic information for data analysis purposes,
- completed the IDI questionnaire,
- generated additional instructional strategies and weighted the importance of the existing and newly generated strategies in a multi-attribute consensus building (MACB) process, and
- responded to a survey on instructional strategy use and feasibility.

Three focus groups involving a total of 16 junior high and senior high school language teachers were conducted in order to collect data for the study. Figure 1 shows the length of the participants' professional experience. The majority of participants (75 per cent) had over 10 years of professional experience.
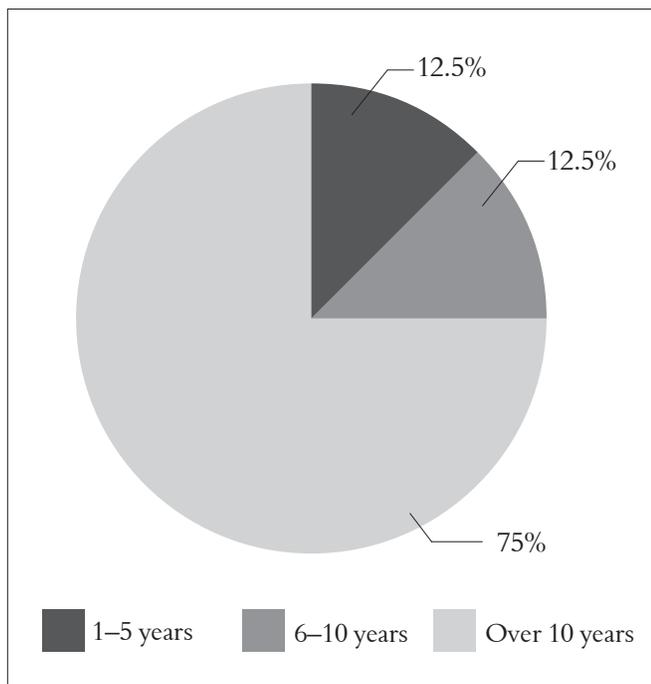

FIGURE 1. Educators' years of professional experience.

As for intercultural experience, the educators reported a range from having no intercultural experience to spending over 10 years in another culture (Figure 2). The group with the most intercultural experience was the largest (25 per cent of study participants). They listed the following host cultures associated with their prior intercultural experiences: Chile, China, El Salvador, Germany, Japan, Mexico, Quebec and Ukraine.

Instrumentation

The researcher employed several instruments in this study, combined into an overarching focus group approach: a demographic survey, the IDI, MACB instruments, and a use and feasibility survey.

Demographic Survey

The first survey was developed to collect demographic information on the research
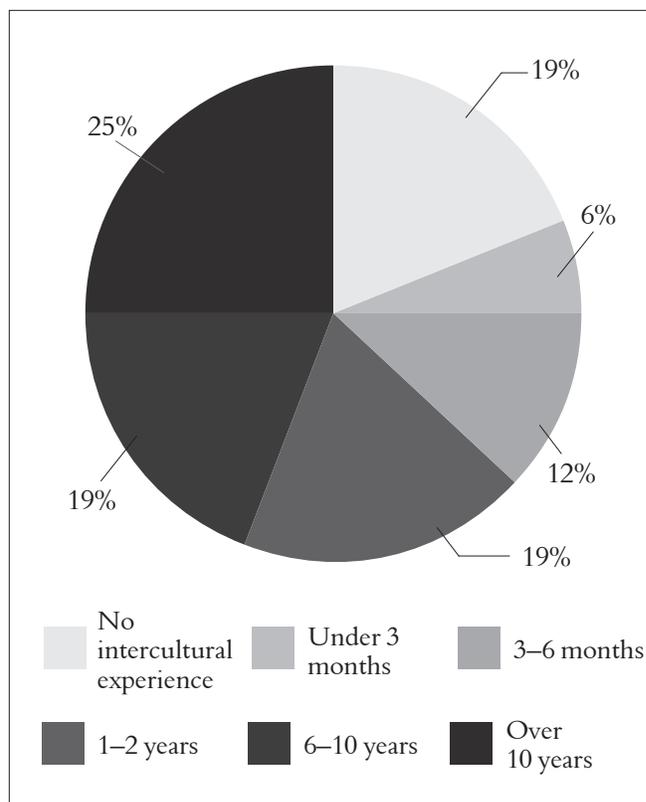
FIGURE 2. Educators' intercultural experience in months and years.

participants. This survey included questions about gender, language of instruction, and teaching position and experience, as well as the cultural backgrounds of the English-language learners served by the teachers. Additionally, the survey included questions about participants' intercultural and international experiences—namely, the location and duration of such experiences.

IDI

The IDI is a well-established instrument for assessing intercultural competence. Based on the DMIS, which was created by Bennett (1986, 1993) and further developed by Hammer (2009), the IDI offers a statistically reliable and cross-culturally valid measure of an individual's or a group's intercultural competence.

The IDI consists of 50 questionnaire items, as well as a series of demographic questions. Once the questionnaire is completed, the IDI software generates an individual or a group profile of the overall orientation of the respondent(s) in the context of a developmental continuum of

orientations that range from the monocultural mindsets referred to as denial and polarization to the transitional mindset known as minimization to the more intercultural mindsets of acceptance and adaptation (Hammer 2009).

This inventory was employed to measure the teachers' orientations toward cultural similarities and differences as a means of gaining understanding of their capacity to offer instruction for students of different cultural origins.

MACB

The MACB research method is a quantitative approach for determining a group's opinion about the importance of each variable on a list (Shyyan et al 2013; Vanderwood, Ysseldyke and Thurlow 1993). This method enables a small or large group of participants to generate and discuss a set of items, weight the importance of each item, and debrief their weightings to either reach consensus or identify and document the sources of difference in participants' perceptions. According to Lewis and Johnson (2000), MACB is appropriate when judgments are required as part of the decision-making process, and it "structures the decision process for an individual or group of stakeholders who rank several alternatives." This research method requires a comparison between two or more alternatives.

In this study, the variables weighted by participants were instructional strategies for developing intercultural competence. The MACB method allowed participants to consider a list of sample instructional strategies; generate additional strategies; and weight the importance of the strategies on a scale of 1–20 (*very unimportant*), 21–40 (*unimportant*), 41–60 (*neither unimportant nor important*), 61–80 (*important*) and 81–100 (*very important*), provided that at least one variable was assigned the maximum 100 score. All weightings were projected onto a screen, and participants were able to change their own weighting at any point in the discussion to achieve a higher level of consensus.

Use and Feasibility Survey

Finally, the researcher administered the use and feasibility survey at the end of each focus group process. This survey contained the same lists of core instructional strategies as the MACB instrument. For each focus group, the instrument also included the additional instructional strategies generated by that group of educators. However, input on each group's subset of strategies was not obtained from the entire research sample. The question of use addressed the frequency of each strategy's application; participants had four answer choices: *never, sometimes, often* and *always*. The question of feasibility targeted the level of ease of implementing each strategy; there were four answer choices: *low, somewhat low, somewhat high* and *high*.

Procedure

The study was conducted over a period of two years. Each focus group session started with a brief presentation of key concepts and procedures. Subsequently, participants were asked to complete a demographic survey to report on their professional background and intercultural experiences. The IDI administration followed the demographic survey to further capture information on participants' orientations toward intercultural similarities and differences.

The MACB method was employed in the next phase of each focus group on the same day. The researcher provided an overview of the method, and then the teachers were asked to consider the starting list of instructional strategies, suggest additional items for the list, weight the importance of all the strategies and discuss the justifications for their weightings. All strategy definitions from the original list were available to all participants to ensure that everyone had the same strategy in mind when providing feedback. Definitions of the additionally generated strategies were also written down to adhere to consistency principles. However, the additional strategies generated by each group were weighted only by that group, and their importance weightings and use and feasibility results are not generalizable, because of the small group sizes. Once submitted by participants, all weightings were instantly entered into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and projected onto a screen to facilitate focus group discussions, which centred predominantly on the strategies that received polarized weightings. Teachers were able to

change their weightings at any time, and complete consensus was not enforced, as participants were entitled to their individual opinions.

After the MACB process, as part of the same focus group session, the researcher administered the strategy use and feasibility survey. This concluding research activity enabled the participants to report on their perceptions of the frequency of use of the previously outlined and discussed instructional strategies, as well as the degree to which those practices were implementable in the classroom.

Results

The results are reported in the following order: IDI results, findings about educators' perceptions of the importance of various instructional strategies, findings about educators' perceptions of the use and feasibility of various instructional strategies, and considerations of additional instructional strategies.

IDI Results

The IDI was administered at the beginning of the focus group process. The group profile for this sample of teachers indicated that the group's self-perceived orientation score was 124.77 points and fell within the adaptation orientation on the IDI developmental continuum. The actual orientation score for this sample, however, was 101.13 points, which falls in the minimization orientation. The gap (23.64 points) between the perceived orientation and the actual orientation of the group indicates that the participants

substantially overestimated their level of intercultural competence. While the teachers perceived themselves as being effective at recognizing and appreciating patterns of cultural difference in their own and other cultures, the IDI results point to the group's tendency to highlight commonalities across cultures, which can mask important cultural differences with respect to values, perceptions and behaviours.

A closer look at the range of developmental orientations of this group of teachers based on the IDI interpretation approach reveals the distribution of developmental orientations in the sample (see Figure 3). The IDI group profile of the 16 junior high and senior high school language teachers indicated that their developmental orientation was at the transitional minimization stage. The overall group's current minimization-level efforts at building understanding and awareness of cultural differences and commonalities in the school environment were effective at times and less effective in other situations. Further, there was likely a sense (especially with regard to equal treatment and tolerance of cultural differences) that the educational institution was on the right track in terms of creating an inclusive, multicultural community. However, a likely blind spot is that the group's efforts at establishing common goals, policies and practices in the organization may not have attended as deeply as needed to cultural differences and integrating those differences in the solutions generated. The group may have struggled with making decisions and solving problems when cultural differences arose
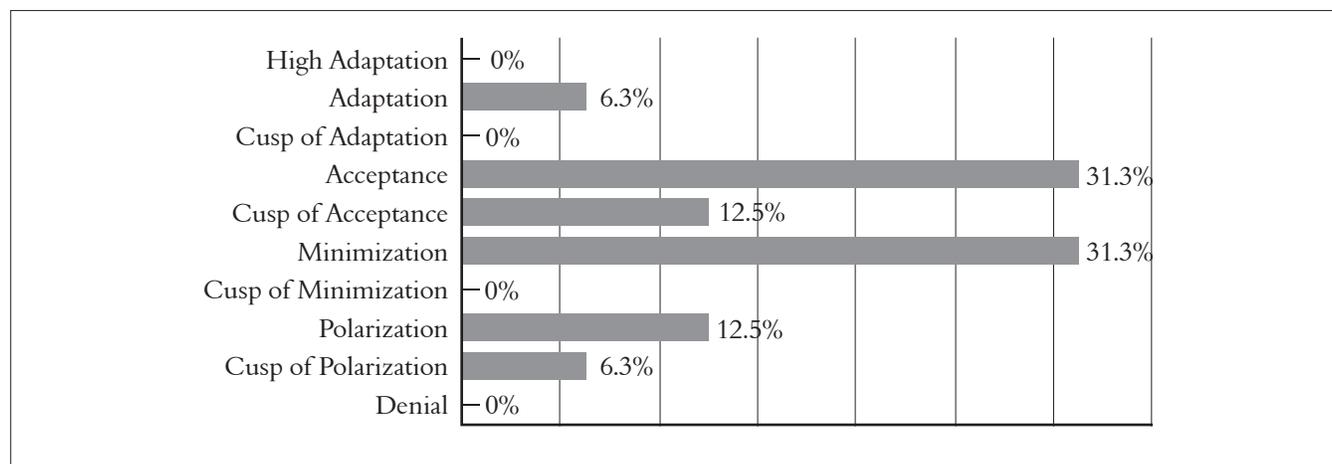

FIGURE 3. Distribution of participants' developmental orientations.

that demanded creative solutions in ways that valued the differences. The group's level of intercultural competence suggests that the group members may have been challenged to identify cross-culturally adaptive policies and practices that could guide common efforts across differences.

