New Methodological Approaches to Foreign Language Teaching

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Edited by

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INTRODUCTION

This volume brings together a number of studies by a series of authors in the common field of foreign language teaching that explore how the traditional academic disciplines of Applied Linguistics, Linguistics, Translation, Literature and Cultural Studies can contribute to or be integrated into the teaching of a foreign language by means of innovative methodologies, techniques and instruments used in different language learning and teaching contexts. The chapters deal with the teaching of the four most widely spoken foreign languages in the European Union: English, French, German, and Spanish.[1] It is the aim of this book to give to the foreign language teaching profession an opportunity for the sharing and comparison of strategies across languages as well as across levels, since the studies comprehend teaching contexts in primary, secondary and higher education.

The volume opens with a first section of articles by scholars in Applied Linguistics that share some significant insights and findings in the context of second/foreign language acquisition. After an opening chapter with an innovative approach to teaching German manner verbs through Cognitive Linguistics, the second chapter offers a framework for the evaluation of vocabulary activities in the foreign language classroom. This is followed by an analysis of the effectiveness of cued and free recall techniques when assessing the acquisition of L2 vocabulary. The following chapters offer new perspectives on the teaching of articles in second languages and the measuring of the communicative academic performance of children by considering their Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency. In the next chapter the true communicative use of language in the English as a foreign language classroom is put to the test through the analysis of a Spanish coursebook in terms of implicit versus explicit learning. Then, the subsequent review analyses the current situation of foreign language teaching in primary school levels across Europe in order to compare the projects in different countries. This first section finishes with a vindication of videogames as educational tools and the proposal of their use for the teaching of specialized terminology.

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[1] European Commission (2012), *Special Eurobarometer 386. Europeans and Their Languages*, p. 19. http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_386_en.pdf

The chapters in the second section of the book adopt a more linguistic perspective and offer the point of view of translation studies too. The first article introduces a new tool to extract specialized lexical units from domain-specific corpora to be used in different languages, which enables teachers and students to check word frequency, concordances and collocations. The next paper demonstrates how the requirements for an English for specific purposes university course for high-achieving students can be met by a new approach implementing problem-based learning with the explicit support of new technological means. New technologies are also the basis for the subsequent study, which from a corpus-based analysis of computer-mediated communication offers a detailed description of the concept of *stage directions* and their potential use for the teaching of pragmatics. This is followed by a study that considers the pedagogical value of commissioning real translation orders to students of translation studies, given all their different requirements and quality demands; this project is accompanied by a qualitative survey of students' opinions on motivation and learning effects. The following chapter proposes the use of a corpus of informal dialogues between students for the teaching of cultural and colloquial aspects in foreign language classrooms, in this case for learners of Spanish language.

While the next chapter advocates for the use of so-called pedagogical translation in oral mediation activities for English for specific purposes, planning a whole program of activities for its use in the classroom, another corpus-driven study recommends the introduction of concordance software into the linguistics classroom with the purpose of analysing and classifying metaphor instantiations in literary texts. Also corpus-based is the following essay, which analyses different automatic text correctors in Spanish and puts forward its own program based on bigrams as a tool for providing useful information, self-correction and self-learning opportunities to the final user. The last article in this second section reviews the competences acquired by students of translation and interpretation studies and their appropriateness for their incorporation to the job market.

In the third part of the book cultural contexts and literary texts are taken into account when teaching language. This section starts with an enquiry on the attitudes of native and non-native speakers of Spanish towards different regional varieties of this language and the possible implications of this bias when creating and selecting teaching materials. The following three chapters introduce visual art and literary works in the foreign language classroom not only to help language learning but as tools to raise students' awareness of cultural and intertextual dynamics and to improve their critical skills; they present introductory classroom-oriented

frameworks for analysis and critical reflection. Literature and translation are combined in the next chapter, which makes use of the translation of literary texts in teaching and learning French as a foreign language with exercises wherein special analysis is done on archaisms and spelling, use of capital letters, syntax and verb use. The next two pedagogical proposals defend both innovative approaches for the integration of the teaching of literature and foreign language teaching: one for French through project-based learning and its different benefits for learners, the other by means of creative writing in English. The volume closes with a last methodological approach for Spanish as a foreign language, which brings cinema into the classroom as the medium to both improve the language knowledge of students and to help them understand and handle different concepts–such as memory, trauma, disobedience, or authority–that are fundamental for the construction of the contemporary Spanish female identity.

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Thomas H. Schmidt

PART I

APPLIED LINGUISTIC INSIGHTS

CHAPTER ONE

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND TEACHING
OF CONCEPTUAL COMPETENCE IN L2:
THE CASE OF MOTION EVENTS[1]

MOIKEN JESSEN AND FERRÁN SUÑER

1. Introduction

Have you ever heard of false friends in the language classroom? Some examples such as *library* and *librería (Spanish for bookshop)* may come to your mind. False friends are an extreme example of how in two languages in similar looking words there is no overlap between the meanings of the two words. However, translation equivalents often represent a kind of false friend, too. Their assumed equivalence does not really exist. For example, Spanish *caminar* and English *walk* do not mean quite the same thing. As we shall see, they differ with respect to the actual situations they are used in. They are used to express related but different concepts of motion.

