ELT

ELT:
Converging Approaches and Challenges

Edited by

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PREFACE

This volume represents an outgrowth of the VIIth international ATECR conference, the conference of the association of Czech teachers of English, which brought together researchers and educators from fields as diverse as language teaching in a variety of contexts, corpus linguistics or literary studies.

The conference theme was ELT – 'Sharing Innovative Ideas and Experience', however, from the experience of the conference and from the first-hand impression of the contributions of our colleagues, we took the liberty to name the volume *ELT: Converging Approaches and Challenges*. We want to express that among the numerous conference contributions we find - despite their diversity - a strong common denominator: to bundle efforts and unify parameters in order to optimize English Language Teaching as a world-wide endeavor. The diversity in this effort gives rise to some of the optimism that we felt over the course of the conference. The synergy effects that are created by bringing together people united in this effort could be seen in the popularity of the keynote-speeches, the well-attended workshops and talks and the informal conversations over coffee. Thus, for our teaching it can only be beneficial when linguists talk to literary-minded teachers or methodology specialists investigate whether their theoretical underpinnings make their way into practice by talking to language instructors or language service providers. It further helps when all these practitioners can get in close contact with textbook-publishing houses. They also helped make this event a success.

The volume that emerged from the conference is structured in three main parts and a special section on shorter contributions that include comments and reviews. In general, the authors present a multifaceted picture of the English Language teaching context with themselves as practitioners but also as investigators and researchers at the same time, therefore representing action research (AR) in its most applied sense, as brought forward most recently, among others, by Burns, 2010.[1] The research that reflects back on their teaching thus creates a force-feedback loop not only for the investigating scholar but also for the practicing

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[1] cf. Burns, A. (2010). *Doing Action Research in English Language Teaching. A Guide for Practitioners*. New York: Routledge.

instructor who reapplies his/her knowledge after failed or suboptimal attempts as evidenced by the data.

The linguistic section heads this volume due to the impressive empirical weight that these studies brought to the field and because it is the most international section. The approaches presented here range from corpus studies to elicitation tests. This starts with an article by Matthias Hofmann who elaborates on phonological features in a variety of English spoken by second language learners – Cameroon English (CamE). The study shows in detail how a community of non-native speakers (Cameroon is up to 4/5 French-speaking) develops strategies of English. It sheds some light on the role of English in a globalizing world and of English as a lingua franca not only in an Euro-centric contest but perhaps even more so in nations around the globe. Furthermore, this article describes technologies of analysis that links the linguistics section with the methodologists specializing on e-learning later in the volume. Tammy Gregersen's study is a classic example of a look at traditionally neglected paralinguistic features – non-verbal cues as a beneficial method to instruction in a classroom-setting. Manvender Kaur describes a syntactic approach to corpus research in a learner corpus of speakers of English as a second language in Malaysia. This paper is helpful from a methodological as well as linguistic point of view as it details the corpus compilation as well as the syntactic analysis. It further represents a look at an Asian variety, thus complementing the West-African variety at the beginning of the volume. Lenka Slunečková's paper looks at word-order problems of Czech students in an ESP context and makes suggestions to ameliorate these problems through a better integration into the curriculum. The contribution by Christoph Haase links similar second-language learner characteristics to academic writing in a comparative study of German and Czech learners. SLA is also the topic of Azizollah Dabaghi's study of corrective feedback. The comprehensive survey of Iranian students demonstrates the correlation between feedback and learner output in impressive empirical clarity.

The literary section is relatively short and headed by Joel Head's observations of the relevance of religious background knowledge for reading literature. Pavla Machová, Michal Pištora and Olga Vraštilová focus on the creative use of Dr. Seuss' works in the primary classroom and make substantial suggestions for activities. For a more mature target audience, Natalia Orlova's study of using the EPOSTL for pre-service teachers introduces the methodology section which forms an extensive third part of this volume. Yıldıray Çevik's article is mainly interested in testing philosophies and the application of communicative teaching under a helpful use vs. usage distinction. A different route is suggested by Lada