Those in the minimization stage are cognizant of intercultural differences and are transitioning toward greater awareness of intercultural differences, so the participants' insights on the instructional strategies examined in this project allowed for more credible results on various aspects of these strategies. Noteworthy are the percentages of participants in the acceptance and adaptation stages, which points to ethnorelative understanding of cultural similarities and differences (on the cognitive level in the case of acceptance and on the cognitive and behavioural levels in the case of adaptation).

Educators' Perceptions of the Importance of Various Instructional Strategies

Educators weighted 14 strategies identified in the research literature prior to the study. Table 1 shows their perceptions of the importance of these instructional strategies in the order of their weightings, based on calculations of the average and the standard deviation of their responses. Five of the strategies were weighted as *very important* (81–100), eight were weighted as *important* (61–80), and one was weighted as *neither unimportant nor important* (41–60).

Three strategies—identifying similarities and differences between people of different cultural backgrounds, meaningfully sharing pictures relevant to various cultures, and contrasting values by considering how different cultures perceive different values—received the highest average weightings from the research participants. The strategies weighted the lowest were the following: treating culture shock as a learning experience and playing the name game by exploring cultural reasons behind each person's name. The strategy of countering negative stereotypes through positive generalizations and cultural values registered the highest level of variability in weightings from the research participants.

Educators' Perceptions of the Use and Feasibility of Various Instructional Strategies

Educators were asked to comment on the degree to which they used each instructional strategy and the feasibility of each strategy. Table 2 summarizes their perceptions for the highest- and the lowest-ranked instructional strategies, based on a frequency analysis of rankings.

The findings show that all three of the strategies reported as the most used in the classroom (similarities and differences, intercultural sharing, and sharing pictures) were also perceived as being the most feasible. A similar correspondence was observed for two strategies when it came to the least used and the least feasible strategies (iceberg metaphor and culture shock as a learning experience). However, describe–interpret–evaluate was perceived to be a least used instructional strategy, but primary resources and contrasting values were reported to be less feasible strategies in the language classroom.

Additional Instructional Strategies

Additional instructional strategies generated by the study participants were as follows:

- Inviting guest speakers from other cultures
- Considering big-*C* culture (arts, crafts) and little-*c* culture (nonverbal communication, manners)
- Engaging in authentic culture sharing about oneself
- Teaching cultural backgrounds
- Showing or viewing artifacts from other cultures
- Producing objects with culturally relevant symbols (for example, a postage stamp)
- Dramatizing or role-playing various cultural situations
- Using social media for intercultural communication
- Finding a point in common by relating culture to other subjects meaningfully and identifying similar or identical roots
- Providing an inclusive, culturally meaningful environment

TABLE 1. Educators' Perceptions of the Importance of Various Instructional Strategies

Strategy	Definition	Average weighting	Standard deviation
Similarities and differences	Identifying similarities and differences between people of different cultural backgrounds	88.8	11.9
Sharing pictures	Sharing culturally relevant pictures in meaningful ways (for example, family pictures, sightseeing photos)	83.5	16.2
Contrasting values	Considering how different cultures view values (individualism/collectivism, directness/indirectness, gender equity/male superiority) in different ways; providing examples	82.8	18.1
Personal–cultural–universal	Making distinctions between behaviour that is personal (unique to the person), cultural (representative of the person's culture) and universal (a shared human concern)	82.2	17.2
Primary resources	Using primary learning resources from the culture under study (postcards, flags)	82.2	20.6
Intercultural sharing	Talking about intercultural experiences in the classroom	79.4	14.3
Nonverbal communication	Observing the nonverbal communication differences that are the most challenging in intercultural adjustment	75.3	19.1
Stereotypes and generalizations	Countering negative stereotypes through positive generalizations and cultural values	74.8	24.5
Communication styles	Using different types of communication styles when talking with someone from another culture	74.4	18.2
Iceberg metaphor	Using the iceberg analogy to illustrate how only the behaviour is visible in another culture (the tip of the iceberg) while values, attitudes, history, geography, traditions and so on are hidden under the cultural surface	73.8	13.4
Describe–interpret–evaluate	Using culturally relevant images to illustrate how the same image can be described, interpreted and evaluated in many different ways	73.8	15.9
Culture readings	Reading materials from other cultures to better understand current issues	73.8	20.9
Culture shock as a learning experience	Treating culture shock as a learning experience (for example, by writing about it in a journal)	66.0	18.5
Name game	Exploring cultural reasons behind each person's name	58.6	17.2

These additional instructional strategies were weighted in terms of their importance and ranked in terms of their use and feasibility only by each individual focus group of educators. No generalizable results for these strategy characteristics are available from the entire research sample.

TABLE 2. Educators' Perceptions of the Use and Feasibility of Various Instructional Strategies

Use		Feasibility	
Most used strategies (average ranking)	Least used strategies (average ranking)	Most feasible strategies (average ranking)	Least feasible strategies (average ranking)
Intercultural sharing (3.50)	Culture shock as a learning experience (2.50)	Intercultural sharing (3.63)	Iceberg metaphor/ Primary resources (2.69)/(2.69)
Similarities and differences (3.31)	Describe–interpret– evaluate (2.50)	Similarities and differences (3.56)	Culture shock as a learning experience (2.63)
Sharing pictures (3.13)	Iceberg metaphor (1.94)	Sharing pictures (3.25)	Contrasting values (2.56)

Discussion and Conclusion

This project generated IDI characteristics and instructional strategies perceived to be important, feasible and frequently used by language teachers for the purposes of developing intercultural competence at the junior high and senior high school levels. Additionally, this study aimed to validate instructional practices available in the research literature. Given the current paucity of research in this area, the study has the potential to enhance instructional practices and provide a foundation for further research on instructional strategies that develop intercultural competence. The research methods combined in the study make it possible to consider the findings in the context of demographic data and IDI group profile.

The transitional minimization orientation of the participants, according to the IDI results, suggests that these teachers were likely to support efforts to build understanding and awareness of cultural differences and commonalities in the school environment. At the same time, those efforts may not have always been successful as the result of the participants' blind spots—the insufficient attention to cultural differences, which can result in an excessive projection of personal cultural perceptions onto others when establishing common goals, policies and instructional strategies in the language classroom. Based on their minimization orientation, however, this group can also be characterized as being supportive of the principles of inclusive,

multicultural classrooms, particularly with regard to equal treatment and tolerance of cultural differences. The minimization orientation is also characterized by difficulties with decision making and problem solving in situations where cultural differences pose challenges and where creative solutions based on the value of cultural diversity are needed. However, the percentages of participants in the acceptance and adaptation ranges indicate their ethnorelative understanding of cultural similarities and differences and point to their deeper understanding of instructional strategies that support the development of intercultural competence in the classroom.

The minimization world view that was found in this research project echoes the findings of previous studies focused on measuring educators' intercultural competence by means of the IDI tool. These studies suggest that the minimization orientation is predominant among educators (DeJaeghere and Zhang 2008; Shyyan, Dunn and Cammarata 2014). This tendency may be partially the result of the emphasis in many educational settings on instructional strategies that focus on intercultural similarities while avoiding a focus on intercultural differences, which are perceived as potentially disruptive.

One purpose of the study was to identify instructional strategies with the potential to enhance students' intercultural competence skills in the language classroom. During the focus group sessions, teachers representing various languages engaged in professional development by discussing

intercultural development mindsets, as well as the instructional strategies discussed in the research literature and those employed by their colleagues in the language classroom. While some strategies were weighted highly across the three dimensions of importance, use and feasibility (for example, similarities and differences, and sharing pictures), others were weighted highly in terms of importance but received lower ratings in terms of use or feasibility (for example, contrasting values). The differences in these weightings point to the complex nature of the strategies, as well as their varying applicability to different instructional contexts. The instructional strategies highlighted in this study could also be employed in other content areas besides language instruction and assessment.

The participants tended to offer neutral or positive comments during focus group discussions and gave the proposed instructional strategies relatively high average weightings concentrated in the upper level of importance, use and feasibility. These findings are similar to those in previous research conducted on these three aspects of instructional strategies (Shyyan, Thurlow and Liu 2008). One participant pointed out that the strategies included in the study were "all important, and teachers should use them as much as they can." Teachers also tended to positively weight the additional strategies generated by their colleagues, particularly after they provided authentic examples of using each strategy.

The study results also point to the need for a clearer definition of *instructional strategy*. Despite the definition provided at the beginning of each focus group session, some educators tended to focus on clusters of strategies or instructional approaches when discussing ways to develop students' intercultural competence. This may be partially explained by the lack of distinction between the terms *instructional strategy* and *instructional approach* in the field and some interchangeability between the terms.

The focus group discussions also brought up the need to differentiate between strategies appropriate for students with ethnocentric mindsets and those appropriate for students with ethnorelative mindsets. As one participant said, "We do not want to shock some students by a culture role play and reinforce some stereotypes for them." The need for

further exploration of how strategies can align to the IDI continuum of mindset became clear as a result of this research effort.

Limitations

Several limitations became apparent during the research process. The study was conducted in two school districts and involved educators representing varying linguo-cultural expertise. A larger-scale study with educators representing various educational contexts would provide more information on identified instructional strategies and generate additional instructional strategies employed to develop students' intercultural competence. Moreover, the additionally generated strategies were not discussed by the entire study sample, making it impossible to draw generalizable conclusions about the importance, use and feasibility of those strategies. However, the strategies identified in this article can be a starting point to further distilling instructional methods through evidence-based research when it comes to developing intercultural competence in the language classroom.

Additionally, some research participants, particularly those working in the same schools, may have framed their discussions during the MACB sessions in the context of their pre-existing relationships with their coworkers. Although participants were consistently reminded that they were entitled to their individual opinions and were asked to remain as unbiased and impartial as possible, there was a slight risk of their conformity in some importance weightings, especially for those strategies generated by their immediate colleagues.

