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TOJELT

Editors-in-Chief

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Editorial Message

Dear Colleagues,

The first issue of Turkish Online Journal of English Language Teaching (*TOJELT*) is online now with a rich academic content. In this first issue, 4 articles and a book review have been published with the meticulous collaboration of TOJELT's team. These are; Cho and Krashen's invited article on reading skill, Takkaç Tulgar's article on the use of pragmatic competence in language classrooms, Bambirra's article on a motivational attractor basin and Pacheco Salazar's assessment of blended learning in university level students, and a book review of Shojaei and Motallebzadeh about the relationship between teaching English and the use of technology.

TOJELT is a double blind peer-reviewed and triannual international journal. The main goal of the journal is to create a new platform to exchange of the information on all aspects of English language teaching. Thus, *TOJELT* aims to report up-to-date high-quality empirical and original research contributions in the domain of English language teaching. The scope of the journal includes, but not limited to, theory and practice in English language teaching and learning, teaching and learning English as a second/foreign language, English language teachers and learners, teaching English to young learners, applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, literature in English language teaching and so forth. *TOJELT* also publishes book reviews, proceedings, dissertation reports – as long as they are expanded and revised regarding the expectations of TOJELT- of potential interest to readers of the journal. *TOJELT* completes the review process as early as possible. Any offer on publishing special issue is also welcomed by the editorial advisory board of the journal.

Lastly, we sincerely thank all board members and the referees for their efforts in the publication process of the first issue. We send our gratitude to the organizers of The Self in Language Learning Conference held in 2015 for their advertising our journal. Hope to be in collaboration forever.

With regards,

Dr. Ahmet Selçuk AKDEMİR & Dr. Ali DİNCER

Editors-in-Chief of the TOJELT

Invited Article
What Does it Take to Develop a Long-term Pleasure Reading Habit?

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Abstract: Six case histories of second language acquirers were examined to attempt to determine what factors play a role in developing a long-term pleasure reading habit in a second language (English). The cases provided support for several hypotheses: Long-term readers are first stimulated to read through a pleasant reading experience, they have access to books and time and a place (or places) to read, they select their own reading material, feel free to stay with certain authors and genres if they want to, and do not profit from tests, workbook exercises and incentives. If these hypotheses are confirmed in future studies, we can conclude that school does not provide the conditions that help develop long-term pleasure reading.

Keywords: *second language, long term pleasure reading, self-selected reading, sustained silent reading, access to books*

1. Introduction

This paper is based on a central hypothesis: The most important factor in reaching advanced levels in a second or foreign language is developing and maintaining a longterm pleasure reading habit.

There is abundant evidence that this hypothesis is correct: self-selected free voluntary pleasure reading has been shown to have very positive effects on language and literacy development: Those who read more become better readers and better writers, have larger vocabularies and better control over complex grammatical constructions, and spell better (research summarized in Krashen, 2004, 2011). More recently, Mason and Krashen (in press) have provided data strongly suggesting that one hour per day of pleasure reading over three years can result in a second language acquirer moving from the low intermediate to the advanced level without direct instruction, confirming the results of an early analysis by Nation (2104).

In this paper, we assume the correctness of this central hypothesis and the desirability of second language acquirers become long-term pleasure readers. We focus on how long-term

readers become long-term readers. We restrict our main analysis to second language acquisition, where self-selected reading is rarely used or even recommended.

2. Hypotheses for long term pleasure reading

We hypothesize:

1. Something will stimulate the start of a pleasure reading habit, e.g. a sustained silent reading class, learning about the power of reading in an academic classes, reading a book in English that stimulates more reading (a "home run" book, Trelease, 2001).
2. Plenty of access to books.
3. Time and place to read regularly.
4. Being able to self-select reading material according to interest and difficulty, and being free to read narrowly, sticking to certain authors or topics.
5. No tests, no workbook exercises, no rewards for reading. Either they will not be present, or the reader who does them will not give them the credit for progress and will not like them.

3. Case Studies

We present here a series of case histories, and in each case we provide evidence that the reader has established a pleasure reading habit, determine if the case is consistent with our hypotheses, and describe the improvement that has taken place.

Case One: Jung Seo
Reading Habit. Jung Seo, more fully described in Cho and Krashen (2015), is an acquirer of English as a Foreign Language in Korea. Ms. Seo, who had not been a pleasure reader in English, had been reading steadily in English for four years and eight months at the time her case history was written. She reports that she reads at least one hour a day, and has read about 200 books in English since starting her reading program, and has read about 600 children's books in English.

Stimulation. After majoring in English in college and teaching English in school, she was not satisfied with her English competence: "She described her English as 'fumbling' and said she made lots of mistakes when speaking and paused a lot to think before saying anything" (Cho and Krashen, 2015). Research on free voluntary reading was included in one of the courses she took in graduate school, and this inspired her to begin a self-selected reading program on her own.

Access to books. She is a member of a local English library, which has a wide variety of books. This library was her major source of books.

Time and place. She read on the subway, 20 minutes going to work and 20 minutes returning home each day. She also reported that she read in bed before going to sleep, during recess at the school where she teaches, and at home during the weekend and on vacations.

Self-selected and narrow. Ms. Seo clearly read what she wanted to read, eventually finding favorite fiction authors, starting with Sidney Sheldon, and then Sophie Kinsella. Seo reports that when she discovered Kinsella's books, she "could not stop reading them" (Cho and Krashen, 2015). She is now reading her seventh Michael Connelly Harry Bosch novel, having read the previous six in the series.

Tests, exercises and rewards. Ms. Seo took no tests during the four years eight months of her reading journey, did no workbook activities, and her rewards were all intrinsic, the pleasure of reading.

Language Development. Ms. Seo clearly improved: She reported that she had no trouble reading books in English that she found to be very difficult when she tried to read them several years ago. She says she is less dependent on the dictionary while reading. She feels she is more fluent in speaking English, and is more confident in speaking to native speakers, and that she can now understand American TV and movies without subtitles.

Case Two: Ramon

Reading Habit. Ramon, described in Henkin and Krashen (2015), came to the US after completing six years of education in Mexico, and his first school experience in the US was in grade 9, which he began knowing very little English. Less than two years later, he had read one Percy Jackson novel, a number of manga and graphic novels, and was eager for more.

Stimulation. Ramon had a "home run book experience," a concept introduced by Trelease (2001), who hypothesized that one positive experience can be enough to create a permanent interest in reading. Ramon's home run experience came from the Naruto manga series, and it happened during the winter break of his first year of high school. He had been watching the Naruto TV series in Mexico, a story about a teenage Ninja, and starting reading Naruto manga in English.

Access. Ramon borrowed Naruto manga from the school and local public libraries, and read online versions.

Self-selected and narrow. Ramon is clearly a "narrow" reader: A year and four months after starting to read Naruto manga, he was still reading them. He had also completed reading the first book of the Percy Jackson and the Olympian series (The Lightning Thief, by Rick Riordan) in English, having read the entire series in graphic novel format. He is also reading The Red Pyramid (also by Rick Riordian) in graphic novel format.

Language Development. There are clear signs that Ramon has improved dramatically. His scores on standardized tests in English place him just slightly below the level for reclassification as a proficient English speaker, which is astonishing considering the short amount of time he has been in school in the US. In his beginning ESL class at the start of grade nine he could only read the simplest kindergarten level books, but three semesters later he had read a young adult novel in English. At the end of grade 10 he earned all A's and B's in his courses, which were regular subject matter classes with some accomodation for speakers of English as a second language.

Case Three: Jaimin and Jaehee

Reading Habit. Jaimin, an eighth grader at the start of his reading journey, and his sister Jaehee, a ninth grader, were unenthusiastic students of English as a foreign language in Korea. Their mother, Mina, however, had a very positive experience in a university class on second language acquisition, where she had participated in a brief sustained silent reading session, and was eager to get her children involved in English reading.

After a "false start," described below, Jaimin and Jaehee were eager English readers for the next seven months..

Stimulation. Mina began the project by ordering "intermediate level" books for her children that she selected herself, and requiring her children to read them. This didn't work. The children, when interviewed later, said that the books were too hard and not interesting. (Jaehee,

however, said that after reading a few of the books, she got "a little interested," Cho and Krashen, 2002, p. 159.) Things changed when the children were allowed to select their own books (see below).

Access. Mina then ordered four books a month that her children wanted to read from a catalog.

Self-selected and narrow. After three months of unsuccessfuly trying to get her children "hooked on books," Mina changed her policy and let them select their own reading material. She first took them to a bookstore and told them they could select whatever they liked: "She reported that both children enjoyed browsing through the books at the bookstore and were, in fact, riveted: 'My boy was laughing out loud and my daughter was nodding to herself and smiling. They seemed to forget about going home ...'" (translated from Korean, in Cho and Krashen, 2002, p. 160).

We do not have details about what the children read, only that they did not select books according to reading level, but according to their interest in the story or topic.

Tests, exercises and rewards. Some of the books Mina ordered for her children came with a workbook and reading and vocabulary tests. Mina asked Jaemin to do the exercises and take the tests, but he had a very negative reaction right away.

Language Development. Seven months after their reading journey began with a trip to a bookstore, Mina took them to another bookstore. She observed that her children were involved in books:

> My kids were soon involved in reading in a corner, without moving. I quietly moved closer to see what kinds of books they were reading. They were books from a well-known series of children's literature ... the kind of reading I selected for them a year ago .. It was amazing and I couldn't believe that four books a month made them improve so much in reading comprehension. They seemed to be able to read in English as easily as they read in Korean. (translated from Korean, in Cho and Krashen, 2002, p. 161)

Case Four: Karen

Reading Habit. Karen, a 34-year native speaker of Korean living in the US, had never read any books in English and had little interaction with native speakers of English. In one year, she read a substantial number of young adult books, as well as adult novels and magazines.

Stimulation. Karen began reading books in the Sweet Valley series at the suggestion of Prof. Kyung Sook Cho, on the basis of success with this series with other subjects (Cho and Krashen, 1995a).

Time and place to read. According to Cho and Krashen (1995b), "Karen read the books everywhere, taking them with her on the plane when she went on a trip, and reported that she read the Sage volune of Sweet Valley High until 2:30 in the morning" (p. 18).

Self-selected and narrow. After Prof. Cho recommended the Sweet Valley series, Karen enjoyed them and eagerly read them voluntarily. Her additional reading included more from the same genre, as well as a great deal of reading from magazines. In one year, she read 25 books from the Sweet Valley Kids series, 21 from the Sweet Valley Twins series, and 20 from Sweet Valley High, along with 40 copies of the National Inquirer, four Harlequin Romances, and eight novels by Danielle Steel and Sydney Sheldon.

Tests, exercises and rewards. Karen took no tests, did no workbook exercises and her only reward was the pleasure of reading during the year her reading was studied by Cho and Krashen (1995b).

Language Development. Karen gradually progressed to more challenging reading, and at the end of the year was able to read novels that she had found incomprehensible a year before. She also felt that her spoken English had improved.