Klímová and her look at the integration of translation in philological and non-philological study programs. An interesting alternative in materials development is offered in Daniela Marková's Webquests and their use at lower secondary schools, backed by empirical research. Further technological questions are addressed in a group of papers that follows. This starts with Aleksandra Grebenshchikova's and Lilia Nefiodova's competence-raising through information-communication technologies, continues with Jana Pavlíková's survey of the use of the interactive whiteboard, sidesteps technologies in favor of economizing class management in Zuzana Procházková's concept ideas and further ideas of innovation in Blanka Babická`s and Josef Nevaril`s listening skills study. Steven Schwartzhoff demonstrates the use of free multimedia applications in the "Story of Stuff" whereas Hana Suchánková is more interested in the intercultural competences of her students. An unconventional approach to textbook-writing is offered by James Thomas in a look at the creation of his award-winning "Global issues in the ELT classroom". Anežka Lengálová analyses the process of MA-thesis writing and suggests a helpful step-by-step manual. Finally, the volume ends with an outlook to the perspectives of e-learning by Lyudmila Chikileva and two reviews by Jana Richterová and Kateřina Šteklová.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNER PHONOLOGY: ESL SPEAKERS IN CAMEROON

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The article focuses on the pronunciation of educated Cameroonian speakers of English and strives to present the phonetic characteristics of Cameroon English. The speech samples contain the reading "Arthur the Rat" and a word list, which help to reveal pronunciation differences of learners of English as a Second Language (ESL). The article provides a brief introduction to the language situation in Cameroon and continues with the analyzed data and fundamentals of phonetics necessary to analyze vowels and consonants with software, such as Speech Analyzer. It concludes with the results of the analysis, which may be used as a basis for implementation in teaching pronunciation in an ESL class room.

1. English in Cameroon

Cameroon is a predominantly Francophone country with two comparatively small Anglophone provinces. Within the latter, the educated Anglophone Cameroonian speaks Cameroon English (CamE) as opposed to Cameroon Pidgin English, spoken by much larger sections of the population. Bobda (2008:115) defines 'educated' Cameroonians as university graduates and professionals. I extend this definition to include university students as well, since they are about to graduate. Bobda (ibid) further states that CamE is a stable and homogeneous variety, despite some ethnic and cultural variation, which may be due to the small size of the Anglophone population. Three million people live in two Anglophone provinces and constitute 20 per cent of the country's total population.

Although there are only few people that speak English in Cameroon, it is one of two official languages along with French (Wolf 2001:180). However, English only serves as a Lingua Franca among educated

speakers in the Anglophone provinces. It is also not officially taught in schools outside of the Anglophone provinces, as the government refuses to support bilingualism (ibid:138). A strong French dominance and appreciation is visible throughout the whole country. So it seems fair to say that English as a means of communication in Cameroon is marginal (ibid:149), since I cannot go into the complexities of its sociolinguistics in Cameroon here.

2.   CamE Speech Samples

The files I analyzed were recorded by former colleagues of the Department of English Language and Linguistics at Chemnitz University of Technology. In total, 21 speakers (7 female and 14 male) were invited to participate in recorded interviews, which consisted of three sections. First, a brief biographical part, where the informants filled in the gaps on their personal background, which was also written down in the recording sheet that accompanied each recording; second, the simplified story of "Arthur the Rat"; and third, half a page of isolated words that had been considered distinctive for African accents of English (Schmied 1991a) and had been used to characterize national and sub-national features in Kenya before (Schmied 1991b). They were adapted only marginally to Cameroon English pronunciation, but contained several words twice, in isolation and in minimal pairs that might draw the reader's attention to specific pronunciation "problems", as they were usually called by Cameroonian ESL speakers.

The quality of the samples varied from very poor to acceptable. The recordings were made by Josef Schmied and Anne Schröder in 1999 during their fieldwork in various schools, universities and offices in Cameroon, where no adequate recording facilities were available. The low quality samples had quite loud background noises, which may distort analysis by *Speech Analyzer* (SIL International 2006). The majority of the samples were of good quality. Speech samples appropriate for phonetic analysis require a very quiet environment and professional recording equipment, such as a field recorder and a good microphone. Once the samples have been recorded, an improvement of sound sample quality is usually not possible, as the speech analysis software may calculate unreliable values for spectrographic and spectral analyses.