Implications for Future Research

Future research on the topic of intercultural instructional strategies is needed on the multiprovince or national level to generate findings on the implementation and effectiveness of instructional strategies through single- or multiple-subject studies and other experimental methods. The IDI and MACB tools could also be employed to identify additional instructional strategies and collect more-comprehensive information on their importance, use and

feasibility. The IDI tool could also provide further insights into which strategies are the most effective for each developmental mindset. These studies would be particularly effective if conducted in schools with long-standing bilingual programming.

As educators move toward individualized approaches to instruction and assessment, diversified research is desirable in order to examine how different instructional strategies serve the needs of students with selected sociocultural characteristics and learning needs. The single-subject research method, with a focus on specific populations and instructional contexts, may be used to try out instructional strategies in various classrooms and generate information about causal or functional relationships between independent and dependent variables on the individual level (Tawney and Gast 1984). The strategies discussed in this article could also be tested in content areas outside the language domain, given the importance of intercultural understanding across the curriculum (Shyyan, Dunn and Cammarata 2014).

This study focused on highlighting educators' perceptions of instructional strategies for developing intercultural competence skills in the language classroom. To holistically support effective education processes, it is also crucial to discover the perspectives on these strategies of other stakeholders in the field, including students, school administrators and parents. Obtaining the overall picture of important, frequently used and feasible instructional strategies from various strata of research subjects will help the education system to better serve students on their pathways to becoming interculturally competent global citizens.

References

Bennett, J M, M J Bennett and W Allen. 2003. "Developing Intercultural Competence in the Language Classroom." In *Culture as the Core: Perspectives on Culture in Second Language Learning*, ed D L Lange and R M Paige, 237–70. Greenwich, Conn: Information Age Publishing.

Bennett, M J. 1986. "Towards Ethnorelativism: A Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity." In *Cross-Cultural Orientation: New Conceptualizations and Applications*, ed R M Paige, 27–70. Lanham, Md: University Press of America.

———. 1993. "Towards Ethnorelativism: A Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity." In *Education for the Intercultural Experience*, ed R M Paige, 21–71. Yarmouth, Maine: Intercultural Press.

Bilash, O, and V Shyyan. 2015. "High School Students Registered in Ukrainian Language Arts—What Practitioners and Learning Resource Developers Should Know." *Journal of the National Council of Less Commonly Taught Languages* 17, no 1 (Spring): 57–81. Also available at www.ncolctl.org/files/High-School-Students-Registered-in-Ukrainian.pdf (accessed May 23, 2018).

Castañeda, M, and E Rodríguez-González. 2011. "L2 Speaking Self-Ability Perceptions Through Multiple Video Speech Drafts." *Hispania* 94, no 3 (September): 483–501.

Christensen, L L. 2007. "A Case Study of Intercultural Development for Pre-Service Language Teachers." In *Diversity and the Postsecondary Experience*, ed J L Higbee, D B Lundell and I M Duranczyk, 69–85. Minneapolis, Minn: Center for Research on Developmental Education and Urban Literacy, College of Education and Human Development, University of Minnesota. Also available at https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED499036.pdf (accessed May 24, 2018).

Corrius, M, and D Pujol. 2010. "Linguistic and Cultural Strategies in ELT Dictionaries." *ELT Journal* 64, no 2 (April): 135–42.

DeJaeghere, J G, and Y Zhang. 2008. "Development of Intercultural Competence Among US American Teachers: Professional Development Factors That Enhance Competence." *Intercultural Education* 19, no 3: 255–68.

Elola, I, and A Oskoz. 2008. "Blogging: Fostering Intercultural Competence Development in Foreign Language and Study Abroad Contexts." *Foreign Language Annals* 41, no 3 (Fall): 454–77.

Emert, H A. 2008. "Developing Intercultural Competence Through Teaching Abroad with Fulbright: Personal Experience and Professional Impact." PhD dissertation, University of Minnesota.

Fowler, S M, and M D Pusch. 2010. "Intercultural Simulation Games: A Review (of the United States and Beyond)." *Simulation and Gaming* 41, no 1 (February): 94–115.

Hammer, M R. 2009. "The Intercultural Development Inventory: An Approach for Assessing and Building Intercultural Competence." In *Contemporary Leadership and Intercultural Competence: Exploring the Cross-Cultural Dynamics Within Organizations*, ed M A Moodian, 203–18. Thousand Oaks, Calif: SAGE.

Lee, L. 2011. "Blogging: Promoting Learner Autonomy and Intercultural Competence Through Study Abroad." *Language Learning and Technology* 15, no 3 (October): 87–109. Also available at www.lltjournal.org/item/2750 (accessed July 6, 2018).

Levine, L N, and M L McCloskey. 2009. *Teaching Learners of English in Mainstream Classrooms (K–8): One Class, Many Paths*. Boston: Pearson.

Lewis, D R, and D R Johnson. 2000. *Participatory Evaluation for Special Education and Rehabilitation.* Washington, DC: American Association on Mental Retardation.

Malone, N, K F Baluja, J M Costanzo and C J Davis. 2003. *The Foreign-Born Population: 2000*. Census 2000 Brief. Washington, DC: US Census Bureau. Also available at www.census.gov/prod/2003pubs/c2kbr-34.pdf (accessed July 9, 2018).

Müller-Jacquier, B. 2004. "Interkulturelle Didaktik" [Intercultural didactic]. In *Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning*, ed M Byram, 303–7. London: Routledge.

National Capital Language Resource Center. 1996. *Language Learning Strategies Use by Secondary Foreign Language Students*. Washington, DC: National Capital Language Resource Center. Also available at https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED448591.pdf (accessed May 24, 2018).

Nelson, G L. 1998. "Intercultural Communication and Related Courses Taught in TESOL Masters' Degree Programs." *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* 22, no 1 (February): 17–33.

Netten, J, and C Germain. 2005. "Pedagogy and Second Language Learning: Lessons Learned from Intensive French." *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics* 8, no 2: 183–210. Also available at https://journals.lib.unb.ca/index.php/CJAL/article/view/19775/21492 (accessed May 24, 2018).

Paige, R M, H L Jorstad, L Siaya, F Klein and J Colby. 2003. "Culture Learning in Language Education: A Review of the Literature." In *Culture as the Core: Perspectives on Culture in Second Language Learning*, ed D L Lange and R M Paige, 173–236. Greenwich, Conn: Information Age Publishing.

Shyyan, V, L Christensen, M Thurlow and S Lazarus. 2013. *Multi-Attribute Consensus Building Tool*. Minneapolis, Minn: University of Minnesota, National Center on Educational Outcomes. Also available at https://nceo.umn.edu/docs/AAMAStransition/MeetingMaterials/MACBtool.pdf (accessed May 24, 2018).

Shyyan, V, W Dunn and L Cammarata. 2014. "Developing Intercultural Understanding in Teacher Education Within the Context of Language and Literacy Across the Curriculum." In *Language Teachers and Teaching: Global Perspectives, Local Initiatives*, ed S B Said and L J Zhang, 271–87. New York: Routledge.

Shyyan, V, M L Thurlow and K K Liu. 2008. "Instructional Strategies for Improving Achievement in Reading, Mathematics, and Science for English Language Learners with Disabilities." *Assessment for Effective Intervention* 33, no 3 (June): 145–55.

Statistics Canada. 2007. *Education Indicators in Canada: Report of the Pan-Canadian Education Indicators Program*, 2007. Ottawa: Canadian Education Statistics Council. Also available at www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/en/pub/81-582-x/81-582-x2007001-eng.pdf?st=CvSt6QR0 (accessed July 9, 2018).

Tawney, J W, and D L Gast. 1984. *Single Subject Research in Special Education*. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). 2002. *UNESCO Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity.* Cultural Diversity Series No 1. Paris: UNESCO. Also available at http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001271/127162e.pdf (accessed July 11, 2018).

Vanderwood, M, J Ysseldyke and M Thurlow. 1993. *Consensus Building: A Process for Selecting Educational Outcomes and Indicators*. Outcomes and Indicators NCEO Report No 2 (November). Minneapolis, Minn: University of Minnesota, National Center on Educational Outcomes. Also available at https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED366171.pdf (accessed May 24, 2018).

Integrating Language Awareness into Pedagogy: A Contrastive Analysis Between English and Spanish to Support English-Language Learners

Iris Piorno

Integrating language awareness into pedagogy involves the development of cognitive skills that raise the learner's consciousness of common errors and of certain elements of difficulty in second language acquisition.

This article explores theories and concepts related to factors that have an impact on the learner's linguistic awareness and, based on the analysis, proposes strategies for curriculum design with a focus on form and meaning in the context of communication. An abbreviated lesson plan for integrating meaning-focused and form-focused activities is presented to further demonstrate how the theories and concepts examined could be linked to classroom practice.

Explicit instruction that considers the learner's first language (L1) in the development of the second (L2) has been proven to have many beneficial effects. There is great pedagogical value in raising learners' metalinguistic awareness about common errors they make and how those errors affect L2 acquisition. Teachers can design instruction and teach language learning strategies that encourage learners' self-monitoring and development.

Theoretical Background

Second language learners, by definition, have already acquired one language, which gives them an advantage over their monolingual counterparts in understanding how languages work. This advantage, however, can sometimes cause learners to make incorrect guesses that result in inaccuracies different from target-like forms (Lightbown and Spada 2006).

In addition to first language interference, the learner's developing knowledge of the second language, also known as interlanguage, is a major source of errors. Lightbown and Spada (2006, 187) assert that "second language errors are evidence of the learners' efforts to discover the structure of the target language itself rather than attempts to transfer patterns from their first language."

A contrastive analysis between L1 and L2 can be integrated into the curriculum to raise learners' awareness and promote target-like performance. In an analysis of the most common elements of difficulty for Spanish-speaking English-language learners (ELLs), Swan and Smith (2001) found that

For the past 10 years, Iris Piorno has taught English as a second language (ESL) high school courses, Spanish Language and Culture 10–30, and Spanish language arts. Throughout her teaching career, her focus has been on researching language learning strategies and developing class materials to personalize instruction for her students. Her greatest interests are teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL), bilingualism, language acquisition and language pedagogies. She is a lifelong learner who values sharing ideas for the benefit of all, and she hopes to bring new ideas to your repertoire.

their written and oral speech difficulties were often predetermined by their first language. Although the errors varied in nature, they were mostly related to vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar.

Understanding why certain parts of the language are difficult to acquire and how those elements function in the learner's L1 can aid teachers in planning tasks and making instructional decisions. Phonology, for example, is a complex area: although the Spanish and the English consonant systems are similar, the vowel systems are very different, which causes great difficulty for learners. Most Spanish speakers typically struggle to recognize and use English vowels; in addition, their output shows strong devoicing of final voiced consonants, an even sentence rhythm and a narrower range of pitch. Acknowledging these elements and the fact that learners' difficulties are affected by their first language transfer to the second language and by interlanguage is paramount in devising strategies that promote learners' metacognition.

Exploring the Value of Language Awareness for Language Learning

Language awareness can be considered from two common perspectives: the teacher's professional knowledge of language aspects, and the learner's metacognitive processes that aid in second language acquisition.