Case five: Mi-ae

Reading Habit. Mi-ae was a thirty year old adult speaker of Korean working in Los Angeles, who had been in the US for five years when she was studied by Cho and Krashen (1995c). She reported having difficulty understanding native speakers and TV and was not a reader in English. Over seven months, she read novels from the Sweet Valley series as well as a number of magazines.

Stimulation. Mi-ae was one of a group of ESL aquirers who participated in a study in which the acquirers voluntarily read novels from the Sweet Valley series (Cho and Krashen, 1995a). In one month she had read eight books from the Sweet Valley Kids series (second grade level), and had made significant progress with English. She was encouraged by this experience to continue reading.

Time and place. We do not have details about where and when she read, but Mi-ae told Krashen and Cho (1995c) that she read during every spare moment over seven months.

Self-selected and narrow. Mi-ai continued to read from the Sweet Valley series. After reading eight Sweet Valley Kids in one month, she continued to read 31 more, and four books from the Sweet Valley Twins (grade four level) series. She also read magazines, such as Vogue, People, and the National Inquirer. All her reading was self-selected.

Tests, exercises and rewards. Mi-ae took no tests, did no workbook exercises, and was given no extrinsic rewards.

Language Development. In addition to her progress in reading more challenging material, there were other signs of improvement:

> "I had two movie video tapes. I did not understand them at all five years ago, and just looked at the pictures. I did not understand them two years ago either. Last Tuesday, I watched them again to see if I could understand them. I understood them from the start, I could not catch everything, but I understood the entire story. I was so happy that I could understand words that I knew from the reading, such as 'envy', 'avoid', and 'wet'." (translated from Korean, in Cho and Krashen, 1995c).

It is clear that Mi-ae's speaking ability in English has improved. A native speaker of English she knows saw her for the first time in a year and asked if she had been taking English classes. She had only been reading Sweet Valley novels.

Case six: Reyna Grande

Reading Habit. Reyna Grande came to the US from Mexico at age nine, after a life of great deprivation. She is obviously highly literate today. She has become a published author in English (Grande, 2012) and teaches creative writing at UCLA Extension.

Stimulation. Reyna Grande had been a pleasure reader in Spanish before coming to the US. She became a pleasure reader in the seventh grade in the US, and received helpful suggestions for books from her school librarian.

Access. In grade eight, she "would stop at the Arroyo Seco Library for books" every Friday before going home. She borrowed the maximum every week: ten books (from: Krashen and Williams, 2012, p. 26).

Self-selected and narrow. Reyne Grande profited from suggestions made by her school

librarian and much later by her university English teacher, but her reading was self-selected. Her elementary school reading included popular young adult series, such as the Sweet Valley Series, the Babysitters Club and her eventual favorite, books by VC Andrews.

Tests, exercises and rewards. In grade eight, she entered a district-wide short story contest and won first place. This reward, however, came after she had become a dedicated pleasure reader in English.

Language Development. Reyna Grande was not a "long term ELL": she "successfully completed the ESL program and got rid of my status as an ESL student" at the end of seventh grade (Grande, 2012, p. 240). She did well in school, winning a writing award in English, attended the University of California at Santa Cruz, and eventually became a successful author in English, publishing two novels in addition to her autobiography.

4. Summary

Note that in several of the cases reviewed here information was missing for some of the categories (Table 1). This is not surprising: The case studies were not done with this set of hypotheses in mind. Our hope is that future case studies will include data that will continue to test the set of hypotheses presented in table 1.

Table 1.

	Started reading	Reading Habit	Stimulation	Access	Times & Place	Self‑selected/ narrow	Tests/ exercises
Jung Seo	Adult (34)	4 years	college class	English library	subway, home	yes/yes	none
Ramon	Grade 9	1.5 years	home run book	library, online		yes/yes	
Jaimin & Jaehee	Grade 9,10	7 months	self-selected book	Catalog		yes	rejected
Karen	Adult (35)	1 year	Part of study		"read everywhere"	yes/yes	none
Mi-ai	Adult (30)	7 months	Part of study		"every space moment"	yes/yes	none
Reyna Grande	Grade 7	since childhood		Library		yes/yes	

Each hypothesis received clear support:

Longterm second language readers all had some kind of experience that got them interested in pleasure reading: This may be crucial in second language acquisition situations because, as noted earlier, self-selected voluntary reading is rarely done or even mentioned in second language classes.

Longterm second/foreign language readers had access to books in the second/foreign language. This is rarely the case in the foreign language situations, where books in other languages are often difficult to find and expensive, and rarely provided in schools. It is also crucial in the second language situation for students living in poverty, who have little access to books at school, at home and in their communities (Krashen, 2004).

Longterm second language readers found a time and place to read, often difficult to do in these hectic times. This problem, of course, is similar for all readers.

Our readers read books they selected themselves, typical of successful readers (Krashen, 2004), but of course not typical of classroom instruction, where nearly all reading is assigned. When reading is selected by the reader, this makes it much more likely that it will be of interest and much more likely that the reader will develop higher levels of competence (Lee, 2007).

Our readers were narrow readers, also consistent with what is known about successful readers (Lamme, 1976; Krashen, 2000). And again, narrow reading, staying with a topic, author or genre for an extended period of time, is rarely encouraged in classrooms. Rather, reading and literature classes typically utilize surveys, providing students only samples of different authors and genres. Narrow reading is more comprehensible, thanks to familiarity with an author's style and greater background information.

Tests, exercises and rewards, the core of traditional instruction, were not appreciated by our longterm readers, and several made excellent progress without them.

5. Conclusions

If subsequent studies confirm the results of this analysis, we arrive at an interesting conclusion: The formula for success in establishing a longterm reading habit is in direct contradiction to several practices that are part of traditional instruction.

Traditional instruction does not value free voluntary reading, does not provide access to reading material or time and a place to read. It does not encourage self-selection and places the emphasis on short and varied reading samples, rather than narrow reading.

Longterm pleaure readers have overcome these obstacles; in a sense they have overcome what they have learned in school.

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Appendix: First language studies

McKool (2007) provided information on many of the hypotheses focused on here.

Reading habit. McKool interviewed 20 fifth graders who were avid readers (read for an average of 46 minutes a day during a ten day period) and 17 who were reluctant readers (read for an average of three minutes a day).

Stimulation. "Avid readers ...reported that voluntary reading was promoted in their classes through the practice of Sustained Silent Reading" (McKool, 2007, p. 125).

Access. All avid readers in this study had access to books. Avid readers from higher-income families tended to get their books from bookstores and home, while lower-income readers were more dependent on the school library (p. 123). There was, however, no difference between the high- and low-income avid reader groups in enthusiasm for reading (p. 118). Some reluctant readers had experienced sustained silent reading (SSR), but in several of their SSR classes they did not have access to what they wanted to read.

Self-selected/narrow. The readers "... felt ... that it was critical for teachers to allow them to read whatever they wanted to read. When avid readers were asked to read required materials during [SSR] time, they frequently admitted that 'This makes me not want to read.'" (McKool, 2007, p. 125). Some reluctant readers had SSR, but they did have their choice of what to read; teachers did not allow comics or magazines. Both avid and reluctant readers read series books.

Tests, exercises and rewards. None of the avid readers felt they read more as a result of a reading incentive program. "In fact, several avid readers admitted that they read less because of such programs" (McKool, 2007, p. 126). Avid readers disliked incentive programs because "they did not allow complete choice in material selection. Students ... reported that participation in the

program required them to read a book off of a predetermined list on a particular reading level .... One student stated: 'I want to read whatever I want to read. When I have to read an AR (Accelerated Reader) book, it makes me not want to read.'" (p. 126). These reactions confirm the importance of self-selection (see above).

Two additional studies (Purcell-Gates, Degener, Jacobson & Soler, 2002; Rodrigo, Greenbert, & Segal, 2014) provide some useful information. In both cases, those exposed to a literacy program emphasizing reading for meaning (stimulation) were shown to have developed more of a reading habit than those in programs that did not. Both studies included second language acquirers, but it was not clear if they reacted differently from the native speakers of English.

The Role of Pragmatic Competence in Foreign Language Education

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Abstract: Pragmatic competence has become, especially in the last few decades, one of the issues that attracted attention in the field as an essential part of language competence. The realization that having a good command of linguistic knowledge in target language would not be enough to master the language has created the need to investigate the value and effect of pragmatic competence in language education. This review is intended to provide a brief overview of pragmatics and pragmatic competence, the pedagogic significance of pragmatic competence highlighting the relevant theoretical components of pragmatics. For the purposes of this review, relevant literature covering definitions of pragmatics and pragmatic competence and research carried out on pragmatic competence is presented.

Keywords: *pragmatic competence, foreign language education, communicative competence, pragmatics instruction*

1. Introduction

Communication is an indispensable part of any community life in which people feel the need to interact with each other for certain reasons. It is through the concept of language that people can communicate with a number of interlocutors in a variety of settings. However, while interacting, people need to follow things beyond words. They need to know how to say something as well as when, where and to whom to say it. Therefore, communication is much more than putting some words in a linear order to form a set of items. Language users are supposed to follow some conventions according to which their conversation will be not only meaningful but also appropriate. This analysis of how to say things in appropriate ways and places is basically called pragmatics.

Pragmatics mainly deals with what is beyond the dictionary meanings of statements; in other words, it is about what is actually meant with an utterance based on the norms and conventions of a particular society, or context, in which conversation takes place. Therefore, having a good command of the conventions enables the speaker to establish and maintain effective and appropriate communication as well as understanding each other clearly (Yule, 1996) and this ability is generally referred as pragmatic competence.

Following the shift in which the emphasis in language pedagogy changed from the linguistic-based to communicative-based purposes, the impact and status of pragmatic competence has gradually increased in educational circles. Considering pragmatic competence as a crucial component of language education, this study is intended to be a review on the value and

place of pragmatic competence in general language competence and language education. For the purposes of this review, some core definitions proposed by prominent researchers about the term are presented followed by some studies, especially recent ones, investigating different factors affecting pragmatic competence and the significance of pragmatic competence in language education.

2. Literature Review

Before focusing on the significance of pragmatic competence, it would be better to provide some definitions of the term and its related concepts. Pragmatics generally underlines the connection between language use and the underlying factors like interpersonal or social dynamics that can possibly affect the usage of language. One of the earlier definitions of the term is suggested by Morris (1938) who regarded pragmatics as the analysis of how an interlocutor interprets the sign that the other interlocutor proposes. Another frequently cited definition belongs to Crystal (1985). He describes pragmatics as the study of language based on the perspectives of its users regarding their preferences, the impact of the interactional context and how utterances can influence other participants during or after the communication. Leech (1983) and Levinson (1983) also emphasize the influential nature of the context considering meaning making while proposing definitions of pragmatics.