3. Speaker Backgrounds

The speakers were university students, teachers, and professors. One of the speakers was 15 years of age and another one was 53 years of age, but the majority of them were in their 20s to 30s. The amount of years speakers have learnt English ranged similarly from 1 to 46 with an average of 25 years. The sample was comprised of a variety of regions speakers were socialized in, such as the Northwest and Southwest, and of first languages that may influence their pronunciation, such as *Nkambe* and *Ngemba* (cf. Lewis 2009).

4. Reading Materials

"Arthur the Rat" was originally used by Cassidy for the *Dictionary of American Regional English* (1985-2002), and has since been employed as an elicitation method for vowels and consonants in different linguistic environments. It was designed to elicit all important pronunciation variants of native English speakers (University of Wisconsin-Madison 2010).

Word lists generally serve the very same purpose as texts, but with a much more specific focus on pronunciation issues, e.g., devoicing of affricates, as opposed to listening through a whole passage of free speech and waiting for the pronunciation variant in question to occur in the desired linguistic environment. In carefully choosing the words for analysis, linguists ensure that the pronunciation variant in question occurs in a, e.g., stressed, preconsonantal/postvocalic position and – if required – precedes its tense/lax vowel counterpart (e.g. *food* vs. *good*). Single words are most clearly analyzable and are read with much more focusing than texts. Hence, reading word lists is also the most unnatural way of speaking, which may be more or less problematic, depending on the theoretical framework of the analysis.

Reading texts and word lists can be challenging for learners of English, as they may stumble across unknown words. Such stumbling may perhaps cause feelings of insecurity which could result in pronunciation patterns that do not reflect the real competence of the respondents. It is therefore advisable to adjust the difficulty of the texts to the level of English of the respondents. Compare "Arthur the Rat" from the Alternative English Usage Archive (2010) to the text used in Schmied (1991b):

> One rainy day, the rats heard a great noise in the loft. The pine rafters were all rotten, so that the barn was rather unsafe. At last the joists gave way and fell to the ground. The walls shook […]. (AUE Archive, n.p.)

One rainy day, the rats heard a great noise in the loft where they lived. The pine walls shook […]. (Schmied 1991b)

After the respondents have read the texts and word lists, the resulting large sound files have to be segmented into smaller, analyzable units with software such as *Audacity* (2009), which is available as freeware. Segmentation into one word or sentence is only necessary when the analysis is carried out with *Speech Analyzer*. The program was developed for students by the Summer Institute of Linguistics (2006) and is also available free of charge. With large sound files, the program calculates wrong formant values at the end of the respective sample. It is thus not as accurate as *Praat*, which is also freeware (Boersma & Weenink 2009), but for students, *Speech Analyzer*'s graphic user interface is much more convenient to work with. It performs fundamental frequency, spectrographic and spectral analysis, and duration measurements.

5.   Spectrograms

In order to determine differences in pronunciation, especially vowel quality, phoneticians work with spectrograms. As Figure 1 illustrates, a spectrogram consists of a vertical axis, showing frequency, a horizontal axis, showing time, and dark shaded areas, showing intensity or energy as, e.g., caused by voicing.
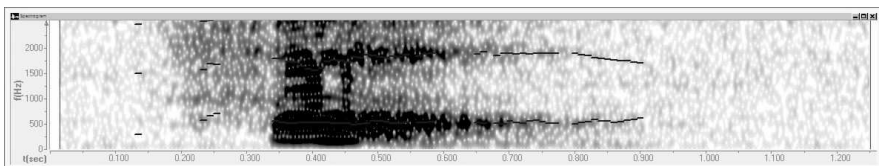
Fig. 1: *Speech Analyzer* spectrogram of the word *fair*, including formant tracks

The vibrations of the vocal folds release little bursts of air which generate a sound wave. The rate or the bursts per second determine the frequency of the sound wave in Hertz (Hz), so that 100 openings and shuttings of the vocal folds per second generate a sound wave of 100 Hz. We perceive this frequency as the pitch of a voice and can distinguish a female voice from a male voice by identifying the former more high-pitched than the latter. Once the vocal cords have created a simple sound wave by vibration, it has to pass through the pharynx and the mouth, nose or both. These cavities act as resonators, which means that they subdue some and reinforce other frequencies. Such resonances form complex

sound waves and are called hence formants. Since these formants are determined by the size and shape of the cavities, they differ between individuals and have unique values for each person (Catford 1990:162).