Let's look at how teachers can support learners' language awareness through meaningful integration of explicit strategies. Svalberg (2007) studied the prominent features of language awareness methodology and determined that it involves an ongoing exploration of language as a dynamic phenomenon, involving learners in reciprocal exchanges of analytical insights as they make new explorations and discoveries. Accordingly, the methods and techniques generally associated with the language awareness classroom are "input enhancement, discovery-type inductive tasks, text reconstruction and open-ended discussion tasks on authentic or adapted texts" (p 292).

Among the key factors that have an impact on L2 learning are morphological and phonological awareness, the cognate advantage, and contrasts between L1 and L2 grammatical systems.

Morphological awareness is a complex construct that includes phonological, semantic, syntactic and orthographic components. According to Kuo and Anderson (2006), morphological awareness is the ability to reflect on morphemes and manipulate them, as well as to employ word-formation rules in one's language.

In a study that investigated cross-language effects of morphological awareness on word reading among Spanish-speaking ELLs, Ramirez et al (2010) found that cross-linguistic transfer of morphological awareness exists from Spanish to English but not from English to Spanish—that is, it transfers from a more complex to a simpler morphological system. The morphological features of the two languages determine the extent of transfer of morphological awareness, which in the case of English and Spanish is considerably high due to the numerous characteristics these languages share, rooted in their Greek and Latin forms. Overall, the study indicated that morphological awareness in Spanish is associated with literacy outcomes in English and, therefore, contributes to morphological awareness in English.

The second factor that has an impact on L2 learning relates to the presence of orthographic and phonological cognates in the native and the target languages, which has been shown to contribute to the vocabulary development of Spanish-speaking ELLs (Jiménez, García and Pearson 1996). The initial stages of language acquisition can be less challenging if the learner's L1 contains cognates or Latin-based words (Coxhead 2000) that can assist with meaning making in the L2, as is the case with Spanish and English. Additionally, in a study to determine performance on cognates relative to noncognates at different levels of difficulty, Kelley and Kohnert (2012) found that native Spanish-speaking children learning English as their second language correctly identified a significantly greater proportion of cognates than noncognates in a standardized vocabulary test of spoken English. The test results indicated that bilinguals may use the cognate advantage to infer the meaning of infrequently used words, and that the older the learners are, the greater the benefit they obtain from cross-language overlaps.

Recommendations for Integrating Language Awareness into Pedagogy

The first step for integrating language awareness into pedagogy is to examine the differences and the similarities between the L1 and the L2 grammatical and phonological systems, and compile a list of English-language features that have no analogues in Spanish.

Next, since this compilation is likely to yield forms with various degrees of difficulty, an appropriate categorization will facilitate mapping their timely introduction, according to learner readiness and context. Adopting this approach means that planning is essential in designing tasks that raise consciousness and trigger the learner's interest in deciphering language problems by focusing on form as needed. In this regard, Lightbown (1998) suggests that when teachers use their practical experience on natural acquisition sequences and degrees of learnability, their expectations and feedback can more realistically match learners' knowledge.

The final step is implementation and follow-up assessment to determine the potential benefits of this approach.

Based on teacher practice and exploration of key contrasting elements (Swan and Smith 2001) that pertain to the English language system versus the Spanish language system, the following list contains elements that are sources of error and interference and, therefore, good candidates for a focus on form. Based on Lightbown and Spada's (2006) view that teachers should provide feedback and correct persistent errors made by a great number of learners with the same first language background, I offer the following recommendations for raising metalinguistic awareness in Spanish-speaking ELLs:

- Differentiation of English vowels where length is a distinctive feature (for example, *sheep/ship*)
- Emphasis on final voiced English consonants
- Focused practice of consonant clusters beginning with *s* (for example, *Spain* versus *Espain*)
- Syllabic length awareness for pronunciation of stressed and unstressed English syllables

- Attention to the *s* of the third-person singular in simple present tense
- Highlighting of subject–verb–object (SVO) word order in English sentence structures
- Order reversal of adjectives and nouns (for example, *the white house* versus *the house white*)
- Explicit instruction on the use of English auxiliaries and modals
- Emphasis on the use of English question tags to counteract the usual Spanish closing statements using *yes?* or *no?*
- Correct formation of negative sentences and avoidance of double negatives
- Cognate and false cognate awareness
- Awareness of grammatical gender transfer from Spanish nouns and adjectives to English
- Awareness of omissions in subject personal pronouns (for example, *Jen isn't Greek. Is British*)
- Formation of possessives with *of* phrases (for example, *Tom's pen* versus *the pen of Tom*)

As shown in Appendix A, some of the above elements can be integrated into lessons through meaning-focused and form-focused tasks. The activities include employing enhanced input, which is a visual highlighting of certain elements to help students focus their attention on predetermined grammar; intentional inclusion of phrases to make certain grammatical concepts likely to arise; and indirect corrective feedback with recasting to help students develop corrections on their own. Considering these techniques implies that teachers can use proactive and reactive approaches in the same lesson; they "can plan in advance to ensure that a focus on form [FonF] will occur, or they can wait for a pressing learner need to arise and develop an 'on-the-spot' FonF lesson in response" (Doughty and Williams 1998, 205).

This article has examined elements that are highly relevant to teachers whose work centres on Spanish-speaking ELLs. First, it proposes an instructional approach for integrating language awareness into pedagogy that considers advantages and disadvantages attributed to L1 influence on L2. Second, by recognizing relationships between L1 and L2, it encourages teachers to validate learners' L1, which will increase learners' self-confidence and attention to the formal aspects of language. Finally, it puts language materials design at the forefront of

teaching to meet learners' needs by exposing bilinguals to various language awareness devices at their disposal. By integrating these devices into pedagogy, teachers can take a proactive stance as they select specific aspects of the language to focus on and assist learners in making independent cross-language connections.

Appendix A: Abbreviated Lesson Plan for the Integration of Meaning-Focused and Form-Focused Activities

Title: Hispanic Crossover Artists
Level: Intermediate learners
Duration: One hour

Resources

- Photocopies of the input-enhanced text (Appendix B)
- Handout and worksheets
- Computer and interactive whiteboard

Strands

- Listening
- Speaking
- Reading
- Writing
- Communicative competence

Learning Outcomes

Students will be able to do the following:

- Express opinions and engage in discussions about Latin celebrities
- Practise using linguistic elements that are generally difficult for Spanish speakers to acquire (such as possessive pronouns and third-person singular forms in the present tense)
- Differentiate English vowels where length is a distinctive feature

- Identify cognates and become aware of their usage in both languages

Preparation and Background Knowledge

Prior to the lesson, students will receive a grammar and vocabulary handout based on the text. They will complete preliminary activities as homework and correct them in class. Students' familiarity with forming the third-person singular in present tense and using possessive pronouns is assumed.

Tasks and Activities

- Begin the lesson by showing popular Latin music videos on the interactive whiteboard.
- Elicit student comments. Then, hand out "Hispanic Crossover Artists: Musicians Who Topped the Latino and American Charts" (Appendix B).
- Model reading first, allowing students to notice pronunciation patterns.
- Promote discussions about the main ideas in the text.
- Instruct students to retell the main points of the text to a partner and to talk about specific arguments regarding the celebrities mentioned.
- Circulate the classroom, paying close attention to correct use of possessive pronouns and verb forms in the third-person singular, and prompting students to answer questions about specific parts of the text where such linguistic elements appear.
- Provide indirect corrective feedback to elicit students' corrections of their own mistakes.
- Distribute worksheets with comprehension questions, fill-in-the-blanks exercises, activities involving identifying cognates or guessing the meaning of words from context, and so on (see Appendix C for ideas).

Assessment

Use formative assessment. Successful accomplishment of the learning outcomes will be determined through students' presentations of favourite Hispanic crossover artists. In addition, a wide body of evidence will be gathered to document

whether there has been a heightened awareness of learners' ability to use the linguistic elements appropriately, in various contexts and situations.

Appendix B: Input-Enhanced Text

The following text has been adapted from the original source (AOL Music) and input enhanced to promote noticing and language awareness.

Hispanic Crossover Artists: Musicians Who Topped the Latino and American Charts

Many artists with Hispanic roots have crossed over and become successful in mainstream music. Let's take a look at **these** artists and their contributions. Ritchie Valens is known as the first Latin rock 'n' roll idol in America, with *his* smash **hit** "La Bamba." He became a legend at the age of 17 when he died in an airplane crash. There was a motion picture titled *La Bamba* that told the story of *his* life. José Feliciano has enjoyed success as a Latin and English rock 'n' roll star for over 40 years. He has crossed over into American popularity with *his* famous Christmas classic "Feliz Navidad." Celia Cruz has **been** performing for over five decades. She is one of the successful Cuban performers and has received five Grammy Awards and two Latin Grammy Awards. She is widely known as the Queen of Salsa. Gloria Estefan made *her* rise on the scene in the mid '80s with *her* song "Conga." She helped to open the door for other Latin artists to gain international success. Selena was a fast-rising Latin star whose life was abruptly cut off at the mere start of *her* career. *Her* crossover album, titled *Dreaming of You*, was released four months after *her* tragic death. *Her* album was the first Tejano album to reach number one status in the United States, and it went on to double platinum. Ricky Martin, probably best known for *his* hit "Livin' la Vida Loca," received a Grammy for Best Latin Pop Album and is known worldwide for *his* humanitarian efforts. Colombian singer Shakira had been successful in

the Latin world in the late '90s and began working on an English crossover album in 2001. *Her* song "Hips Don't Lie" made history for being the most played song on the radio in 2006.

Appendix C: List of Postreading Activities That Emphasize a Focus on Form and Meaning

- Use reading comprehension questions that elicit responses in which specific language forms should be used.
- Extract sentences from the reading to keep forms in context, and ask students to fill in the blanks with the correct word or phrase (possessives, verbs and cognates) while using contextual clues.
- List unfamiliar words and guess their meaning from the context in which they appear.
- Identify cognates and make an educated guess about their meaning. Then, use a dictionary to verify understanding.
- Define terms in your own words. Illustrate meaning using the Frayer Model (Frayer, Frederick and Klausmeier 1969) or a modified version.
- Play a game that involves matching celebrity pictures with the information provided.
- Find a song from your favourite Hispanic crossover artist and bring it to class for karaoke.
- Reconstruct a song lyric (from words written on cut-up paper) and guess the title of the song.
- Write a song using minimal pairs (for example, *bit/beat, bin/been, this/these, hit/heat, eat/it*).

Bibliography

Coxhead, A. 2000. "A New Academic Word List." *TESOL Quarterly* 34, no 2 (Summer): 213–38.

DeKeyser, R M. 1998. "Beyond Focus on Form: Cognitive Perspectives on Learning and Practicing Second Language Grammar." In *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*, ed C Doughty and J Williams, 42–63. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Doughty, C, and J Williams. 1998. "Pedagogical Choices in Focus on Form." In *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*, ed C Doughty and J Williams, 197–261. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Frayer, D, W C Frederick and H J Klausmeier. 1969. *A Schema for Testing the Level of Cognitive Mastery.* Madison, Wisc: Wisconsin Center for Education Research.