Context is a crucial component in understanding the meanings and intentions of other interlocutors. That is why; pragmatic knowledge is essential in getting the intended meanings and maintaining conversations accordingly. Rose and Kasper (2001) comment that during any interaction, interlocutors "do not just need to get things done but must attend to their interpersonal relationships with other participants at the same time" (p. 2). Garcia (2004) provides a comprehensive comment considering pragmatics as a discipline taking into account "the full complexity of social and individual human factors, latent psychological competencies, and linguistic features, expressions, and grammatical structures, while maintaining language within the context in which it was used" (p. 8). From these definitions, it can be concluded that communication is not just about using words after one another. Instead, a healthy and efficient interaction is based on a variety of factors ranging from the participants of the conversation to the context in which the interaction goes on as well as the social and cultural norms and conventions of the society and its language.

Considering language knowledge and production, Chomsky (1965) coins the terms competence and performance. The former refers to the mental capacity of a person considering language. Competence which mainly involves such linguistic knowledge as phonetics, phonology, morphology and syntax enables a person to understand and produce the language. Performance, on the other hand, is the actual production of a language user. While competence is the linguistic input, performance can be considered as the linguistic output. In other words, competence is about knowing the language and performance is producing the language. Considering these two terms, however, Chomsky comments that performance is subject to certain external factors such as the language user and the interactional context. Therefore, he concludes that performance does not always reflect the full nature of competence and he favors competence over performance. There has been; however, a shift in language teaching pedagogy from linguistic to communicative competence starting from the introduction and development of communicative language teaching methods. This shift has required a through and in-depth analysis of the communicative and pragmatic aspects of the language (Trosborg, 1987). Therefore, communicative functions of the language naturally gained momentum. Different

models of communicative competence and different criteria for efficient communication have been proposed Hymes (1972); Canale and Swain (1980); Grice (1975); Bachman (1990); Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1995). These models of communicative competence have been proposed partly as criticisms and reactions to the emphasis on linguistic competence in language education.

One of the first criticisms towards the dominance of linguistic competence over communicative one came from Hymes (1972). Hymes disapproves Chomsky's perspective of competence and performance by conducting an ethnographic examination of interactional competence known as ethnography of communication. Hymes comments that though linguistic knowledge is significant, communicative dimension of language use should not be undermined and to support his point of view, he maintains that "[t]here are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (p. 278). Therefore, it can be stated that based on Hymes' critical view, there has been a crucial shift from the focus on grammar to the communicative aspects in language studies.

While making a review on pragmatic competence, it is important to refer to Canale and Swain's (1980) model of communicative competence. This communicative competence model, which is later built on by Canale (1983), consists of four main areas of knowledge and skills to possess for effective communication: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. The first is related to such general linguistic knowledge as the phonology, morphology and syntax of the language and it resembles Chomsky's term of language competence. Sociolinguistic competence enables interlocutors to use contextually appropriate language based on their grammatical knowledge. It, in a way, combines linguistic knowledge with contextual rules. Discourse competence is about the ability of the language user to follow cohesion and coherence in language production to maintain flow and unity. The last item, strategic competence, is related to both verbal and non-verbal hints that can make interaction more effective and hinder possible communication breakdowns. Hence, based on these brief definitions, one can infer that effective communication with little or no misunderstanding requires a successful combination of these four competencies. However, it is also significant that all the interlocutors maintaining interaction should possess these skills.

There has been a certain degree of criticism towards Chomsky's reliance on language competence undermining the value of language performance. Hymes (1972) and Canale and Swain (1980), with their notion of communicative competence, were among the pioneers considering the significance of appropriate language production. It was Bachman (1990) who proposed pragmatic competence as a separate unit of communicative competence. Bachman suggests that general language competence consists of two main parts: organizational competence and pragmatic competence.

The first category, organizational competence, includes a language user's linguistic knowledge such as vocabulary, morphology and syntax and this is called grammatical competence, which is similar to Chomsky's term of language competence and Canale and Swain's grammatical competence. Besides grammatical ability, organizational competence also includes textual competence which is about cohesion and coherence in interaction.

The second category, pragmatic competence, consists of illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. The first component, illocutionary competence, involves four main functions: ideational function helps language users express their thoughts and feelings; manipulative function enables people to obtain what they want; heuristic function creates opportunities to learn new things and use language as a problem-solving tool; and imaginative function improves people's creativity. These four functions proposed by Bachman (1990)

resemble Halliday's (1975) seven functions (instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative and representational functions). The second component of pragmatic competence, which is sociolinguistic competence, is related to the level of sensitivity which is necessary for taking the variations in diverse communicative situations. Sociolinguistic competence entails sensitivity towards language variations based on social or regional diversities between interlocutors. It is natural that these variations influence the conventions of how the language is used. Therefore, it can be maintained that while illocutionary competence directs language users to perform certain language functions, sociolinguistic competence enables them to choose the appropriate conventions or strategies based on the nature of the context.

After referring to a brief history of the concept of pragmatic competence including the shift in language teaching pedagogy, it would be appropriate to present some research on pragmatic competence to offer a clearer picture of the place of pragmatic competence and particularly its relation to different factors in language education. Relevant literature displays studies conducted on the effects of different factors on pragmatic competence. Some of those have focused on the impact of language proficiency on pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Taguchi, 2011; Takahashi, 2005); some on the effects of instruction (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2010; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Martines-Flor & Soler, 2007; Takimoto, 2009); some on the effects of learning environment (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Schauer, 2006); and some on the impacts of length of residence (Bataller, 2010; Ren, 2013; Roever, 2012; Shively, 2011; Taguchi, 2014). Presenting the results of some of these studies would be helpful.

One of the issues of investigation has been whether language proficiency affects pragmatic competence. Based on this perspective, one of the seminal studies examined the effects of language proficiency on pragmatic competence. Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) carried out a study with 173 ESL and 370 EFL learners who were asked to do a Discourse Completion Task in order to identify the grammatical and pragmatic infelicities in the given scenarios. The results of this study revealed that those participants with higher levels of language proficiency were more successful in identifying the mistakes compared to their peers. The results of this study were also supported by its replications (Schauer, 2006). Another study investigating the impact of language proficiency as well as the study abroad experience on pragmatic comprehension was conducted by Taguchi (2011). The results of the cross-sectional study including 25 native English speakers and 64 Japanese collage learners showed that those participants with higher language proficiency and with longer experiences of study abroad were quicker and better in comprehending the audios recorded in the target language. However, relevant literature also includes some studies presenting counter-argument to the positive impact of language proficiency on pragmatic competence (Matsumura, 2003; Scarcella, 1983; Schimidt, 1983). For example, Schmidt's (1983) famous Wes study revealed that although the participant did not have enough level of general language competence, he could maintain effective communication. Conducting a study with Japanese learners of English, Matsumura (2003) found that proficiency levels did not directly affect their sensitivity to pragmatic infelicities and the results of another study by Shardakova (2005) also supported that of Matsumura (2003) revealing a discrepancy between language proficiency and apology productions.

The impact of learning environment has also been one of the points of attention in the studies of pragmatic competence. The studies conducted on learning environment have generally focused on a comparison of ESL and EFL contexts for language learning. Most of these studies, though there are some presenting counter-evidence, have pointed at the positive effects of learning a target language in ESL contexts compared to EFL ones particularly in terms of the development of pragmatic competence. For example, the two studies mentioned in the previous

paragraph, i.e. that of Bardovi-Halig and Dörnyei's (1998) and its replication by Schauer (2006), point at the contributory nature of conducting language studies in ESL settings compared to EFL ones. The results of these studies revealed that the participants in the ESL context were better at identifying pragmatic infelicities as they were exposed to the appropriate usages of target forms in its natural setting. Referring to a personal experience of learning a target language in an EFL context, Cohen (1997) also reports that his level of pragmatic competence did not reach the desired levels due to the limitations stemming from the EFL setting.

Considering the context of language learning, the length of residence in the target language context has been another concern in the investigations of pragmatic development. Most of the studies aiming to investigate the impact of the length of residence showed the positive effects of staying in the target culture on the development of pragmatic competence. For instance, working with 31 non-native speakers of Spanish who stayed in Spain for a period of four months, Bataller (2010) found that there is a positive correlation between the length of residence and the development of some aspects of request strategies. The positive contribution of long periods of staying in the target culture is also supported by Ren (2013) who worked with 20 Chinese learners of English with study abroad experiences of over an academic year. The researcher found that this experience not only contributed to the development of the pragmatic performances but also raised the level of pragmatic awareness. The results of these studies are also maintained by Taguchi (2014) who found that studying abroad for a semester improved cross-cultural adaptability as well as developing appropriate language production.

Taking the different models of pragmatic competence and some studies on the issue into consideration, it can be stated that pragmatic competence is an essential component of general language competence if the aim of language is to communicate. Pragmatic competence enables language users to establish and maintain appropriate and effective interaction besides understanding and giving meaning to the messages based on contextual information. Without pragmatic competence, communication would eventually breakdown.

3. Why to Teach Pragmatics

Pragmatic competence is crucial for healthy communication because the lack of it can result in communication breakdowns which can even have severe consequences in some cases (Allami & Naeimi, 2011; Shi, 2014). The situation in which a language user cannot maintain effective communication because of the inability to appropriately use the language and the incapability to understand the intended meanings is described as pragmatic failure (Thomas, 1983). That is why; ESL and particularly EFL curriculum should cover teaching pragmatics if the main purpose of language learning is to communicate.

However, although there has been a great interest concerning the value of pragmatic competence, there is still some deficiencies in terms of including pragmatics instruction in language education (Eisenchlas, 2011). What is commonly stated by these researchers is that language instruction still focuses on teaching the linguistic and lexical features of the target language while ignoring the pragmatic aspects (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Crandall & Basturkmen, 2004). Despite the introduction of and growing awareness towards communicative competence and approaches to develop it, there have not been enough attempts to teach and especially assess pragmatic competence. The possible reasons for the lack of pragmatic instruction are proposed as follows: instructional materials, limited instructional time, artificiality of the activities, teachers' inadequacies in terms of language competences or instructional skills and the attitudes towards

teaching pragmatics (Einsenchlas, 2011). Whatever the probable reasons are, it is stated by different researchers that pragmatic instruction does not get the necessary attention it deserves.

Considering the inadequacy of pragmatic instruction, some researchers also explain that the heavy emphasis on teaching linguistic features may result in a good command of grammatical competence. However, having a high level of linguistic competence does not guarantee a high level of pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Blum-Kulka& House, 1989; Celce-Murcia, et al., 1995). It is commonly stated that even advanced learners experience pragmatic failures regardless of their levels of linguistic competence. It is also possible that learners who are not well developed in terms of pragmatic skills may adopt transfers between L1 and L2 as a strategy to deal with communicative cases. However, the transfers at pragmatic levels may not be as healthy as those at other levels. This naturally results in problems in communicative situations and can negatively affect the language development of the learner as well as the self-confidence in language learning.