Each cardinal vowel (language independent, reference vowel qualities; Ashby & Maidment 2005:77) can be characterized by a range of formants, e.g. F1 to F5, but only the first two to three formants are necessary to distinguish vowels from one another. Higher formants are usually only important in music. Cardinal vowel #1 can be characterized by mean values of F1 of 240 Hz and F2 of 2,400 Hz in Received Pronunciation (cf. Fig. 2). In a spectrogram, we can see the formants as high intensity areas (dark shaded). The lines in Figure 1 represent *Speech Analyzer*'s calculated formant values for the diphthong /eə/.

The tongue and lip configuration for each vowel shape the mouth and pharynx into a resonator system that has certain formant frequencies characteristic of that vowel. For example for C1, the tongue is in high front position, the lips are unrounded, and the velum closes the nasal cavity.

Figure 2 illustrates the positions of the 16 cardinal vowels in the vowel quadrilateral. The image was taken from *Speech Analyzer*'s transcription editor. The first subset of the vowels begins in top left position with [i] as cardinal vowel one down to [a] as cardinal vowel four. It continues with the bottom right vowel [ɑ] (#5) and ends with [u] (#8). Vowels 1 to 5 are unrounded and 6 to 8 are rounded. The second subset [y, ø, œ, ɒ, ʌ, ɣ, ɯ] of cardinal vowels is related to the first one by the reversed lip posture, so for example [i] is close, front, unrounded and [y] is close, front, rounded, resulting in cardinal vowel 9 to 16, respectively (Ashby & Maidment 2005:78).

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one
to the right represents a rounded vowel.
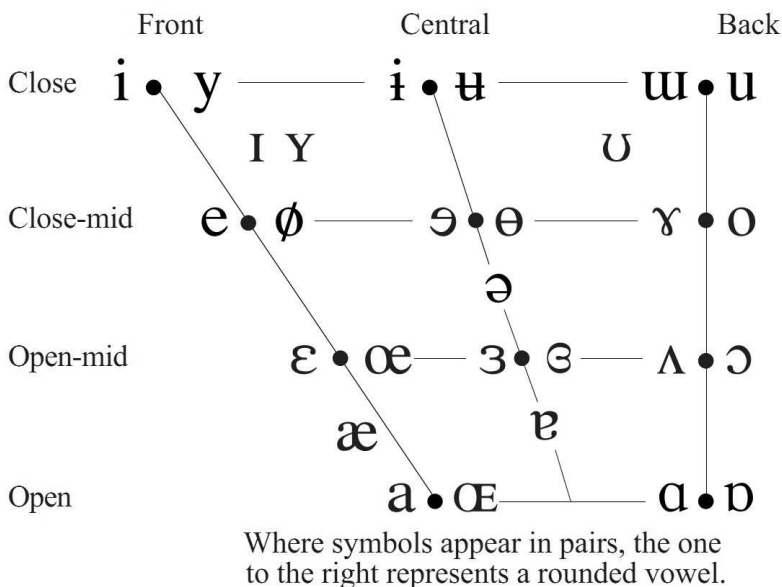
Fig. 2: Vowel quadrilateral from Speech Analyzer

The first formant distinguishes close or high from open or low vowels. Formant two distinguishes between front, central, and back vowels. It usually has lower values for rounded vowels (Catford 1990:162). When the two formants are plotted in a chart (F1 vs. F2), their position roughly corresponds to the cardinal vowels' position in Figure 2.

6.   Results

6.1 Monophthongs

The close-mid, front vowel [e] is lowered to open-mid, front position, so that, e.g., [ten] *ten* and [ðen] *then* are realized as [tɛn] and [dɛn], respectively. Lax [ɪ] is replaced by tense [i], including length distinctions. Thus, the minimal pair *bit - beat* is pronounced with the vowel quality of [i], but in the first word its duration is shorter than in the second word of the pair.