Jiménez, R T, G E García and P D Pearson. 1996. "The Reading Strategies of Bilingual Latina/o Students Who Are Successful English Readers: Opportunities and Obstacles." *Reading Research Quarterly* 31, no 1 (January/February/March): 90–112.

Kelley, A, and K Kohnert. 2012. "Is There a Cognate Advantage for Typically Developing Spanish-Speaking English-Language Learners?" *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools* 43, no 2 (April): 191–204.

Kuo, L, and R C Anderson. 2006. "Morphological Awareness and Learning to Read: A Cross-Language Perspective." *Educational Psychologist* 41, no 3: 161–80.

Lightbown, P M. 1985. "Great Expectations: Second-Language Acquisition Research and Classroom Teaching." *Applied Linguistics* 6, no 2 (January): 173–89.

———. 1998. "The Importance of Timing in Focus on Form." In *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*, ed C Doughty and J Williams, 177–96. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lightbown, P M, and N Spada. 2006. *How Languages Are Learned*. 3rd ed. New York: Oxford University Press.

Long, M H, and P Robinson. 1998. "Focus on Form: Theory, Research, and Practice." In *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*, ed C Doughty and J Williams, 15–41. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ramirez, G, X Chen, E Geva and H Kiefer. 2010. "Morphological Awareness in Spanish-Speaking English Language Learners: Within and Cross-Language Effects on Word Reading." *Reading and Writing* 23, no 3/4: 337–58.

Svalberg, A M-L. 2007. "Language Awareness and Language Learning." *Language Teaching* 40, no 4 (October): 287–308.

Swan, M, and B Smith, eds. 2001. *Learner English: A Teacher's Guide to Interference and Other Problems*. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) in Chilean Textbooks

Olenka Bilash and Marcela Herrera Farfan

In Chile, as in many parts of the world, the government considers English-language learning a necessity for participation in international events, global dialogues and marketplaces (Graddol 2006). With bilingual citizens, the government maintains, Chile could strengthen commercial relationships with English-speaking countries, as well as those countries that have declared English as a language of commerce. As a result, in 2012, the Chilean government created a new policy for English-language learning in Chile. The *Bases Curriculares para la Educación Básica 2012* (Ministerio de Educación de Chile 2012, 223) recommends communicative language teaching, explicitly naming task-based language teaching (TBLT) as the preferred approach for Chilean teachers of English:

> Los principales elementos incorporados son:
> . . .
> • las tareas que implican el uso del idioma en situaciones comunicativas significativas, contextualizadas y cercanas a la realidad y los intereses de los estudiantes, promoverán y facilitarán el aprendizaje del idioma. El enfoque de la Enseñanza del Idioma Basado en la Tarea (*Task-Based Language Teaching*)

postula el uso de tareas significativas para los alumnos como unidad básica para la enseñanza de la lengua.

> The main elements included are:
> . . .
> • tasks that involve the use of language in meaningful and communicative situations, that are contextualized and close to reality and interests of students and that promote and facilitate language learning. The approach of Task-Based Language Teaching posits the use of meaningful tasks for students as the basic unit for the teaching of the language. (authors' translation)

As a declaration of commitment and to provide support for this initiative, the government has undertaken multiple actions, including
• increasing the amount of time for language learning by beginning English as a foreign language (EFL) instruction in Grade 5,
• creating a new textbook series that contains the mandated content,
• continuing its policy of distributing textbooks free of charge to every teacher and student in every public and charter school in the country,

Olenka Bilash is a professor in the Department of Secondary Education, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta. She has worked with teachers, parents, school leaders and communities around the world for four decades. Her research interests include oracy and literacy development, teacher professional development, identity formation and transformation, action research, systems theory, and global citizenship awareness education.

Marcela Herrera Farfan is a doctoral candidate in the Department of Secondary Education, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta. She is passionate about the potential of task-based language teaching (TBLT) to increase student motivation and output in foreign language contexts. She has taught high school for 10 years in Chile, as well as a language, literacy and culture course for teacher education students in Canada. Her research interests include TBLT implementation, dehumanization in education, the role of parents in education, and the sense of community in rural and urban schools.

38

Notos, Volume 14, Number 1, Summer 2018

- monitoring the success of the policy through a compulsory exam based on the TBLT textbook for all Grade 11 students every two years, and
- requiring students to take and to pass this exam if they wish to enroll in state-funded postsecondary education institutions.

To acknowledge the critical role that teachers play in realizing the policy vision, the government has also created new teacher training programs and policies.[1] The English Opens Doors Program, created in 2003, offers Chilean English teachers access to teacher training to improve their language and teaching skills.[2] Although this teacher training is not exclusively based on TBLT, it does include TBLT as a component. Significantly, the mission statements of these programs emphasize that English should be developed around communicative goals, not grammar-based goals, and that English should be taught in real and meaningful contexts (Curriculum Nacional, nd).

In its vision to become a bilingual nation, Chile has made the national textbook central for learners and teachers. The government considers the textbook both an investment in and a tool for reaching the country's target English examination scores. Therefore, one might expect that the new textbooks created by the Chilean Ministry of Education would both support teachers and students in a communicative approach to English and align with the government mandate of using TBLT.

The purpose of this article is to report on the accuracy of this expectation by guiding the reader through the authors' process of creating a criteria-based, in-depth retrospective checklist for a TBLT textbook analysis; implementing that checklist in a pilot project analysis of a Chilean English textbook; and, finally, making recommendations for textbook designers, teachers and policy-makers. In addition, the article will offer insights to language teachers who are exploring or adapting TBLT into their practices.

Textbooks and Their Evaluation

Foreign language textbooks are broadly used and mandated in most countries of the world. As tools and guides, especially for new and inexperienced teachers, they

- act as a syllabus of what to teach (Ansary and Babaii 2002; Mahmood, Iqbal and Saeed 2009);
- structure and organize content around topics of interest to the target audience (McGrath 2002);
- help beginning teachers and those who do not have time to develop their own teaching materials (Sheldon 1988);
- provide a variety of linguistic and methodological supports; and
- offer cultural content that can assist in cultural content delivery for non-native speakers or teachers who may not have had the opportunity to be immersed in the target language and culture (Hutchinson and Torres 1994).

When seen as a manifestation of a mandated curriculum (Mahmood, Iqbal and Saeed 2009), as they are in Chile, textbooks "can be used by those in positions of authority to facilitate curricular change. In this case, the textbook serves both as an instrument of change and a means of supporting teachers during such a period" (McGrath 2002, 9).

A number of studies have investigated how teachers benefit from textbook evaluation. For more than 30 years, research has reported that textbook analyses have led to inservice training that helps teachers become more familiar with the strengths and weaknesses of textbooks, thus improving their teaching practices (McGrath 2002; Mukundan, Hajimohammadi and Nimehchisalem 2011; Williams 1983; Wong 2009). Research on textbooks is used by officials to select the textbook that best matches student and local needs (Cunningsworth 1995; Wong 2009). Also, formal assessments of textbooks force publishers to stay abreast of continuing change and to revise editions of textbooks or create new publications in order to respond to curricular change (Cunningsworth 1995; Mahmood 2010). Further, systematic textbook research can verify the match between a textbook and the curriculum or teaching approach of the institution using the textbook (Wong 2009) and reveal the degree to which second language acquisition (SLA) principles have been followed. Too often, textbooks are structured according to the logic of grammar rather than the foregoing principles (Tomlinson 2010). From studies on textbook evaluation, teachers can also gain insight

into criteria for textbook selection and resource development, both of which are costly undertakings in many school jurisdictions, including Alberta.

A variety of quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods approaches have been used in EFL/ESL textbook analysis studies. Ellis (1997) proposes predictive and retrospective textbook evaluations.

Predictive evaluations draw on checklists or questionnaires to help teachers articulate their needs and then select the most appropriate material. These evaluations are often completed by textbook developers to help them better meet market demands.

As the name implies, a retrospective evaluation takes place after a textbook has been chosen and implemented. It is used to validate predictive evaluations and to identify a textbook's strengths and weaknesses. Often represented in the form of a checklist, a retrospective evaluation is the most commonly used textbook assessment tool (Mukundan, Hajimohammadi and Nimehchisalem 2011; Williams 1983), perhaps because it includes predetermined criteria that reflect a variety of researcher and practitioner perspectives (Wong 2009) and can be structured to produce quantitative and qualitative data and used systematically (McGrath 2002).

McGrath (2002) also proposes a third in-depth method for textbook evaluation. He suggests selecting a sample from a textbook and analyzing it in a detailed way by considering aspects such as "the kind of language description, underlying assumptions about learning or values on which the materials are based or, in a broader sense, whether the materials seem likely to live up to the claims that are being made for them" (pp 27–28).

Research on textbook evaluations is often conducted in-house to respond to queries about compliance and needs identified by local education authorities. Thus, although such tools validate the textbook, the results are not shared publicly, and only teachers participating in the evaluation benefit from engagement in the process.

Williams (1983) posits a framework to design textbook checklists (criteria) that include up-to-date methods, guidance for non-native English teachers, the needs of second language learners and local sociocultural relevance. He also states that checklists should take into consideration general linguistic, pedagogical and technical criteria. Xu's (2004) qualitative study to develop a textbook evaluation tool (TET) for ESL textbooks in Canada generated 80 criteria from an extensive literature review and interviews with five ESL teachers and with focus groups. The TET's validity lies in the empirical support offered by the teacher participants. Xu and Bilash (2009) synthesized the criteria of the TET into four main categories and ten subcategories, as shown in Figure 1.

Specific Criteria

This section presents the reader with factors from the literature review that the authors drew upon in their analysis. It also highlights factors that Alberta teachers could consider when evaluating a textbook or when looking for resources in textbooks.

Based on an extensive review of previous evaluation checklists, Mukundan, Hajimohammadi and Nimehchisalem (2011) have developed what they call a "tentative English language textbook

Textbook Evaluation Tool			
1	2	3	4
Identifying the content	Presenting the content	Learning the content	Selling the content
A. What it includes B. How to verify the quality of content	C. Thematic D. Visual E. Written	F. Activities G. Components H. Organization	I. Packaging J. Evidence of value

FIGURE 1. Components of the textbook evaluation tool.

evaluation checklist." They suggest two main categories of criteria: general attributes and learning–teaching content. General attributes consist of "syllabus and curriculum, methodology, suitability to learners, physical and utilitarian attributes, and supplementary materials" (p 22), and learning–teaching content includes "general, listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and exercises" (p 22). Based on the assessment of textbooks reported from 1970 to 2000, these authors argue that most textbook evaluation checklists lack substantive validity as the result of a lack of empirical support and are often either too short or too long, though the authors do not specify an appropriate length. They also state that most checklists use complicated terminology, which makes evaluation difficult if teachers or assessors are not familiar with the terms.

Mahmood, Iqbal and Saeed (2009) analyzed related literature and feedback from 25 experts to create a rubric with 11 main categories for assessing a textbook in Pakistan. The categories include "curriculum policy, curriculum scope, text reliability/accuracy/validity, vocabulary illustration format, horizontal and vertical alignment of the text, critical and creative learning, technology, assessment and evaluation, bias-free, environment, [and] teacher's guide and other learning materials" (p 10). In general, the criteria in these theoretical studies vary according to the purpose of the assessment and the local context.