Regarding the frequency of experiencing communicative situations, it is essential to develop pragmatic competence; thus, including pragmatic competence as a significant part of language instruction is crucial (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2010; Fordyce, 2014; Halenko & Jones, 2011; Ifantidou, 2013; Kasper, 1996; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Nguyen, Pham & Pham, 2012; Rajabi & Farahian, 2013; Takimoto, 2008; van Compernolle, 2011). In order to highlight the significant nature of teaching pragmatics, Kasper (1996) maintains that what should be discussed should not be whether to teach pragmatics, the focus of attention should be how to teach it in language classes. Providing learners with instruction means providing them with the necessary input they can utilize. Accordingly, language input offers learners not only the linguistic knowledge but also the knowledge of appropriate ways of using the language to promote effective interaction and to advance pragmatic abilities (Li, 2012). Input provided through instruction can be considered as a stimulating factor in language learning. In order to underline the significance of providing instruction for the development of pragmatic competence, presenting some studies would be more helpful.

A great percentage of the studies on the effects of, either explicit or implicit, instruction revealed the positive impacts of instruction on pragmatic development. For example, in three studies conducted successively one year after the other, Takimoto (2007; 2008; 2009) found that providing learners with instruction and input in different sorts would yield positive contributions in the learning process. Takimoto (2007) aimed to examine the effectiveness of structured input tasks accompanied by explicit information, structured input tasks without explicit information and problem-solving tasks. The results revealed that the group that received structured input tasks accompanied by explicit information performed better than the group without explicit information. Based on these results, Takimoto (2008) conducted another study to investigate the impact of deductive and inductive instruction on the development of pragmatic competence. In this experimental study with 60 Japanese learners of English, there were three treatment groups receiving deductive and inductive instruction with problem solving tasks and one control group. The results of the pre-test, post-test and follow-up tests pointed at the positive contributions of any treatment types compared to no instruction. The results of these two studies were also supported by another study by Takimoto (2009). Examining the effectiveness of structured input instruction, comprehension-based instruction and structured input instruction, Takimoto (2009) found that, though there are some differences between the treatment groups, those receiving instruction outperformed the others in the control group.

In a recently-conducted experimental study with 26 Chinese learners of English, Halenko and Jones (2011) found that explicit instruction helped the participants improve their pragmatic

abilities in terms of identifying and producing pragmatically appropriate language forms. In another experimental research which differed from the previous one in that it also included implicit instruction in the study, Nguyen, et al. (2012) aimed to investigate the impact of explicit and implicit instruction on pragmatic development. 69 Vietnamese participants were divided into explicit, implicit and control groups. The results of the study revealed that, though the group receiving explicit treatment was better than the implicit one, both explicit and implicit groups were more successful than the control group with the help of the positive effects of instruction. A different type of instruction was provided by Rajabi and Farahian (2013) with the aim of identifying the effectiveness of instruction on pragmatic competence. 34 Persian learners of English were divided into experimental and control groups the experimental one was provided with awareness-raising instruction. The results showed that pragmatic productions of the group receiving treatment were significantly better than the control group. The results of these studies are also in line with those of Fordyce (2014). Both the explicit and implicit groups were better at pragmatic performances than the control group. On the other hand, the group receiving explicit instruction outperformed the implicit group considering immediate and long term productions. Another recently conducted experimental study belongs to Farshi and Baghbani (2015). The results of the study revealed that those groups that received instruction outperformed the control group. The researchers concluded that instruction has positive contributions on pragmatic production in foreign language settings.

Based on the above-mentioned studies, one can infer that instruction, implicit or explicit, in pragmatics is beneficial. Most of the studies in the relevant literature revealed that pragmatic instruction is much more contributory in nature than no instruction as it provides learners with the necessary input they can utilize in the process of developing their language abilities. However, presenting mere instruction out of appropriate and meaningful context would also not yield the desired and expected results. As pragmatic instruction has an undeniable significance in language development, it is essential to provide learners the type of instruction which is integrated with other language activities to raise learners' awareness and attention towards the appropriate ways of using the language. It is clear that mere exposure to a huge amount of input is not effective for pragmatic development (Matsumura, 2003). Instead, language input should be incorporated with other activities in different contexts increasing the meaningfulness of the learning process. In order to highlight the significance of designing and planning lessons, Solak and Bayar (2015) suggest that language lessons should be organized according to a practice-based orientation instead of a traditional theory-based orientation. In such meaningful and practical contexts, learners can have the chance of practicing language beyond memorizing or mastering the linguistic forms without the ability to apply them in interactional contexts.

Integrating pragmatic features in language instruction is especially vital in EFL contexts as learners in these educational settings do not have much chance of learning and practicing the target language outside the classroom environment. The learners have limited opportunities for interaction in and exposure to the target language in communicative contexts. Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2010) suggest the integration of pragmatic instruction in language curriculum explaining that exposure to pragmatics promotes learners' perceptions of the target language and its speakers.

4. Conclusion

Pragmatic competence should be considered as an inseparable component of language competence. Therefore, pragmatic features of the target language should be incorporated in

language instruction as well as linguistic features. In order to equip learners with the essential pragmatic knowledge, it can be suggested that, first of all, the importance of pragmatic competence should be internalized. Then the perspectives should be re-shaped with the purpose of providing learners with the best opportunities to expose to the pragmatic features and practice them in a variety of contexts. In addition, language teachers should possess a good command of the target language including a satisfactory level of pragmatic knowledge so that they can convey what they know to their learners. In order to teach their learners these pragmatic aspects, teachers should also have the necessary teaching skills enabling them to adopt different teaching strategies during their instruction.

To sum up, pragmatic competence is one of the building blocks of language instruction. If the aim of language education is to teach learners how a language should be appropriately and effectively used in different interactional settings, it is important to raise learners' pragmatic awareness as well as furnishing them with some beneficial strategies they can utilize to sustain successful communication in diverse settings with different interlocutors. Therefore, pragmatic competence should be an integral part of language curriculum. In order to accomplish this, however, there is still some need for further research aiming to raise much more awareness considering the significance of pragmatic competence and to come up with better and more productive suggestions and solutions.

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A Snapshot of Signature Dynamics in an English Class in Brazil: From a Motivational Attractor Basin Towards an Attractor State[1]

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Abstract: Considering the dynamic nature of the foreign language acquisition process, it seems that some components of the learning experience are competing motivational forces that directly influence the teaching and learning outcomes within the relational context of the English class. As the behavior of a complex system is by definition unpredictable and random, documenting nonlinear changes - its signature dynamics, is considered a possible way of researching it. In this perspective, this article aims to outline motivational signature dynamics of an English class using the retrodictive qualitative modelling. Firstly, the teacher's class plan plus the information from a semi-structured interview were used to recover most of the initial motivational conditions of the system - its attractor basin. After that, from the teacher's description of this class, it was possible to study the ecology of the teaching experience in interrelation with the students' motivation. An outline of a motivational change in the system state seems to indicate one of the system's possible attractor state. This result demonstrates that it is possible to document signature dynamics by properly eliciting and exploring the teaching experience.

Keywords: *signature dynamics, attractor basin, attractor state, classroom experiences*

1. Introduction

According to Dörnyei (2014), a system is considered complex or dynamic when it meets three conditions: (1) consists of two or more elements, (2) the elements of the system are interconnected and (3) these elements, although interrelated, draw independent trajectories from each other over time. Likewise, the most recent studies on experiences of teaching and learning English in Brazil (Miccoli, 2010, 2011, 2013, 2014a; Miccoli & Lima, 2012; Lima, 2014) acknowledge the complex character of the ecology of experiential components in second language acquisition.

In line with Lamb & Wedell (2013), who advocate the study of formal teaching experiences due to the significant influence that teacher practice has on student motivation, and considering motivation as a dynamic and situated system (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2012; Dörnyei, 2014), this study, funded by the sponsoring agency CAPES –

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Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior – Brazil, focuses on the investigation of how a teacher's motivation changes in interaction with the environment and how the system reorganizes itself after the change (de Bot, Lowie, Thorne & Vespoor, 2013; Waninge, Dörnyei & de Bot, 2014).

In order to reach this objective, the teaching experiences lived by a teacher interacting with his/her students will compose the immediate context from which motivation should emerge and, therefore, be documented, according to Ushioda (2009), within a "person-in-context relational view of motivation" perspective. In Mercer's (2013, p. 377) words, "typically, contexts or the environment, which are themselves conceptualized as systems, are not viewed as external variables affecting a system from outside, but rather [are considered to be] integral parts of the system".

Having set this objective, three research questions can be presented: (1) what experience did the teacher have in this class? What are its main components?, (2) how do these components interrelate in weaving the experience?, and (3) what are the main motivational signature dynamics in this class, i. e., what are the novel outcomes formed by the system due to the interaction of its components?

In order to reveal this class motivational signature dynamics, it seemed essential to recover and consider both the system attractor basin and a detailed description of the class. From this description, there emerged an outline of its attractor state which will be presented and discussed.

2. Theoretical basis

This research initiative has taken an English class at a public high school in Brazil as a dynamic system in which the teaching experience was focused on. As the teacher intuitively conducted her class in a different way from what she had planned in a clear response to students' behavior, an effort was made to show the motivational dynamics of this system. Some concepts such as: attractor basin, signature dynamics and attractor state are central to this study.

2.1 Motivational attractor basin, signature dynamics and motivational attractor state

Although the behavior of a dynamic system is essentially random, and many times chaotic, it also shows some systematic trends. According to Hiver (2015), dynamic systems tend to self-organization, which means that they usually evolve to attractor states. So, an attractor state can be conceptualized as an emergent, dynamic and context-dependent temporary outcome of a complex system reached as a result of its self-organizing dynamics, be it converging to or diverging from critical patterns.

Signature dynamics are the system unique development paths (Dörnyei, 2014). Hiver (2015) explains the term as changes in the system behavior or state, resulting from internal interaction. Basically, the system dynamics can form a new outcome in two ways: naturally, without any intentional interference of any of its own agents, or under the impact of an input or any disturbing force that changes the system's natural trajectory, launching it into a different direction.

Finally, the initial conditions of a system which contextualize and support its development towards an attractor state are called the attractor basin (Hiver, 2015).

Considering the teaching experience as a key component of this system means acknowledging its complex nature – experiences nest themselves into one another, creating a net of dynamic relations, deeply influencing and being influenced by the context they are in. In order

to recognize nonlinear changes that may eventually emerge during the analyzed English class, it seems essential to understand the ecology of the teaching experience in interrelation with the students' motivation. To do so, the framework of formal teaching experiences seems to be a useful resource.

2.2 Framework of formal teaching experiences

Miccoli & Lima (2012) defend the organic and complex nature of human experience. They explain that our experiences involve a vast number of different inter-connected elements, interacting in diverse ways. In Lima's (2014) words, any experience "constitutes itself as more than an isolated event, once every experience encapsulates a process that, to be understood, makes evident other events and relations which permeate it, fostering their emergence" (p. 46).