In bi-syllabic words in RP, the second syllable is unstressed, which frequently results in a reduction of the syllable's vowel to [ə]. Hence, RP

speakers usually reduce the second vowel of the words [ʌðə] *other* and [ʌdə] *udder* to a lax, mid-central vowel, schwa. Speakers of CamE, however, use a full vowel in word-final, unstressed syllables, e.g. [ʌdʌ] *other* and [ʌdʌ] *udder*. In general, my data showed no instances of the short vowels [ɪ, ə, ʊ]. The vowel in, for example, *good* is realized with the same quality as the vowel in *food*, namely as [guːd] and [fuːd], respectively.

Rounded open-mid, back vowel [ɔ] occurs inconsistently. It is replaced by the unrounded counterpart [ʌ]. Thus, [sɔːt] *sought* and [tɔːt] *taught* are realized as [sʌt] and [tʌt]. Low, back [ɑ] is fronted or centralized to [a] or even fronted and raised to [ɛ] in, e.g., *heart* resulting in [hat] and [hɛt].

6.2 Diphthongs

Out of four diphthongs [aɪ, eɪ, əʊ, eə], only the first one was retained, so that *pirate* and *pilot* are realized as [paɪrət] and [paɪlət], respectively. Interestingly, [eɪ] is monophthongized to either [e] or sometimes even [ɪ], although lax [ɪ] does not occur as a pure monophthong. Thus, we have, e.g., *male* and *mail* realized as [mɪl]. The RP diphthong [əʊ] is monophthongized to [o], as in [əgo] *ago*, and [eə] is monophthongized and subsequently lowered, as in [fɛ] *fair*.

6.3 Consonants

One of the most prominent findings of the analysis was that word-final, voiceless plosives are aspirated: [rætʰ] *rat* and [mekʰ] *make*. In other instances, word-final, voiceless, alveolar plosives were realized as dental ([sʌt̪] *sought*), or even apical ([paɪrɪt̪] *pirate*) plosives.

CamE is a non-rhotic variety of English, which has trilled /r/ sounds in intervocalic position, as in [orindʒ] *orange*.

A very common feature that is shared with many other (vernacular) varieties of English is the pronunciation of the interdental fricatives /θ, ð/ as [t, d], especially in word-medial and word-final position, as already illustrated above in some examples.

The affricate /dʒ/ is devoiced, as in, for example, [tʃɛːni] *journey*, and devoicing also occurs in the post-alveolar fricative /ʒ/ so that [plɛʃo] is *pleasure*.

7. Conclusion

I hope to have shown that it is relatively easy today to use publically available software to analyze pronunciation features of English users in various parts of the world. Although the recorded sounds are not always ideal, they give us insights into the learners "problems" and it is for us to

decide whether we want to develop specific teaching routines to eradicate these features as "embarrassing" or "uneducated" or whether we can accept them as national features that may have to be taught in courses of world English today. In any case, the phonetic basis needs to be explored thoroughly, before we can make such sociolinguistic and pedagogical conclusions in our institutions of higher education in Europe or Africa.

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Uncovering Affect through Nonverbal Cues: Making Effective Instructional Choices

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Learning a foreign language is more than just an intellectual or cognitive endeavor; it also engages our emotional and psychological selves. Being an effective language teacher involves understanding how these processes work and identifying students who could benefit from modifications in instructional strategies, classroom techniques and the selection of methods to mitigate any negative influences that may be present. One manner in which this identification may occur is through careful attention to a language learner's non-verbal cues. This paper will begin by demonstrating the important role of affect in foreign language learning, focusing mainly on the situation specific variable of anxiety. Subsequently, nonverbal features that identify learners suffering from FL anxiety will be identified. Finally, various proposals for creating learner-friendly, anxiety-free language classrooms will be presented.

…to learn to think and speak in another language is to change one's mind forever, forever to make it impossible to be locked into a single perspective or a single way to hear speech, music, or meaning. It is to be made forever aware that one is not alone, that one's way is not the only way; but also that one's own way has depth and riches and ties to one's identity that might not have appeared had they not been illuminated by the prism of another language. (Donald Friedman).