Empirical textbook analyses have also been the focus of a number of theses and dissertations. Al-Hajailan (1999) analyzed the quality of the third-grade secondary English textbook *English for Saudi Arabia*. Litz (2005) used a retrospective questionnaire with eight instructors and 500 students to determine how a South Korean textbook aligned with the English-language program goals of the university. Al-Yousef (2007) conducted a retrospective evaluation of the third-grade intermediate English textbook *Say It in English*, which was implemented in 2005 by the Ministry of Education of Saudi Arabia. Kang (2012) analyzed how cultural topics, newly mandated in Korea's EFL curriculum, were reflected in EFL Korean textbooks. Based on their literature reviews, all authors identified 25–50 criteria that were appropriate and helpful in their local contexts.

Most checklists used for textbook evaluation have been critiqued as being too general and impressionistic (Lawrence 2011; Littlejohn 2011; McGrath 2002; Swales 1980), despite the fact that most include common points such as content coverage, design layout and organization. Because a textbook is developed for a local context, the results must be interpreted in light of the local curriculum, the previously identified needs of local students, and the practical and pedagogical aspects of the subject area. Lawrence (2011), who developed a checklist to determine the strengths and weaknesses of a textbook and tested it on the theme book of the Longman Elect series (Potter, Rigby and Wong 2009), further argues that teachers should be able to set criteria for their ideal textbook and not be told what an ideal textbook is. Wong (2009, 52) emphasizes that evaluators should consider not only linguistic content but also cultural and real-world content, learners' needs, and teacher support, as well as practical considerations such as textbook price and durability. Thus, it is important to use multiple in-depth tools to assess textbooks and validate findings by triangulation of these multiple sources of data, as in the studies of Xu (2004) and Kang (2012), which both included input from teachers, as well as a checklist instrument, in their analyses.

To date, theoretical and empirical studies report that checklists, questionnaires, rubrics, and interviews or focus groups have been used to collect data about the value of a textbook. They also report minimal consistency in the use of criteria as a result of the needs of the study sponsors and the local context. Thus, there does not appear to be a common tool or set of criteria that can be used broadly. More important, no research to date has explored textbooks and the TBLT approach.

Following Wong's (2009) advice that systematic research can verify the match between a textbook and the curriculum or teaching approach of the institution using it, we now turn to an overview of TBLT.

TBLT

In 1991, Long examined the success of task-based instruction in Prabhu's (1987) work on focus on form,[3] and united focus on form (teaching grammar in context) with focus on meaning. Long argues that "the best way to learn a language, inside or outside a classroom, is not by treating it as an

object of study, but by experiencing it as a medium of communication" (p 41). He sees TBLT as primarily a communicative approach that also embraces the concept of focus on form and incorporates grammar instruction in foreign language (FL) or second language (SL) teaching.

TBLT is a learner-centred communicative approach that motivates students by providing authentic exposure to and use of the target language while also focusing on meaning and form (Willis 1996). Most important, Willis argues, TBLT promotes language acquisition as opposed to language learning. As Ellis (2008) reports, TBLT's emphasis on the target language, authentic materials and real situations offers learners characteristics of first language acquisition. Like other communicative approaches, TBLT promotes the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing: "Often one skill will reinforce another; we learn to speak, for example, in part by modeling what we hear, and we learn to write by examining what we can read" (Brown 1994, 219).

TBLT can be distinguished from other FL/SL approaches in two ways. First, each lesson is expected to have a task. Although definitions of *task* vary (Long 1985; Nunan 2004; Prabhu 1987; Willis 1996), they imply that students will achieve a goal in a natural way through meaningful and real communication by using grammar forms, vocabulary and expressions in specific contexts.

The second distinguishing characteristic of TBLT is how and where grammar is integrated into each lesson. As a communicative language approach, TBLT arose in response to the need to find a balance between focus on formS approaches—which are mainly based on teaching grammar deductively—and focus on meaning, such as communicative language teaching (CLT) (Boroujeni 2012; Nassaji and Fotos 2011). Both approaches have been critiqued, the former for neglecting meaningful communication and the latter for neglecting grammar (Swan 1985). Other second language acquisition researchers (Ellis 2003; Nunan 2004; Willis 1996) agree that the main lesson should be based on completion of tasks and not on accurate use of the target form(s) and that grammar focus (instruction) should follow the task. All TBLT models rely on the premise that grammar should be not an end but, rather, a means to achieving meaningful and spontaneous communication.

Willis's (1996) framework is divided into a task cycle containing three parts:

- A pre-task preparatory activity in which the teacher introduces the topic, gives instructions and asks students to listen to authentic recording tasks (that is, tasks developed by and for native speakers)
- Freestyle completion of the task and a report about the task completion (with an emphasis on accuracy in all aspects of language, especially grammar)
- Teacher explanations and student practice of the specific grammar points that arose during the task completion

The TBLT framework proposed by Ellis (2003) is also divided into three parts:

- In the pre-task stage, the teacher controls for task completion and guides students by using such strategies as performing a similar task or following a model.
- In the during-task stage, the students accomplish the task, and, depending on the goals, the teacher may or may not impose time (pressure) restrictions.
- In the post-task stage, the learners report or make presentations on the task, are encouraged to become conscious of language factors and also repeat the task.

The six-step TBLT framework proposed by Nunan (2004) is more detailed and clearly builds on additional research about practice that was not available to Willis and Ellis. It includes

- schema building by introducing content and vocabulary;
- controlled practice, in which students use prescribed vocabulary to practise conversations similar to those of the tasks;
- authentic listening practice;
- focus on linguistic elements;
- freer practice (free conversation without following a specific pattern); and
- performing the pedagogical task.

These three frameworks are compared in Appendix A.

Analysis of a Chilean Textbook

Given the literature on textbook analyses and TBLT, we have chosen a criteria-based, in-depth retrospective checklist for a TBLT textbook analysis. Its qualitative design is neither rigid nor stable, and it employs a variety of methods to interpret and explore an inquiry of "text and image data" (Johnson and Christensen 2012). To ensure validity, the researcher "checks for the accuracy of the findings by employing certain procedures" (Creswell 2009, 190) for validation.

In our study, we replicated the five-step systematic procedure used by Kang (2012) and Xu (2004) to identify criteria to assess the TBLT approach of the textbook:

- Step 1—conducting an analysis of previous studies on textbook evaluation and textbook evaluation tools. Some of these studies were presented in the literature review.
- Step 2—creating a summary and synthesis of the criteria identified in the literature related to communicative approaches such as TBLT.
- Step 3—discussing the criteria with others— inter-rater reliability (Creswell 2009, 190)— and revising accordingly.
- Step 4—"testing" the criteria on a government-approved EFL textbook from Chile to validate the criteria. A copy of the textbook was obtained, and each page was analyzed according to the criteria. Then, a frequency chart was completed. (A sample of one analyzed page can be found in Appendix B.)
- Step 5—revising the instrument according to the results of step 4.

Our checklist criteria comprise both general factors for evaluating an EFL textbook and specific factors relating to TBLT.[4] (See Figure 2.)

General factors include language appropriateness for the target age group and active learning. Active learning uses instructional activities that involve "students in doing things and thinking about what they are doing" (Bonwell and Eison 1991, iii). In active learning, the learner is the centre of the learning process, and the teacher provides support and explanations when necessary (Nunan 2004; Willis 1996).

Specific factors include four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing); grammar; integration of authentic materials; culture; recycling of content between lessons and units; task dependency, or the flow and fit of tasks between lessons; meaningful real communication situations and tasks; task cycle; location of grammar; controlled or focused practice; free or unfocused tasks; and creative communication.

Based on the criteria in step 4, we created a frequency checklist for each unit. (A summary of results from all units is presented in the next section.)

Content

1. Language
   A. Four skills
   B. Language-level appropriateness (comprehensible input)
   C. Grammar

2. Topic Situations
   D. Integration of authentic materials
   E. Age-appropriateness
   F. Culture

Textbook Design

3. Student Engagement
   G. Active learning

4. Task design
   H. Recycling
   I. Task dependency, or connection between lessons
   J. Meaningful real-situation communicative activities
   K. Pre-task, during-task and post-task cycle; reflection
   L. Location of grammar

5. Scaffolding
   M. Controlled or focused practice
   N. Free or unfocused practice
   O. Creative communication

FIGURE 2. Content and textbook design criteria.

Testing the Criteria

For the purpose of assessing the characteristics of TBLT in a new Chilean EFL textbook, the authors analyzed the Grade 5 textbook *The English Village*, by Ana Manonellas Balladares (2013). The textbook, which is intended for 10-year-old students, has five units, each divided into four lessons and a test. With 25 lessons and an allotment of 78 teaching hours for the course, teachers have approximately three class hours to complete each lesson.

The authors analyzed each page of the textbook, counting the number of times elements of the generated criteria appeared. A summary of the results of the analysis appears in a frequency chart in Table 1.

Language

Although all four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) are integrated into the textbook, there is a greater emphasis on written over oral skills and on comprehension over production; speaking is based on pronunciation, repetition and reading dialogues aloud. Despite the fact that about half the lessons involve creative writing and optional use of free written language, none of them promote oral creative communication or spoken real and spontaneous communication, as suggested by the TBLT approach.

The main forms (language patterns or grammar) in the first level of the textbook are the simple present of the verb *to be*, singular and plural, prepositions, affirmative and negative sentences, and possessive and demonstrative adjectives. Given that EFL is introduced in the fifth grade in Chile, the language level was judged to be appropriate and the input comprehensible.

Topic Situations

Although many of the images are out of focus, they are complemented by a variety of adapted websites, legends, magazine articles, letters and blog posts.

The strength of content appropriateness varies, since some main topics (such as holidays, technology, pets, food, family and sports) are considered interesting to this age group, while others (such as weather conditions and gardening) may not be as meaningful—even though they may integrate content from the science curriculum and reflect content-based instruction (Brinton, Snow and Wesche 1989; Oxford 2001).

The cultural content begins with familiar topics (such as school; family; and local geography, history and legends). Descriptive associations (such as flags and monuments) are slowly integrated from inner- and outer-circle English-speaking countries (Kachru 1990), such as the United States, England, Australia and Singapore. In general, the approach to culture is traditional—learning about cultural products of the target culture. There is no evidence of a process approach to comparing or contrasting cultures, a critique also made by Kang (2012) of communicative textbooks in Korea.

Student Engagement

All the lessons offer some active learning for student engagement. Examples include drawing a map of one's own abode, completing a family tree, writing a letter, contributing to a blog, preparing a menu for the school, writing a list, classifying food, writing an e-mail, and conducting an experiment and recording the results. These focused tasks align well with Mohan's (1986) knowledge framework, as they invite students to classify, explain, evaluate, describe through compare and contrast, sequence, and choose—although the textbook is limited in its inclusion of support in the form of graphic organizers, which Mohan also recommends.