The foreign language classroom dynamics, and the teaching experience, emerge from the interactions between the teacher and his/her students. From more than 20 years of collecting and analyzing foreign language (L2) teaching and learning narratives, Miccoli (2014b) has built the understanding that these interactions modulate the experiences lived by teachers and students within the classroom context. The evidence supporting this understanding emerge from teachers' and students' discourses. More specifically, it comes from the experiential components present in the descriptions of their teaching and learning trajectories.

To better investigate the teaching experience in its complexity, this study departs from the framework of formal L2 English teaching experiences elaborated by Miccoli (2007, 2010) and updated by Miccoli & Lima (Lima, 2014), and propose an adjustment to it. Once the study focuses on the motivational dynamics of the system, it is expected that motivational components will play prominent role in the data analysis, allowing for the unveiling of the emerging phenomena. Thus, in order to support the data analysis of this study, this framework was adjusted to encompass another category, related to motivational experiences.

Having Dörnyei's model of process motivation (2001) and the results of a doctoral research (Bambirra, 2009) as the main references, it was possible to conceive the category of motivational experiences constituted by seven sub-categories, as shown in Figure 1. The framework, adapted from Lima (2014), lists all the documented types of experience of teaching English as a foreign language in Brazil since 2006, when Miccoli started to formally investigate them, added by the category of motivational experiences. It encompasses then seven categories of experiences (originally six) and each category comprises its own sub-categories.

Conceptual experiences

Cpt 1. Teaching English at a regular school
Cpt 2. Learning English at a regular school
Cpt 3. Student role
Cpt 4. Teacher role
Cpt 5. Own capacity, competence, knowledge
Cpt 6. Teacher status
Cpt 7. English teaching status
Cpt 8. Concept re-signifying

Personal experiences

Per 1. Derived from the socio-economical level
Per 2. Previous experiences
Per 3. Current experiences
Per 4. Informal qualification – Studies, participation in academic events etc
Per 5. Reflection
Per 6. Self-knowledge
Per 7. Experience re-signifying

Environmental experiences

Env 1. Extra-institutional educational experiences
Env 2. Institutional experiences
Env 3. Working conditions
Env 4. Related to time
Env 5. Derived from the physical environment
Env 6. Related to the foreign language
Env 7. Derived from the research interference

Pedagogical experiences

Ped 1. Class management
Ped 2. Related to didactic material
Ped 3. Related to digital technology
Ped 4. Assessing teaching, learning and students
Ped 5. Use of teaching strategies
Ped 6. Description of students' actions

Social experiences

Soc 1. Derived from being the teacher
Soc 2. Description of the student/group profile
Soc 3. Derived from the interaction w/ students
Soc 4. Social strategies

Affective experiences

Aff 1. Creativity and (un)interest
Aff 2. Effort and persistence
Aff 3. Feelings
Aff 4. Self-esteem
Aff 5. Personal attitudes
Aff 6. Intuition
Aff 7. Use of affective strategies

Motivational experiences

Mot 1. Accepting responsibility
Mot 2. Investment on autonomy
Mot 3. Identity issues
Mot 4. Goals setting
Mot 5. Intention formalization
Mot 6. Goals operationalization
Mot 7. Motivation management

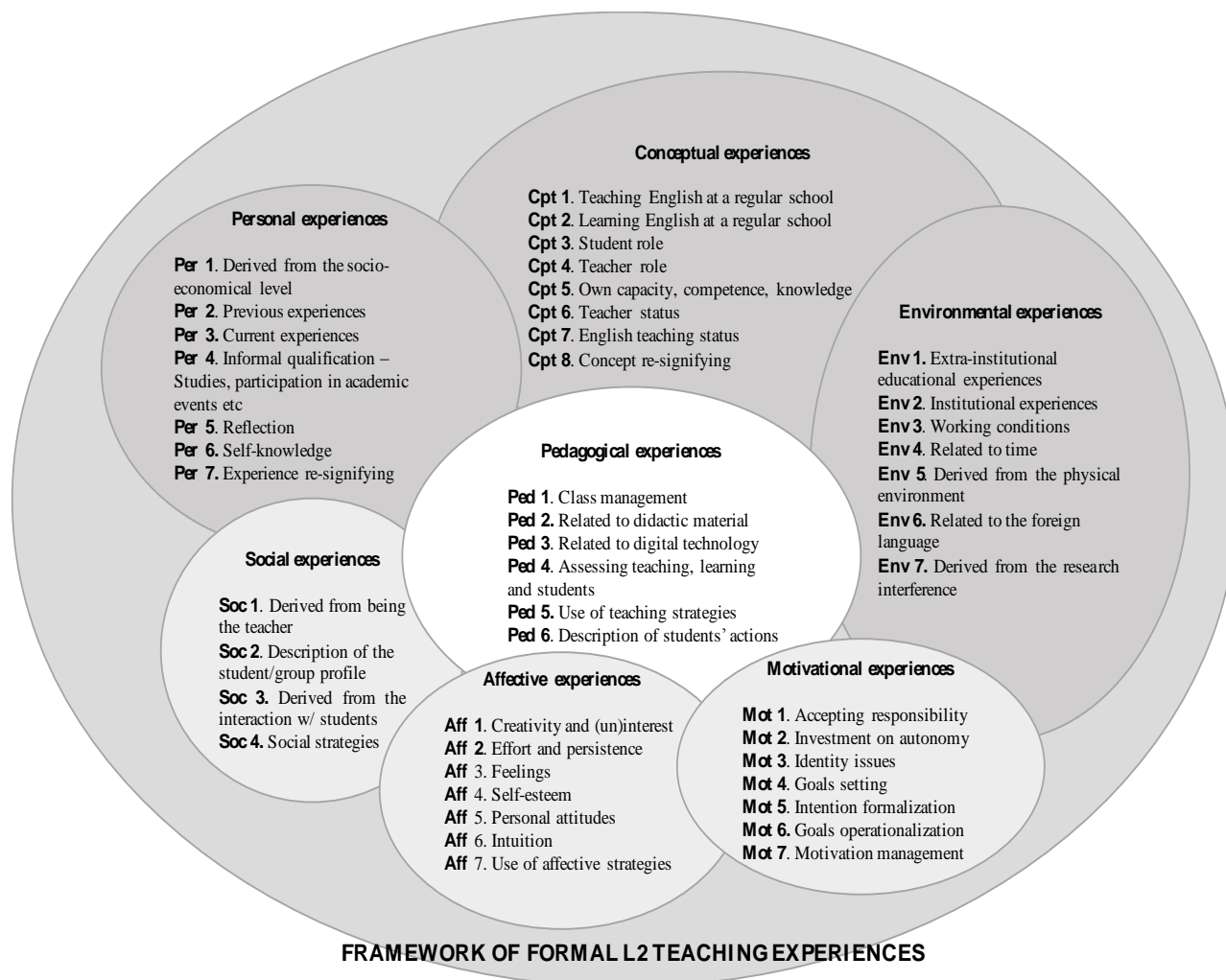**FRAMEWORK OF FORMAL L2 TEACHING EXPERIENCES**

Figure 1. Framework of formal L2 teaching experiences

Figure 1 aims at representing all types of teaching experiences documented by research findings according to their nature. It is an attempt to didactically display the possible constitution of any teaching experience. As an experience is usually a constellation of others, the endless possibilities of combination among them assures its uniqueness.

Situated and context-dependent, each teaching experience usually combines experiences that originate in the classroom and experiences that do not originate there. Research findings (Miccoli, 1997 to 2014a) have demonstrated that the experiences originated inside the classroom, as a direct consequence of the teaching action, are usually pedagogical, affective, and social in nature. Because they originate directly from the teaching effort, they tend to be central in comparison to others. Just like the tip of an iceberg, they seem more evident at a first look at the data but they are not able to realize the complete experience. At a second look, it is understood that these experiences are deeply affected by others that do not originate in the classroom but influence the perception or explain the behavior of the teacher. Still using the metaphor of the iceberg, they would be deeper, indirectly influencing the ones originated in class, having a great relevance for the pedagogical processes they modulate – the iceberg as a whole. Acknowledging

this essential distinction between the two types of experience, Miccoli (1997) has called them direct and indirect experiences.

The indirect experiences – environmental, conceptual and personal – do not originate in the classroom. As their names say, the environmental are determined by the environment but the conceptual and the personal originate within the inner world of the person who describes the lived experience.

In the diagram (Figure 1), the lighter the experience, more central it is. Due to the investigative focus of this study and the way the research questions were elaborated, the pedagogical experiences took the central position, followed by the affective and the social ones, together with the motivational experiences. Deeper, come the conceptual, the personal and the environmental ones, as will be made clear in the analysis of the teacher's narrative. That is why the framework has gained this representation and presents the conglomerates of experiences in three different shades of gray.

3. Methodology

This article presents a case study of mixed nature. Based on the framework of formal L2 English teaching experiences updated by Miccoli & Lima (Lima, 2014) and adapted for this study, the components of the teacher's experiences were first identified, categorized and quantified to try to document and explain any motivational change that occurred during the analyzed class. Then, qualitatively, the motivational components of the experience were made explicit in their relation to other experiential components lived and discussed.

3.1 Participants

The participants were one English teacher at a public high school in Brazil, and one of her groups: 16 students taking their second high-school year, all of them from 16 to 17 years old.

3.2 Data collection

The data collection was designed to register the manifestation and evolution of emerging motivational components in the participants' experiences. Thus, the following steps were proposed:

a. Before class, under request of the researcher, a brief class plan was formalized by the teacher outlining the activities devised to reach her pedagogical objectives, her main choices and expectations;

b. At the end of the class, a short narrative (some 5 to 10 minutes) was digitally recorded, in which the teacher was expected to describe and evaluate the experience lived in that class, trying to point out to what extent her plans were accomplished, and how she was feeling about that specific class, commenting on anything she considered relevant, if she wanted to;

c. At the beginning and at the end of the class, the students' impression about their motivational level for that class was registered. They were given a logbook, called motivational journal, together with a collection of colorful stickers (Figure 2), showing happy faces in green, neutral faces in yellow, and unhappy faces in red. They were asked to use them to assess (1) their motivation at the beginning of the class and (2) the feeling with which they left the room at the end.

Figure 2. The students' motivational journal and a set of stickers

The logbook has 20 pages since it was made to be used for a whole semester. Each page conceals the information on one English class so, at the top, it clearly indicates the date in which it occurred. The two circles were the spaces where students were supposed to place the corresponding stickers, while the rectangle area was added to give them some space where they could add any comment, explaining or exemplifying the sticker used, in case they wanted to. They were requested to add a comment of this nature any time they used a red sticker.

3.3 Data analysis

Given the nature of the phenomena investigated, this study was methodologically developed using one of the strategies proposed by Dörnyei's (2014) to conduct research involving nonlinear complex dynamic systems change and evolution in a meaningful way – the retrodictive qualitative modelling (RQM).