1. Introduction

What excites me so much about this insightful idea is how it illuminates the "human-ness," the relationship-building, which second languages afford to those who pursue them. It leaves behind the notion of

language learning as an academic, cognitive endeavor and reveals the emotional, psychological and identity-building facets of using language to communicate with and among others. It demonstrates that language is inextricably bound up in virtually every aspect of human behavior. While on the one hand this is an exciting notion, on the other, as language teachers and teacher educators, it puts us in the precarious position of understanding our language learners as individuals, each with different needs, goals and emotional and psychological reactions to the language learning process. In fact, according to Brown (1981), the affective domain is one of the most important facets of human behavior that governs a learner's success. Research points to the crucial nature of affective factors in foreign language acquisition and it appears that at least unsuccessful language learning can be largely attributed to affective blocks of various kinds. It is important then, to understand those affective factors that either facilitate or prevent foreign language learning and to look for ways to diminish the negative effects of those factors.

Although there are many different affective factors influencing language, anxiety can be one of the most debilitating. Therefore, it behooves the conscientious educator to investigate the ways and means of identifying learners who struggle with anxiety and to modify instructional strategies, classroom techniques and the selection of methods to mitigate negative influence. To begin, I will point out how negative affect, particularly foreign language anxiety adversely influences the language learning process. Next, I will demonstrate how nonverbal cues can be an effective way of identifying which learners are struggling with it, and finally I would like to suggest a few proposals for creating learner-friendly, anxiety-reduced language classrooms, including a focus on teacher immediacy behavior.

2. Anxiety: The Havoc It Can Wreak

I want you to take a moment to think about how you project yourself in your second language as compared to your first. I happen to speak English as my first language, and butcher Spanish as my second. If you are at all like me, you probably consider yourself quite articulate in your first language (at least as compared to your second)….kind of funny….sort of intelligent….authentically you. However, at least for me in Spanish, my jokes are not quite as funny, my intelligence is probably questionable, and the self I communicate in Spanish, is somehow not the same person I am in English. It is this very cognizance of the inability to authentically communicate who you are in your first language when using your second

language that is the impetus for foreign language anxiety. When these feelings are debilitating, learners are apprehensive about communicating, fear negative evaluation and suffer from text anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope 1986).

This self-realization would not be so bad if the manifestations of it were not so influential in the language learning classroom. For example, have you ever had any of your learners freeze up during oral classroom activities, experience memory loss, or participate minimally? (Ely 1986; Horwitz et al. 1986). Maybe you have learners who do not handle language errors as effectively as others (Gregersen 2003) or who have the tendency to engage in negative self-talk and brood over poor performance which then affects their information-processing abilities (MacIntyre & Gardner 1991). Do some of your learners exhibit avoidance behaviors by skipping class or putting off assignments or who might have unrealistic, high personal performance standards (Gregersen & Horwitz 2003)? Ultimately all of these effects may culminate in lower proficiency and course grades. All of these scenarios have been experienced by language learners the world over and have been documented in the literature on foreign language anxiety.

I was propelled into studying anxiety and other affective factors very early in my language teaching career. I was teaching at a university in the north of Chile and discovered that my students were very image-conscious and reticent about participating orally in class. Most of them had the belief that everything they needed to say had to be said correctly the first time. This resulted in their inability to put themselves out there, take risks, and test out their hypotheses about how they thought the language worked. I wanted spontaneity. I wanted students to have fun with the language, but I kept hitting these affective walls. I was particularly aware of how certain anxious students would respond ineffectively to error correction. I also noticed that the way I configured groups, whether I chose to have whole group discussions or small group interactions, influenced how and to what degree students would participate.

3. Identifying Your Learners

To do what really needed to be done for these learners, I first needed to identify who they were. I decided to start by observing. Understanding the differences between how anxious and non-anxious foreign language students communicate nonverbally gives teachers a starting point for identifying which students are struggling with FL anxiety so that appropriate anxiety reduction measures can be taken. The efficacy of

visual observation lies in the notion that while the verbal channel is optimal for imparting ideas, the nonverbal mode is considered more effective for conveying feelings and emotions (Berko, Rosenfeld & Samavar 1997; cited in Kang 2000). Also, individuals have little conscious control over their nonverbal behavior. As the vast majority of nonverbal behaviors are spontaneous, they are comparatively free of distortion or deception, especially relative to the more manipulable verbal messages (Berko et al. 1997; cited in Kang 2000). Take for example the anxious student who says, "I'm not nervous about this presentation, Dr. Gregersen," and then stands behind the podium quaking in her shoes, twisting her hair, and looking everywhere but at the audience while maintaining a deadpan facial expression.