Task Design

Content is recycled throughout the units, but perhaps not with the frequency desired in FL settings, especially for beginner learners. Even considering that Spanish and English share many cognates, the written texts seem unnecessarily complex. Although the tasks are engaging and age-appropriate, task dependency is weak, meaning that the tasks at the end of each lesson do not interconnect with the other tasks presented throughout each unit. For example, in Unit 4, the four tasks are writing a blog about favourite winter sports, writing a weather report, labelling objects in the classroom and writing an invitation to a dinner party.

TABLE 1. Frequency of Criteria per Unit of the Textbook (Following Figure 2)

	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4	Unit 5	Total (20)
1. Language						
Four skills: listening focus	2	4	4	4	4	18
Four skills: speaking—pronunciation, repetition	4	4	4	4	4	20
Four skills: speaking—free creative expression	0	0	0	0	0	0
Four skills: reading focus	4	4	4	4	4	20
Four skills: writing focus	4	4	4	4	2	18
Appropriate language level (comprehensible input)	4	4	4	4	3	19
Grammar (focus on form)	4	3	3	3	4	17
2. Topic situations						
Authentic material	4	4	2	2	3	15
Age-appropriateness	4	4	4	4	4	20
Cultural knowledge	2	3	3	1	2	11
3. Student engagement						
Active learning	4	4	4	4	4	20
4. Task design						
Recycling	2	4	3	4	3	16
Task dependency	0	3	4	2	3	12
Meaningful and real-situation communicative activities	0	1	0	2	0	3
Grammar focus—beginning	–	–	–	–	–	–
Grammar focus—middle	4	3	3	4	4	18
Grammar focus—end	–	–	–	–	–	–
Self-assessment	4	4	4	4	4	20
Reflection	–	–	–	–	–	–
5. Scaffolding						
Controlled practice	4	4	4	4	4	20
Free practice for creative communication	4	4	3	3	0	14

None of the TBLT frameworks presented earlier are followed in these lessons. Although the first part of each lesson introduces the topic, it does not provide preparation for completing the main task. The middle part of the lesson focuses on either listening or reading comprehension activities rather than on the task completion prescribed by Willis (1996), Ellis (2003) and Nunan (2004). The grammar focus comes in the middle of the lesson, just before the main task, and is followed by controlled and focused practice. Although this language focus works as preparation for completing the main task, the lesson is based on a theme and on grammar, not on a task, and therefore more closely follows the presentation–practice–production (PPP) approach, which TBLT proponents have staunchly criticized. While the textbook's approach can be considered communicative, the communication that is generated from it is controlled and lacks the spontaneity and free expression recommended in TBLT.

Although grammar in the textbook is presented implicitly and alongside a language focus, it is not presented at the end of the lesson, as TBLT recommends. Instead, the language focus is consistently presented before the main task; this may lead students to complete the task using the grammar that has been taught instead of taking risks and using all accessible language resources (Willis 1996).

Although there are some common points between the textbook and the three TBLT models (Ellis 2003; Nunan 2004; Willis 1996), notably absent is the post-task reflection or discussion in which students can make implicit knowledge explicit or grow their awareness of form. The structure of the lessons seems to most closely align with Nunan's model, but it also shows strong correlation with PPP. Furthermore, since only three class hours are allotted for completing each lesson, only every third lesson would offer students a task to complete.

The self-assessments found at the end of each lesson and the rubrics following the unit tests are aligned with the "Can Do" statements of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) (Council of Europe 2001).

Scaffolding

Students have the opportunity to practise listening, drawing, repeating and writing the vocabulary of each lesson in a scaffolded manner through many brief, controlled or focused practice exercises. These include answering questions with true–false; matching pictures and words; sequencing words, statements or photos; answering multiple-choice questions; filling in the blanks; being tested through timed recall of vocabulary; practising pronunciation; unscrambling letters to make words; completing a sentence; choosing a title for an article; and drawing pictures to show understanding. The only activities in the textbook that promote experimenting with the new language, as TBLT advocates, are optional and take place at the end of the lessons. An answer key is provided at the end of the textbook.

Since the lessons are not built from the results of the task, their design does not follow the framework proposed by Willis (1996); rather, the structure of the lessons resembles the six-step framework suggested by Nunan (2004).

Discussion

After presenting the value of FL textbooks in many parts of the world and the benefits of analyzing those textbooks, as well as the need for a balance of meaningful tasks and language form in TBLT, this article has identified criteria and presented the results of an analysis of the Grade 5 Chilean textbook *The English Village* (Balladares 2013).

As in Chile, SL teachers in Alberta are transitioning between traditional and communicative approaches. Although textbooks are not widely used in Alberta classrooms, teachers can benefit from knowledge of the systematic scaffolding in textbooks. They should be aware of the importance of the variety of controlled or focused practice exercises identified in this study, such as the following:

- Answering questions with true–false
- Matching pictures and words

- Sequencing words
- Writing statements or photos
- Answering multiple-choice questions
- Filling in the blanks
- Being tested through timed recall of vocabulary
- Practising pronunciation
- Unscrambling letters to make words
- Completing a sentence
- Choosing a title for an article
- Drawing pictures to show understanding

Perhaps as teachers in Chile make the transition from the grammar–translation method of teaching foreign languages to approaches that are more communicative, the PPP structure of the textbook can be infused with communicative tasks and assist in familiarizing teachers with TBLT principles. Or perhaps it would be easier to develop a textbook around a PPP approach, since, in the TBLT framework, it is difficult for the authors of a textbook to anticipate how students across a broad range of geographic, economic and social contexts might respond and then use such responses as the basis for the balance of a class.

To increase the TBLT orientation of *The English Village*, we offer five recommendations for the textbook developers:

- Focus on the main task in each lesson.
  - Relate authentic spoken and written texts to the main task.
  - Base controlled practice on the main task in each lesson.
  - Increase student exposure to the main task, and provide practice in modelling it and

learning from its language form or genre before the completion of the task.
- Strengthen the oral development focus of each lesson.
  - Extend free practice beyond written production to spoken spontaneous and real production.
- Add graphic organizers for additional support.
- Add reflection at the end of each lesson to increase student awareness of form and other language acquisition processes.
- Offer teachers professional development opportunities to help them learn to adapt textbook structures and create and implement activities that are more communicative.

This research project also points to the need for additional research in at least four areas. First, data from interviews with English teachers and students who are using the textbooks under evaluation would not only validate the criteria but also offer insight into the value of the textbook design. Second, an assessment of the TBLT orientation of all the new textbooks created for Chile's new curriculum would be important, not only for English teachers but also for government policy-makers. Third, research to explore the place of a TBLT approach with beginner language learners could help clarify the need for more controlled practice and a PPP orientation in the Chilean context. Finally, additional research might explore the adequacy of the support teachers receive as they make the transition toward TBLT's more inductive approach to learning.

Appendix A: A Comparison of Three TBLT Frameworks

	Willis (1996)	Ellis (2003)	Nunan (2004)
Pre-task	• Introduce the topic. • Provide instructions. • Listen to authentic tasks. • Prepare for the task.	• Prepare for the main task with activities such as performing a similar task. • Follow a given model. • Carry out non-task-preparation activities. • Do strategic planning	• Build schema by introducing content and vocabulary. • Use controlled practice—practise model conversations similar to those of the tasks using prescribed vocabulary. • Practise through authentic listening—listen to authentic recordings of conversations.
During task	• Complete the task; freestyle format. • Unfocused tasks. • Prepare a report (accuracy is expected)	• Complete the task. • Focused skill-development tasks.	• Focus on linguistic elements. • Provide freer practice—practise conversation without following a specific pattern.
Post-task—language focus	• Report. • Provide explanation and encourage practice of specific grammar points that arose during the task completion.	• Repeat the main task. • Reflect on the task. • Focus on forms.	• Introduce the pedagogical task—focused tasks.

Willis most strongly emphasizes tasks in which the language focus targets the grammar structures that spontaneously arise during the task completion. Ellis maintains a similar framework but adds a repetition of the main task at the end of the process. This repetition can be very useful, because it gives students an opportunity for spontaneous communication within the main task. Nunan suggests that grammar study should precede the task so that students can be more accurate in task performance. Notably, in none of these approaches does grammar study begin the lesson.

A controversial difference between the three TBLT approaches lies in the degree of focus or control between the task and particular linguistic structures. Some tasks truly promote communication while also demanding the use of certain grammatical structures. Willis advocates for freer expression through unfocused tasks—what Nunan describes as free practice. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) state that some expected grammatical structures can emerge spontaneously and that the use of certain forms can substantially facilitate the completion of the task.

Ellis responds to this controversy by distinguishing between acquisition through implicit knowledge or unfocused tasks and learning through explicit knowledge in focused tasks. Willis and Willis (2007) strongly disagree with those who advocate focused tasks, arguing that by completing them, students use communicative language that they will rarely use outside the classroom. For this reason, Willis and Willis emphasize that TBLT should encourage students to communicate and complete the tasks freely and spontaneously. Nunan, on the other hand, considers that in the task cycle there should be opportunity for both controlled practice and free practice. Willis and Ellis agree that at the closing of the TBLT task cycle, students should gain explicit awareness of form and metacognitive strategies.

Appendix B: Sample Page Showing the Analysis of the Textbook *The English Village*

writing

MI = intra personal linguistic

Controlled practice

interpersonal speaking

-listening (to partner)
-speaking, reading (controlled practice)
-writing

9 🔊62 Fill in the blanks in this dialogue. Then, practise and role play it with your partner.

Mathew: I _____ winter in Chile. It is _____, but I drink _____ chocolate and feel much better.

Sally: What can you _____ in Santiago?

Mathew: I can _____ snowboarding and _____.

Sally: I don't like _____ because it's too _____ and the streets are wet.

Mathew: In Chile, children usually do indoor _____, and people generally eat _____, but they don't often _____ roasted marshmallows.
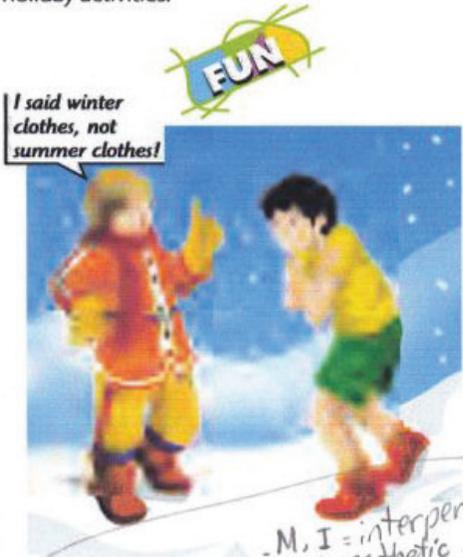
10 Write your own blog post about your favourite holiday activities.

writing

-Free practice
-Active learning

I said winter clothes, not summer clothes!

FUN

.M.I = interpersonal
-Kinesthetic -linguistic
-visual

Self Evaluation

Intrapersonal

■ I can name the seasons.

_____, _____, _____ and _____.

■ I can identify three different sports.

_____, _____, _____.

■ Tick according to your performance.