The RQM was presented as an approach to data analysis based on the fact that it may be possible to revisit the documented outcomes of a system dynamics and explain its signature dynamics. As Dörnyei (2014, p. 85) puts it, "… by tracing back the reasons why the system has ended up with a particular outcome option we produce a retrospective qualitative model of its evolution".

So, in the following section, the results are discussed in this way: first of all, the class plan, the teacher's mood and the students' moods at the beginning of the class were used to stablish the motivational attractor basin. After that, the moods in which the teacher and the students left the room were used to assess the teaching experience and present a possible motivational attractor state of the system. Finally, to show the signature dynamics of this class, the experiential components of the teacher's narrative were mapped and quantified and the motivational experiences were discussed qualitatively.

4. Results and discussion

4.1 The motivational attractor basin of the system

Facing the challenge of describing the initial conditions of this system-class, two elements will be considered: the teacher's and the students' declared before-class moods, and the teacher's class plan, in which her intentions and main pedagogical choices are stated.

The teacher has declared in her narrative that she was exhausted that day. So, the smiley face to be associated with her mood would be the unhappy face. In turn, from the journals, we have the students' moods. This information is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Initial overall motivation for the English class on that specific day

Students	Teacher	Moods	Meaning
3	1	☹	Unhappy
6		😐	Neutral
7		🙂	Happy
16			

The overall mood seems to indicate that most of the group – ten people out of 16 – was not that motivated for this class. However, six students, indicated their moods as neutral. Because the expected role of the teacher is still to get hold of the class, add an inspiring atmosphere to it, and motivate students to engage in meaningful activities, the teacher will have to spend a great effort to teach these kids and fulfill her class plan successfully.

The second source of data to contextualize the initial conditions of this system is her class plan. The class is very well prepared but we can notice that, depending on the way this teacher develops these activities, they will impose a high cognitive demand on the group.

> _CLASS PLAN: May 26, 2015_
>
> _Duration: 1 h 40 min_
> _Theme: informal interviews_
> _Support: some activities of the book "Alive High 2" – Unit 2: On the waves of the radio_
>
> _Activities:_
> 1. _(10 min) Pre-reading activity – an informal conversation to arise the students' curiosity. The teacher will throw some questions to which they do not have answers on subject related to the text they are about to read. Observation: I have prepared 7 questions, and 4 of them will be answered by the text._
> 2. _(40 min) Reading activity – use the reading strategies to help the students understand a story about the invention of the radio (basically skimming, scanning, and lexical inference)_
> 3. _(20 min) Grammar study activity – the use of the simple past_

> 4. *(10 min) Pre-listening activity – discussion about some aspects of informal interviews sometimes given by famous people (press behavior, privacy invasion, famous artists' reactions, and the students' opinions about the artists' responsibility in relation to feeding their fans with news)*
> 5. *(20 min) Listening activity: Kelly Clarkson's interview*
>   *Duration of the audio: 7 min*
>   *Exercises on the interview (proposed by the book)*
>   <div align="right">(Our translation)</div>

It seems that some ludic activity could have been included in this class plan. Something like a game, a role-play, a short karaoke, some video clip watching etc. Ninety minutes of cognitive effort may be too much for any group to handle. So, it is relevant to verify the motivational level of the group after the class. It was expressed in this study by the teacher's and the students' moods, as can be seen in Table 2.

4.2 Towards the attractor state of the system

Table 2 shows the students' and the teacher's moods, before (BC) and after (AC) class, represented by smiley faces. It also shows some comments the students have written in their journals.

Table 2. Visual representation of the motivational move of the class

Ss	Mood		Comment
	BC	AC	
S1	🙂	🙂	
S2	🙂	🙂	
S3	🙂	🙂	
S4	🙂	🙂	
S5	🙂	🙂	I am in love with my teacher!
S6	🙂	🙂	
S7	🙂	🙂	
S8	😐	😐	
S9	😐	😐	
S10	😐	😐	
S11	😐	😐	
S12	😐	🙂	
S13	😐	🙂	
S14	☹️	🙂	I was late to class!
S15	☹️	🙂	Tired, bad grades, really bored
S16	☹️	☹️	I can't learn
T	☹️	🙂	She was "exhausted" that day.

Table 2 also shows that four 'neutral' students (S8, S9, S10 and S11) did not change their moods during class. They arrived with some neutral feelings at that class and ended up feeling just the same. Student 16 also did not change his/her mood. S/he commented in his/her journal that s/he had some great difficulties in learning English and this is reason enough for feeling bad about many classes. So, five out of 17 people in this group would say they were indifferent or did not like this class.

On the other hand, another five people have changed their moods – both from unhappy and from neutral – to happy ones. S12 and S13 changed from neutral to happy and S14, S15 and also the teacher changed from unhappy to happy.

It is interesting to notice that S14 and S15 presented external reasons for not being in the best mood for this class. S14 explained s/he had represented her/his initial mood with an unhappy face because s/he arrived a little late and that bothered her/him. S15 said that s/he had been taking bad grades in other subjects and so s/he had been worried those days. As they engaged in the class and interacted with their colleagues and the teacher, they have forgotten that initial feeling and could enjoy it.

In a similar way, the teacher, who had started teaching with difficulty once she was feeling tired, became satisfied as the class went by and she could see the students having some fun and learning. She expressed it in her narrative in this way:

> I liked this class because I managed to develop it, at least I guess so, more in English than in Portuguese, and they [the students] seemed to have had fun. It seems that they got relaxed at the end of the class and left it here so happy. And I did what I had planned, with some change that's true. So, that is all for this class!

In the end of the class, there were twelve happy faces against four neutral ones and only one unhappy face. This means not only that the class was very successful but also that there was a significant motivational change along the way. So, in the pursuit of outlining this motivational change, the teaching experience will be analyzed.

4.3. The teacher's experience and the motivational signature dynamics of the system

Based on the framework of formal L2 English teaching experiences (Lima, 2014) – Figure 1, the components of the teaching experience were identified in the teacher's narrative, categorized and quantified as shown in Table 3. It is important to consider that this analysis shows the experience as described by the teacher. It is based on what emerged from her discourse.

Table 3. Composition of the teaching experience

Nature of the components	incidence
Pedagogical	22
Motivational	20
Affective	7
Social	3
Personal	2
Conceptual	2
Environmental	1
Total	**57**

As can be seen, due to the nature of the analyzed narrative – a description of a class, and the chosen focus of analysis, the pedagogical experiences take the central position. They emerge in greater quantity as they are the teacher's focus of attention. In such a scenario, it can be understood that the affective, personal, social, conceptual and environmental experiences contextualize the occurrence of the pedagogical ones and, together with the motivational experiences, they support the system self-organization, outlining signature dynamics. The motivational experiences emerge all the time, since they permeate the interactions. A qualitative approach will be taken from now on to explain all that.

The teacher started saying what she had planned for that class. In doing so, she shows that she accepted the teaching responsibility (Mot 1), stablished goals (Mot 4) and formalized intentions (Mot 5).

After that, she assessed her performance briefly announcing that she did not fulfill her class plan (Ped 4). In a very positive way, she started describing what she could do, reporting how she addressed a warm-up activity, and soon a conceptual experience can be derived from her discourse (Cpt 1) – she mentions that she managed to do an activity with the students almost completely in English. It shows that she believes English must be used in class as much as possible. This is not an institution demand so it is understood as a belief. She also shows how happy she was because of it and then an affective experience is realized (Aff 3). The teacher justifies her satisfaction with this use of English explaining how difficult it usually is to achieve it due to the heterogeneous linguistic level of the group. This indicates the presence of a social experience (Soc 2) related to the realization of their competence as a result of class interaction.

She kept on describing her class and talked about another activity (Ped 1) – a pre-reading one, and it shows how she operationalized another goal from her class plan (Mot 6). Right after she assessed the group's (Ped 4) performance, and explained why the activity went so well, allowing her to reach a pre-established sub-task (Mot 6). She mentioned that everyone had collaborated (Soc 3) and reassessed the group's performance (Ped 4). Then she described how she conducted the pre-reading activity (Ped 4) exploring the subject prediction, vocabulary inference, textual non-verbal elements analysis, target public, and the social function of the text. By the details she was giving, the motivational components of her experience were becoming evident again, once she was showing how she could operationalize her goals and intentions with the group (Mot 6).

Next she mentioned she pre-checked their understanding of the text general idea (Ped 4), commented that it was all done in English, letting her belief related to how Brazilians should learn a foreign language come up again (Cpt 1), and expressed how it pleased her to speak in English with them most of the time (Aff 3). Before moving on, she registered that she tried to

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work communicatively with them, again demonstrating compromise in following the class plan (Mot 6).

Then, she started describing how she mediated their reading of the text and doing the reading comprehension activity (Ped 1). It is clear at this moment the motivational component modelling her attitudes (Mot 6) in response to the students doubts, questionings, interferences, general behavior.

At this point, she realized that time had passed and she only had 30 minutes left to the end of the class (Env 4). But she still wanted to do a listening activity proposed by the book (Mot 5). She commented that the activity was heavy, cognitively loaded (Ped 2), and that the students were sort of tired, getting demotivated (Soc 2). At this point, she noticed that they started talking about a singer whose picture they saw on the book at that very moment (Ped 5). So, because she realized their interest in that singer (Aff 6), in a demonstration of teaching autonomy (Mot 2), she decided to abandon the class plan (Ped 6) in favor of investing in her students' motivation (Mot 7). In her words:

> We still had some 30 minutes or so to the end of the class, they were very agitated, uneasy, dispersed. As I was getting ready to start the pre-listening activity (class plan #4), they saw a picture of Sally Clarkson on the book and started talking enthusiastically about her. I was so exhausted that day that I gave up gathering extra effort to get them engaged into one more cognitively tiring activity such as the ones I had planned (class plan #4 and #5). I just jumped with them into listening unpretentiously to a song by Sally Clarkson! They needed to relax and so did I.

She described how she contextualized the activity (Ped 1) – improvising (Aff 6), she got a sentence by Nietzche from the book and related it to the title of the song: Stronger, promoting a discussion about the consequences of the end of a love relationship (Ped 2).

Right after she commented on the group's reaction (Ped 4) and expressed satisfaction (Aff 3) for having overcome the students' demotivation (Mot 7). Then she assessed her class as a whole (Ped 4), stressed some goals from her class plan she did not reach, some activities she did not do with the students (Mot 7), and reflected on her performance (Per 5) stating that she wants to become more independent from the textbook each day, makes a connection between her motivational level (Aff 3) and the students' (Aff 6) in that specific moment of the class when she decided to abandon her class plan (Ped 6). This experience makes evident a reflection (Per 5) triggered by the fact that she was managing her motivation (Mot 7).

5. Conclusion

This study is an attempt to analyze an English class at a public regular school in Brazil using the retrodictive qualitative modelling, as proposed by Dörnyei (2014). It seems that the effort to describe the ecology and the dynamics between the teacher's reported experiences and the contextual elements allowed the realization and outline of some motivational signature dynamics of the system.