In an observation study that I did a couple of years ago, I observed anxious and non-anxious language learners during a videotaped oral foreign language exam. Focusing primarily on the kinesic, or body language found in facial expressions, gazing behavior, body movement and gesture, and posture, I discovered that anxious learners used less facial expression (particularly with their eye brows and smiles), maintained less eye contact, were more rigid and closed in their posture, and used their hands differently. The anxious students, for example, self-touched and manipulated objects more, while the non-anxious used gestures to enhance the meaning of their utterances through speech-related gestures (Gregersen 2005). If not totally comprehensive, at least the observation of the nonverbal cues of our language learners can be a good place to begin the identification process.

4. Possible Solutions to the Creation of Learner-Friendly Classrooms

Among the strategies and techniques that researchers have given to combat the ills of FL anxiety are to create student support systems and to utilize selective, affective error correction techniques (Gregersen 2003). Developing realistic expectations (Price 1991) and increasing feelings of self-efficacy (Pappamihiel 2002) are also helpful. Researchers also encourage teachers to focus on the message rather than on accuracy (Price 1991) and to reinforce positive experiences (MacIntyre & Gardner 1991). Teachers who give careful consideration to the assessment formats used to evaluate linguistic proficiency (Madsen et al. 1991) and who plan activities which include small groups or one-on-one activities instead of whole groups will also find students who are less anxious and more willing to participate. Furthermore, we need to remind students of the

instructional value of making mistakes. Beyond these specific ideas, few FL anxiety researchers would debate the importance of giving learners a great deal of encouragement and positive reinforcement (Price 1991) and being aware of classroom climate (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope 1986). The question is how teachers can do this most effectively.

This is where I want to introduce the concept of "immediacy." Immediacy refers to communicative behaviors that reduce the physical or psychological distance between individuals and foster affiliation. It is linked to the approach and avoidance construct — the proposition that people generally approach things they like and avoid things they dislike or that induce fear (Mehrabian 1971). Teachers who are immediate are those who students feel close to; people who students feel they can connect with.

Scholars have identified a range of nonverbal and verbal behaviors that communicate immediacy. Immediacy includes nonlinguistic approach behaviors, signals of availability for communication, and communication of interpersonal closeness. Nonverbal immediacy behaviors include reducing physical distance, displaying relaxed postures and movements, using gestures, smiling, using vocal variety, and engaging in eye contact during interactions. Verbal immediacy behaviors include using personal examples, asking questions, using humor, addressing others by name, praising others, initiating discussion and using inclusive pronouns like "we" instead of "I" (Gorham 1988). These recommendations may seem somewhat simplistic, but consider these two examples: Which speaker would you have more positive feelings for? Speaker Number One is standing comfortably in front of the podium, gesturing as she speaks, smiling, making eye contact and saying, "Ok, You all did very well in your dyads today as you were working on your role plays. Now, how can we make the homework for tomorrow more meaningful for you? Would you prefer to work with a partner or alone?" Compare that speaker with Number Two who is standing stiffly behind the podium, hands rigidly grabbing the corners, frowning and looking out the back window while saying, "I insist that you do the fill-in-the blank exercises for tomorrow. I have already gone over how those tenses must be conjugated. Work alone and get it right the first time." When considering the verbal and nonverbal cues employed by the two sample teachers, it is not difficult to perceive that learners' affect would be influenced more positively with the more "immediate" teacher.

5. Conclusion

Carl Jung once said, "One looks back with appreciation to the brilliant teachers, but with gratitude to those who touched our human feelings. The curriculum is so much necessary raw material, but warmth is the vital element for the growing plant and for the soul of the learner." When we look back at the language teachers who were the most influential in our learning, it will probably be those who approached their task with an understanding of how affect and emotion were inextricably intertwined with the language they were teaching. What we do in the classroom is much more than transmitting the information about how verbs are conjugated, but rather it is about understanding our language learners as individuals, identifying their needs, and making choices not only about *what* to teach, but *how* to teach it.

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