YES   MAB   NO

P R O J E C T

My own blog.
1. Work in pairs.
2. Cut a piece of cardboard, and make a big blog note.
3. Write a description of your favourite winter sports. Your partner has to write about his favourite summer sports.
4. Check with your teacher and display your work in your classroom.

-writing
-Active learning
-proving it

Unit

Notes

1. Decreto 81 [Decree 81], Ministerio de Educación de Chile, March 16, 2004, www.leychile.cl/Navegar?idNorma=226283 (accessed July 13, 2018); Decreto 221 [Decree 221], Ministerio de Educación de Chile, June 18, 2007, www.leychile.cl/Navegar?idNorma=265195 (accessed July 13, 2018).

2. See https://bridge.edu/Bridge-News/teacher-training-case-study-english-opens-doors-program and http://centrodevoluntarios.cl/about-us/ (accessed July 5, 2018).

3. We acknowledge both *focus on form* and *focus on formS*. The former was proposed by Long (1991) to describe grammar instruction related to what language learners could already use. The latter refers to grammar instruction that is typically decontextualized from context.

4. Although additional criteria were generated and used to assess the contents of Chile's *The English Village* (Balladares 2013), this article discusses only some of the criteria, mostly those related to TBLT.

References

Al-Hajailan, T A-R. 1999. "Evaluation of English as a Foreign Language Textbook for Third Grade Secondary Boys' Schools in Saudi Arabia." PhD dissertation, Mississippi State University.

Al-Yousef, H S D. 2007. "An Evaluation of the New Third Grade Intermediate English Coursebook in Saudi Arabia." Master's thesis, King Saud University.

Ansary, H, and E Babaii. 2002. "Universal Characteristics of EFL/ESL Textbooks: A Step Towards Systematic Textbook Evaluation." *The Internet TESL Journal* 8, no 2 (February). http://iteslj.org/Articles/Ansary-Textbooks/ (accessed July 5, 2018).

Balladares, A M. 2013. *The English Village 5: Student's Book*. Las Condes, Santiago: Ediciones Cal y Canto.

Bonwell, C C, and J A Eison. 1991. *Active Learning: Creating Excitement in the Classroom*. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No 1. Washington, DC: George Washington University, School of Education and Human Development.

Boroujeni, F A. 2012. "Investigating Controversies in Teaching Grammar: A Case for the Iranian High School Students." *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 2, no 8 (August): 1570–75. Also available at www.academypublication.com/issues/past/tpls/vol02/08/04.pdf (accessed July 5, 2018).

Brinton, D, M Snow and M Wesche. 1989. *Content-Based Second Language Instruction*. New York: Newbury House.

Brown, H D. 1994. *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Council of Europe. 2001. *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Also available at https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97 (accessed July 5, 2018).

Creswell, J W. 2009. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, Calif: SAGE.

Cunningsworth, A. 1995. *Choosing Your Coursebook*. Oxford: Heinemann.

Curriculum Nacional. nd. Marco Base Curricular. www.mineduc.cl.

Ellis, R. 1997. "The Empirical Evaluation of Language Teaching Materials." *ELT Journal* 51, no 1 (January): 36–42.

———. 2003. *Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

———. 2008. *Principles of Instructed Second Language Acquisition*. CAL Digest. Washington, DC: Centre for Applied Linguistics (CAL).

Graddol, D. 2006. *English Next*. London: British Council. Also available at https://englishagenda.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/attachments/books-english-next.pdf (accessed July 5, 2018).

Hutchinson, T, and E Torres. 1994. "The Textbook as Agent of Change." *ELT Journal* 48, no 4 (October): 315–28.

Johnson, R B, and L Christensen. 2012. *Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Approaches*. 5th ed. Thousand Oaks, Calif: SAGE.

Kachru, B B. 1990. "World Englishes and Applied Linguistics." *World Englishes* 9, no 1 (March): 3–20.

Kang, J. 2012. "Teaching and Learning Culture in Korea's English as a Foreign Language Classroom." PhD dissertation, University of Alberta.

Lawrence, W P W. 2011. "Textbook Evaluation: A Framework for Evaluating the Fitness of the Hong Kong New Secondary School (NSS) Curriculum." Master's thesis, City University of Hong Kong. Also available at www.asian-efl-journal.com/Thesis/Thesis-Wong.pdf (accessed July 3, 2018).

Littlejohn, A. 2011. "The Analysis of Language Teaching Materials: Inside the Trojan Horse." In *Materials Development in Language Teaching*, 2nd ed, ed B Tomlinson, 179–211. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Litz, D R A. 2005. "Textbook Evaluation and ELT Management: A South Korean Case Study." *Asian EFL Journal* 48: 1–53. www.asian-efl-journal.com/Litz_thesis.pdf (accessed July 3, 2018).

Long, M. 1985. "A Role for Instruction in Second Language Acquisition: Task-Based Language Teaching." In *Modelling and Assessing Second Language Acquisition*, ed K Hyltenstam and M Pienemann, 77–99. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

———. 1991. "Focus on Form: A Design Feature in Language Teaching Methodology." In *Foreign Language Research in Cross-Cultural Perspective*, ed K de Bot, R B Ginsberg and C Kramsch, 39–52. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Loschky, L, and R Bley-Vroman. 1993. "Grammar and Task-Based Methodology." In *Tasks and Language Learning: Integrating Theory and Practice*, ed G Crookes and S M Gass, 123–69. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Mahmood, K. 2010. "Textbook Evaluation in Pakistan: Issue of Conformity to the National Curriculum Guidelines." *Bulletin of Education and Research* 32, no 1 (June): 15–36.

Mahmood, K, M Z Iqbal and M Saeed. 2009. "Textbook Evaluation Through Quality Indicators: The Case of Pakistan." *Bulletin of Education and Research* 31, no 2 (December): 1–27.

McGrath, I. 2002. *Materials Evaluation and Design for Language Teaching*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Ministerio de Educación de Chile. 2012. *Bases Curriculares para la Educación Básica 2012*. Santiago: Ministerio de Educación de Chile. Also available at www.curriculumnacional.cl/wp-content/uploads/1b_6b/bases_marcos/Bases%20Curriculares%20Educacion%20Ba%CC%81sica%202012.pdf (accessed July 5, 2018).

Mohan, B A. 1986. *Language and Content*. Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley.

Mukundan, J, R Hajimohammadi and V Nimehchisalem. 2011. "Developing an English Language Textbook Evaluation Checklist." *Contemporary Issues in Education Research* 4, no 6 (June): 21–27.

Nassaji, H, and S Fotos. 2011. *Teaching Grammar in Second Language Classrooms: Integrating Form-Focused Instruction in Communicative Context*. New York: Routledge.

Nunan, D. 2004. *Task-Based Language Teaching*. Rev ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R L. 2001. "Sources of Variation in Language Learning." In *The Oxford Handbook of Applied Linguistics*, ed R B Kaplan, 245–52. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Potter, J, S Rigby and K Wong. 2009. *Longman Elect New Senior Secondary Theme Book*. Hong Kong: Longman.

Prabhu, N S. 1987. *Second Language Pedagogy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sheldon, L E. 1988. "Evaluating ELT Textbooks and Materials." *ELT Journal* 42, no 4 (October): 237–46.

Swales, J. 1980. "ESP: The Textbook Problem." *The ESP Journal* 1, no 1 (Autumn): 11–23.

Swan, M. 1985. "A Critical Look at the Communicative Approach (2)." *ELT Journal* 39, no 2 (April): 76–87.

Tomlinson, B. 2010. "Principles and Procedures for Self-Access Materials." *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal* 1, no 2 (September): 72–86. https://sisaljournal.org/archives/sep10/tomlinson/ (accessed July 3, 2018).

Williams, D. 1983. "Developing Criteria for Textbook Evaluation." *ELT Journal* 37, no 3 (July): 251–55.

Willis, D, and J Willis. 2007. *Doing Task-Based Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Willis, J. 1996. *A Framework for Task-Based Learning*. Harlow, UK: Longman.

Wong, R M H. 2009. "Developing Criteria for Textbook Evaluation." *TESL Reporter* 42, no 1: 52–57.

Xu, I H. 2004. "Investigating Criteria for Assessing ESL Textbooks." PhD dissertation, University of Alberta.

Xu, I, and O Bilash. 2009. "What Makes a Good Textbook?" *Notos* 9, no 2 (Fall): 36–50.

The Alberta Teachers' Association

Consent for Collection, Use and Disclosure of Personal Information

Name: _____ (Please print)

☐ I am giving consent for myself.

☐ I am giving consent for my child or ward.

Name: _____ (Please print)

By signing below, I am consenting to The Alberta Teachers' Association collecting, using and disclosing personal information identifying me or my child or ward (identified above) in print and/or online publications and on websites available to the public, including social media. By way of example, personal information may include, but is not limited to, name, photographs, audio/video recordings, artwork, writings or quotations.

I understand that copies of digital publications may come to be housed on servers outside Canada.

I understand that I may vary or withdraw this consent at any time. I understand that the Association's privacy officer is available to answer any questions I may have regarding the collection, use and disclosure of these audiovisual records. The privacy officer can be reached at 780-447-9429 or 1-800-232-7208.

Signed: _____

Print name: _____ Today's date: _____

For more information on the ATA's privacy policy, visit www.teachers.ab.ca.

Purpose and Goals of SLIC

The Second Languages and Intercultural Council aims to fulfill the following objectives:

- To enable Alberta teachers to become more aware of the issues of culture and second languages
- To enhance the knowledge, skills and understanding of teachers in the areas of second languages and culture studies through both inservice and preservice education
- To disseminate information about existing practices, programs and resources in second languages and intercultural education
- To encourage research that will result in the development and dissemination of innovative practices, programs and resources in second languages and intercultural education
- To provide advice and expertise to the Alberta Teachers' Association on learning and working conditions, curricula and teacher preparation as related to second languages and intercultural education
- To act through the Alberta Teachers' Association as an advocate for the enhancement and promotion of second languages and intercultural education

Publishing Under the *Personal Information Protection Act*

The Alberta Teachers' Association (ATA) requires consent to publish personal information about an individual. Personal information is defined as anything that identifies an individual in the context of the collection: for example, a photograph and/or captions, an audio or video file, and artwork.

Some schools obtain blanket consent under FOIP, the *Freedom of Information and Protection of Privacy Act*. However, the *Personal Information Protection Act* (PIPA) and FOIP are not interchangeable. They fulfill different legislative goals. PIPA is the private sector act that governs the Association's collection, use and disclosure of personal information.

If you can use the image or information to identify a person in context (for example, a specific school or a specific event), then it is personal information and you need consent to collect, use or disclose (publish) it.

Minors cannot provide consent and must have a parent or guardian sign a consent form. Consent forms must be provided to the Document Production editorial staff at Barnett House together with the personal information to be published.

Refer all questions regarding the ATA's collection, use and disclosure of personal information to the ATA privacy officer.

Notify the ATA privacy officer immediately of any incident that involves the loss of or unauthorized use or disclosure of personal information, by calling Barnett House at 780-447-9400 or 1-800-232-7208.

Maggie Shane, the ATA's privacy officer, is your resource for privacy compliance support.
780-447-9429 (direct)
780-699-9311 (cell, available any time)