The initial motivational conditions of the system indicated seven motivated participants against ten demotivated ones. At the end of the class, it had changed to twelve motivated against five demotivated. The emergent motivational change in the system was mainly due to (1) the teacher's perception of the students' affective and motivational state, and (2) her intuition, both affective components.

This class signature dynamics, that is, its development paths from the attractor basin state towards an attractor state, corroborate Miccoli's (1997 to 2014a) and her associates' research

finding that motivation and feelings filter and deeply influence teaching and learning under any circumstance. As context is a contingent parameter, it seems wise to always consider motivation and affective experiences while mapping the context of pedagogical learning experiences.

As assumed, the framework of formal L2 teaching experiences was resourceful in making evident the ecology of the processes under analysis.

The results also suggest that this research methodology into the classroom motivational dynamics is a successful approach to analyze motivation from a dynamic system perspective.

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Students' Assessment of Blended Learning in an English Language Instruction Course at the University of Cuenca[1]

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Abstract: The research aimed to assess students' appreciation of blended learning in a fourth-level English language instruction course at the University of Cuenca. The experiment was conducted in 2011 during the spring semester, and a total of 58 students participated. For the class, a mix of classical teaching using a textbook and instruction via internet using the Moodle software were used in harmony. The impressions and experiences of the students were gathered via a questionnaire and an interview; and analysed through Excel. The students liked the blended approach, were motivated to practice and communicate, learned better and more effectively, and considerably improved their English language skills. Initially, introducing the blended approach meant an additional burden for the lecturer, but, in the end, it considerably facilitated the teaching process. The experiment revealed that the university has to enhance its technological platform to make the modular, internet-based sections of the course function smoothly.

Keywords: *blended learning, English language course, Moodle, textbook, evaluation.*

1. Introduction

The learning process has been seen and thought of as a complex endeavor to be achieved. A common concept of learning is that it is accomplished by one person, the lecturer, and that it all happens in the classroom (Williams & Burden, 1997). This approach is typical of the teaching process at the University of Cuenca, more specifically, the way English as a foreign language is taught at the Language Institute of the University of Cuenca. The main elements of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) are repetition and memorization of grammar. Another drawback is the lack of implementation of new teaching approaches that enhance the learning process. Given that teaching is focused on grammar means that little attention is paid to the development of communicative competence and linguistic skills such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Class communication among students and between student and teacher is very limited, and teaching is mostly a teacher-centered process; consequently, students do not reach the language learning objectives. As stated by Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Mellow (2000),

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[1] This study is an extended version of the paper presented in The Self in Language Learning Conference (SiLL) 2015.

learning a language implies applying different methodologies and, above all, making students the main actors of the process and reducing the lecturer's role as the class coach.

Recently in literature a lot of emphasis has been given to methodologies that enhance the process of learning a foreign language. Lightbown & Spada (2013) discussed in their book How Languages are Learned the behavioral, nativist, cognitive, and sociocultural perspectives that culminate in better teaching and learning of a second and/or foreign language in formal education. According to Rice & Smith (2010), research conducted on how people learn effectively resulted in the development of various models, which, when properly used, provide experiences in effective learning in formal and informal settings. In particular, technological resources have opened new horizons in education, particularly in audiovisual material such as podcasts and screen casts, which address different learning strategies and styles. Most important, they all emphasize active student participation. During the last decade, web-based applications that enable the production of modular internet-based courses to support current social constructionist pedagogy became available. Most of those applications, such as the Moodle platform, are easily accessible. The Moodle platform is defined as a Course Management System (CMS), also known as a Learning Management System (LMS) or a Virtual Learning Environment (VLE). It is a free web application that educators can use to create an effective online learning site. For example, the Moodle platform can provide students with more options for developing linguistic skills such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking. It enables students to optimally communicate among themselves and with the lecturer. According to Rice & Smith (2010), Moodle bases its philosophy on social constructionist pedagogy (Berger & Luckmann, 1991), enabling students to acquire new knowledge while interacting with different activities and different students. Also, as students are asked to construct their own learning experiences, the odds of learning increase. For example, you might read this page several times and still forget it by tomorrow. However, if you try to explain these ideas to someone else in your own words or produce a slideshow that explains these concepts, then you likely would have a better understanding that is integrated in your thinking. This is why people take notes during lectures (even if they never read the notes again). Implementing a blended approach, a term increasingly used to describe the way e-learning is combined with traditional classroom methods (Thorne, 2003), has greatly contributed to successful learning experiences throughout the world, and it has been proven through extensive research. Kupetz & Ziegenmeyer (2005) refer to blended learning as the purposeful arrangement of media, methods, and ways of organizing learning situations through combining traditional media and methods of e-learning elements and possibilities.

As a matter of fact, North and South America, Europe, Asia, and Australia have made blended learning (also called B-learning) part of their curricula, promoting learning in an innovative way. Today higher education is characterized by increasing adoption and integration of e-technologies to foster learning (Chan, A.Y.K., Chow, K.O. & Jia, W., 2003). Moreover, research has proven that Content Management Systems (CMSs) such as Blackboard, WebCT, and Moodle are among the leading web-based technologies used to facilitate the design and delivery of e-course events (Dabbagh & Bannan-Ritland 2005).

The main purpose of this study was to assess students' perception and experience with respect to using a blended-learning approach in a 4th level English as a foreign language course, in which a Moodle-based virtual environment was used alongside classical classroom teaching and discussion at the Language Institute of the University of Cuenca.

2. Methodology

2.1. Instruments

A questionnaire and an interview were used to assess the students' perception of blended learning. In both evaluation methods, participants selected one of the preset answers to answer the questions, allowing me to quantify the respondents' qualitative impressions. The questionnaire contained the following questions: classic teaching using a mix of textbook and interactive sessions via Moodle is complementary (Q1); the virtual platform Moodle facilitates (Q2) or hinders (Q3) the learning of English as foreign language; the platform permits the students to adjust the learning process to their personal rhythm (Q4); the course content via the platform can be more easily and regularly updated (Q5); the textbook offers sufficient up-to-date content to learn English as foreign language (Q6); working with the platform gives the student more confidence in actively using English (Q7); the platform improves vocabulary knowledge (Q8); the platform encourages learning (Q9); the textbook provides sufficient opportunities to assimilate the English language (Q10); do you feel more confident using a textbook than the Moodle platform (Q11); a textbook is limiting and hinders the learning process since it is less dynamic and interactive (Q12); and do you prefer the classical way of teaching rather than the mix of classical teaching accompanied by internet-based modules (Q13). The participants could provide one of the following answers to each of those questions: agree, partially agree, disagree, strongly disagree, and I have no opinion.

The questions asked during the interview were: what do you think about the platform (Q14); which approach did you like most, textbook or Moodle (Q15); and, if you could choose any of the following options (talk and chalk or blended learning) to learn English, which one would you choose (Q16). The students could answer question Q14 as excellent, good, moderate, or poor and answer questions Q15 and Q16 as the platform, textbook, or both.

2.2. Data collection analysis

The responses to the questions yielded respectively quantitative and qualitative information, which was checked for accuracy, digitized, and stored in an EXCEL-sheet. The data were subjected to descriptive statistical analysis, including frequency and percentage response distribution, measures of central tendency, and dispersion measures, which describe how closely the values or responses are to central tendencies. Graphs were constructed using GrapherTM v11.

2.3. Participants

The data was collected from students attending a 2011 spring semester 4th level English foreign language course. The students had received English instruction in the classical way in the 1st to the 3rd level. The dominant teaching pedagogy in those years was "chalk and talk," which does not stimulate active student participation. In the 4th level, as a pilot project at the University of Cuenca, the blended mode of learning was implemented by combining the classical way of teaching using a textbook with sections offered interactively via the Moodle platform, enabling

students to be more active and to choose the time that best suited them. The questionnaire and interview were conducted at the end of the spring semester.

2.3.1. Sample population

The number of students who participated in the experiment was 58, split between an afternoon and evening class. In the afternoon class there were 28 participants and in the evening class there were 30 participants.

3. Results and Discussion

The students' responses to the questionnaire, depicting their perception of receiving sections of the course material in an interactive way using the Moodle platform, are summarized in Figure 1. The consensus of the responses varies from question to question. For example, 66% of the students found using the Moodle platform as a complement to the classical class sections instructive (Q1); however, 32% partially agreed and 2% disagreed. Furthermore, 98% of the students stated that using a textbook alongside virtual learning via the Moodle platform enhances the learning process (Q2): respectively, 68% strongly agreed, 30% agreed, and 2% did not answer. On the contrarily formulated question given to check their logic, the students provided almost the same response: 68% strongly disagreed that blended learning hinders the learning process, 15% disagreed, 2% strongly agreed, and 15% did not have an opinion.

The students appreciated the flexibility the Moodle platform provides (Q4); 81% strongly agreed and 12% agreed that they appreciated the possibility that they could dedicate time and energy to learning the course sections via the virtual platform when they had time and interest. Only 7% of the surveyed students were less enthusiastic and preferred a more authoritatively imposed study schedule. A similarly positive response was given to question (Q5), i.e., whether the platform provides more up-to-date and advanced study material; respectively, 73% of the students responded very enthusiastically, and 27% were very satisfied by the actualization of the course content, which is impossible when textbooks are used. As to the question of whether they find that a textbook as instruction material is adequate and sufficient to learn English (Q6), amazingly 19% and 34% of the students respectively agree and partially agree, 32% disagree, and only 15% strongly disagree.

Students have less faith that working with the virtual platform provides the same level of learning compared to the classical way of learning (Q7)— 86% agree with this statement (40% agree and 46% partially agree), while only 12% have a different opinion. With respect to the question whether the Moodle platform enhances vocabulary learning (Q8), 61% of the respondents strongly agree and 34% agree. A great percentage of the students believe that blended learning, whereby sections of the course material can be studied via the Moodle platform, encourages learning the English language (Q9)—54% agree and 34% disagree, while 9% did not have an opinion on this issue. This is also confirmed by the response to (Q10) as to whether the correct and intensive use of a textbook provides the same knowledge as learning whereby a given fraction of the lecturing material is being taught via internet—25% of the students agree with this statement and 46% partially agree, while 15% disagree and 14% strongly

disagree. So nearly 30% of the students are convinced that blended learning is an advantage with respect to classical teaching. In addition, 24% of the students agree with the statement that a virtual platform provides less a sentiment of safety than using a handbook (Q11), although 73% of the students disagreed. In line with this (Q12), 64% respectively 25% and 39%, agree and partially agree that the Moodle platform provides better quality and training in spoken English; only 34% disagree or strongly disagree. As to the final question (Q13), whether they prefer teaching in the classical way ("talk and chalk") to blended teaching, almost all students disagree (19% disagree and 68% strongly disagree).
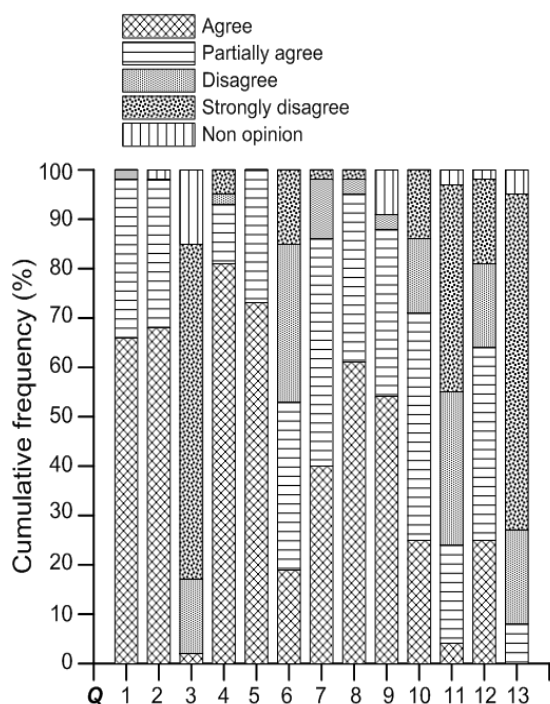

Fig. 1: Cumulative frequency of the 4th level students' response to questions 1 to 13 in the questionnaire.
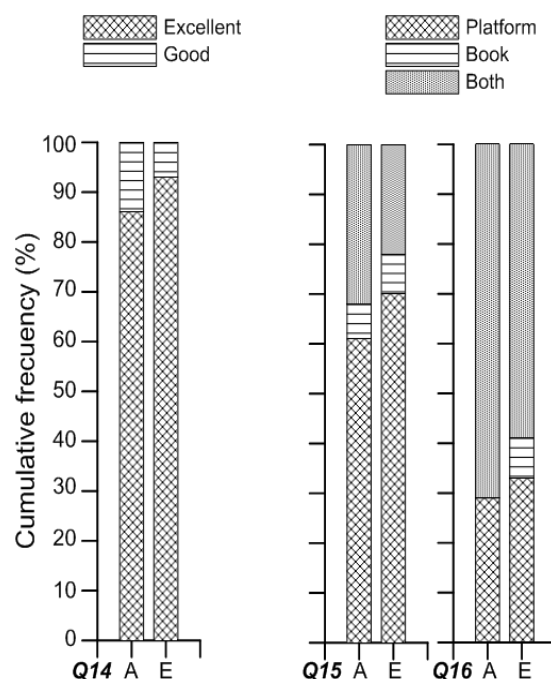
Fig. 2: Cumulative frequency of the 4th level students' response to questions Q14, Q15 and Q16 asked in the interview during the afternoon (A) and evening (E) class session.

With respect to the question "What do you think about the platform?" (Q14), asked of all afternoon and evening students during the interview, overwhelming they stated that blended teaching—integrating the classical way of teaching with the possibility to learn some of the lecture material via internet—is very much appreciated. The responses of the afternoon class and the evening class do not differ much, since in the afternoon session 86% of the students find blended teaching excellent, whereas in the evening this percentage was 93%. Responses to questions Q15 and Q16 are very much in line with expectations, given that question Q16 formulates the opposite of Q15, i.e., which approach (platform, or textbook, or a mixture of both) do you like most, or if you could choose any of the options to learn English (platform, textbook, or both), which one would you select. The majority of students in the evening session (70%) are convinced that studying via the Moodle platform is most effective and efficient, while only 61%

of the students in the afternoon session are of the same opinion. Whereas 22% (evening session) to 32% (afternoon session) of the students find that blended teaching might be an excellent way of teaching (Q15), 59% (evening session) and 71% (afternoon session) state that blended teaching should be the way a 4th level English language course is taught. Since those percentages do not correspond, it illustrates that the students analyzed and answered question per question without comparing questions. The survey shows that, although the students are not very familiar with blended teaching and learning, they are open to a teaching approach where they take more responsibility and are more active in the learning process. It is up to them to study the course sections on the internet provided via the Moodle platform.

Although the results of this study are based on a single semester experimental trial with 58 students in the 4th level course of English as a foreign language, the majority of the students seem to be very pleased with the mixture of classical learning in a classroom and the possibility to learn certain class modules, developed using Moodle software, via internet. As this study as well as others show (Kessler, 2010; Kessler & Bikowski, 2010; Roed, 2003; Wold, 2011), blended learning has many advantages over traditional classroom teaching and learning: providing learners motivation, autonomy, flexibility, and immediate and detailed feedback; reducing anxiety; and enhancing student involvement and participation.

Although a minority of students seems to prefer the use of textbooks and a classical class setting rather than a blended approach, the survey did not provide the reasons for the a-motivation of the students. Most likely their attitude is the result of a teacher failing to provide them with the support they needed to work with this new way of learning. Other reasons may be that the computer infrastructure in classrooms is deficient, or that students at home do not possess the internet infrastructure they need to work in the evenings or weekends on their English as a foreign language course. It is evident that the introduction of blended learning requires that lecturers and students mentally adapt to this new learning approach and environment (Purvis, Aspden, Bannister, & Helm, 2011).

4. Conclusions

Whereas the results of the research might be very promising and in favor of B-learning, the primary limitation of the research is that it was carried out within the singular context of learning a foreign language. Further research undertaken in a similar context and employing a more elaborate research design is desirable to test the external validity of the current findings. This research should include three key points. First, the current study needs to be replicated with a larger matched sample during several semesters, and motivated and a-motivated students should be followed and interviewed about their perceptions. The interview of a-motivated students may reveal the shortcomings of the B-learning approach. Second, more emphasis in the performance assessment should be given to student abilities in reading, speaking, and writing English, not just the collection of their impressions. To accurately define the advantage of B-learning over classical learning, it may be appropriate to compare over time two groups of students—a group learning English in the classical way and a group learning English in a blended system—and to measure the English proficiency of both groups. Third, to clearly understand how a student's attitude with respect to blended learning evolves, the analysis should focus on person-centered longitudinal analyses.

To enhance the success of implementing blended learning at the University of Cuenca on a larger scale, the lecturer's a-interest in the use of technological resources must be overcome, which likely can only be achieved by providing teacher training in Moodle software and similar technological tools. Lecturers and students need to improve their computer skills to fully benefit from the many possibilities available through the Moodle platform. Additionally, it is important to explain to teachers how to set up their classes to fully benefit from the blended approach. Moreover, the university should upgrade its ICT infrastructure, install appropriate computer and projection infrastructure in the classrooms, and facilitate user, lecturer, and student access to the infrastructure and the software applications. Training teachers, providing appropriate infrastructure, and simplifying bureaucracy are still major obstacles hindering the introduction of blended learning and its widespread application.

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Book Review
English Language Learning and Technology

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The book is a very helpful book which gives us information and knowledge of using technology in language learning and teaching. It contains detailed consideration to articulatory and auditory Language learning as well as to the practicalities of English language learning. The book discusses the relationship between English language learning and technology. It consists of 7 chapters.

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1. Book Review

The book is a very helpful book which gives us information and knowledge of using technology in language learning and teaching. It contains detailed consideration to articulatory and auditory Language learning as well as to the practicalities of English language learning. The book discusses the relationship between English language learning and technology. It consists of 7 chapters.

In the first chapter, *The Changing World of English Language Teaching,* the author discusses the connection among English language learning and technology. We cannot separate English language learning and technology from each other. The authors deeply consider the use of E-mail, Web address, Computer, for better understanding and the use of CALL for English language learning and technology, and no one can deny such advantages for changing many aspects of the profession and technology.

In the second chapter, *The Potential of Technology for Language Learning,* the author takes a step toward discovering this authenticity by speaking one of the most commonly tested questions about technology and language education: how can computer-assisted language education are learned by professional indication about second language acquisition (SLA)? The book clarifies the issues of teacher needs and English assessment so that the teachers can utilize innovative teaching and assessments through the use of technology which is the advantages of English language learning.

In the third chapter, *Evaluating Language Learning,* the author points out that the use of technology for language learning must be tailored. In other words, the normal or standard way to learn language would be without the procedure of computers, and merely if a firm case can be made would computers be engaged into attention.

In the Fourth Chapter**,** *Investigating Learners' use of Technology,* the author discusses principles by characterizing three research purposes: description, interpretation, and evaluation. Further research in applied linguistics such as classroom's dialogue analysis and language assessment suggests methodological viewpoints for management in search for procedure data. The chapter also discusses technology-mediated language learning tasks.

The fifth chapter**,** *Advancing Applied linguistics: L2 learning tasks,* is based on the materials presented at the American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL). The book discusses the study of any level of the linguistic system which has been changed because of technology. At the discourse level, technology affected the linguistic system and imported many new electronic registers and terms into the language. Grammar has been affected seriously by computer-assisted methods through corpus linguistics.

In the sixth chapter, *Advancing applied linguistics: Assessment,* the author discusses technology-mediated language assessment growth that can be cleaned aside by the broom of efficiency. If design problems are considered on the basis of the most practical way to test and score with the only criterion being correlated with other measures, there is no time or place for theoretical issues of concept definition. Also, the author suggested that students need to develop an understanding of fundamental issues and perceptions in applied linguistics. The author in this chapter stated that the technical world of ELT and applied linguistics during this chapter illustrated on theories for applied linguistics that has been advanced over many years of study and preparation.

In the seventh chapter as the final chapter, the *Imperative for Applied Linguistics and Technology,* the author tried to make a connection between technology and applied linguistics. While much can be learned about technology and technology uses the finding of other disciplines, applied linguistics and technology cannot be taught separately from each other, i.e., as something to be added on after the academic content and technical information of applied linguistics. Teachers should learn to use computer technology for building and applying materials in teaching and assessing English, and it is necessary for them to participate in innovative training and assessments through the use of technology. The author used a diversity of terms to signify technology in applied linguistics, containing technology-simplified tasks, and computer-simplified communication, computer-assisted language learning, and other connections.

According to the author, three circumstances are reported to be influential: Firstly, technology development, which has made it possible to design complicated and sophisticated computerized language learning programs; secondly, the generation of language learners grown up with computers and their computer literacy as well as tech appreciation; thirdly, the improvement of CALL, which has had an articulation influence on language learning. Hence,

computer-assisted language learning (CALL) along with Computer-Assisted Assessment (CAA) is persistent to develop in the near future and it is developing even now.

Finally, everybody interested in English through a combination of knowledge about applied Linguistics and technology, will really get benefit from this valuable book. The content is so educational and attractive that almost every learner of English will find some meaningful and relevant pieces of text in the book. The book is particularly good for applied linguists who engage more consciously and proactively with the complex language-technology reality in which the profession is working. We will strongly recommend you to study the book, since it rightly argues that the contents of both applied linguistics and technology are important for the profession and unlikely to be investigated, understood, and developed by those who are concerned with either applied linguistics or technology separately. Because the world of today is the world of technology and applied linguistics.