We all move each and every day. In the morning we roll out of bed, drag ourselves to work and rush home in the evening. Due to their physical ubiquity, all languages seem to have the preconditions to express motion events. According to Talmy's motion typology, the languages of the world can be split into two groups depending on where they code the conceptual basis of each motion event, the "Path" (Talmy, 2000). A Path is understood by Talmy as the route described by a figure when it moves in space. Some languages encode the Path in the verb (V-Languages), others in a morphosyntactic form outside the verb, a so-called Satellite (S-Languages). S-Languages have a large inventory of verbs that describe a

figure's manner of motion (e.g. *sausen*, *hüpfen, schleichen,* etc). These verbs are difficult to translate to Spanish, since Spanish is a V-language and V-Languages do not have many verbs of manner of motion. V-languages have a comparably larger inventory of verbs that describe the Path of the motion of a figure, so-called Path Verbs (e.g. Slobin, 1996, 2003). Examples (1) and (2) illustrate this language pattern. These typologically motivated differences pose a challenge to the learner who has to figure out the different encoding strategies for the conceptual basis (cf. Cadierno, 2010).

(1) German (S-Language)
Die Affen gehen um den Baum herum.
'The monkeys go/walk around the tree'
(2) Turkish (V-Language)
Maymunlar ağacın etrafında dönüyor.
'Monkeys circle a tree'

To understand what it means to acquire these differences, we have to understand how the language-specific patterns are acquired with the first language. During the acquisition process of their first language a child learns which information can be selected for linguistic coding. From this recurring linguistic coding there result a number of routines in the selection of information to be conveyed. The repetitions then lead to cognitive or linguistic routines that are later schematized as conceptualization patterns (Langacker, 2013). For Slobin (1996) this means that speakers of a language are trained, through the characteristics of these patterns, to a specific type of information selection. Such a routine focus on codable information leads, in turn, to an attention deficit regarding non-codable information. For speakers of an S-Language, attention in motion events is focused on the type of movement. In contrast, this aspect of the motion event is often not coded in V-Languages. It is therefore assumed that speakers of V-Languages pay less attention to this aspect (Slobin, 2003, 2004b).

With each verbalization of experiences, scenes, etc., speakers select a specific view of the world so that language functions in certain ways as a type of information filter. A speaker's filter function strongly depends on the language-specific characteristics of their first language. This "thinking-for-speaking" is a speaking- and language-dependent conceptualization process (Slobin, 1997, 2004a).

These language-dependent conceptualization patterns represent a firmly anchored cognitive routine (cf. Lieven & Tomasello, 2008) and are assumed

to provide a certain resistance towards change, as might become necessary in the acquisition of conceptualization patterns in a new L2. In the research literature it has been hypothesized that the conceptualization patterns of the first language remain the basis for information selection processes in the second language (Cadierno, 2004; Cadierno, 2008; Robinson & Ellis, 2008). This means that L2-learners are often tempted to link a distinct meaning in their first language with the words of the new language (cf. Danesi, 2008). Quite often, the meanings of two words in different languages seem similar. However, even if an overlap of meaning between the two languages exists, it is usually much smaller than anticipated. This is shown in a number of interesting studies about the naming of various objects in different languages (Pavlenko & Malt, 2011; Ameel, Storms, Malt & Sloman, 2005; Malt, Sloman, Gennari, Shi & Wang, 1999). In English the two terms *cup* and *glass* encompass most of the objects one can drink from. The case for Russian is somewhat more complicated:

> Russian, on the other hand, provides names encoding more specific distinctions in terms of shape, size and function. Chashka favors small containers with handles used for hot drinks, bokal/fuzher tall containers, with or without a stem, used for alcoholic drinks, and riumka/stopka small containers, with or without a stem, used for hard liquor. Stakan seems to name the broadest, most diverse of the Russian categories, referring to containers made of a variety of materials and used for either hot or cold drinks. (Pavlenko & Malt, 2011, p. 14)

In the English use of late bilinguals with Russian as L1 Pavlenko and Malt find an influence of Russian on the naming of drinking containers. Such influences on the conceptual level are not only observable for lexical entities and their associated concepts. To give another example: *rain* is conceptualized in German or English as a container (*ich stehe im Regen*, 'I stand in the rain') and in French as an entity above us (fr. *je marche sous la plouie*, 'I walk under the rain') (cf. Evans & Tyler, 2005).The same applies to concepts that are not reflected in lexical forms, but rather in grammatic forms (e.g. Schmiedtová, von Stutterheim & Carroll, 2011; Bylund, Athanasopoulos & Oostendorp, 2013; von Stutterheim, Andermann, Carroll, Flecken & Schmiedtová, 2012).

In the remainder of this article, we will see some cases where the conceptual differences in the encoding of motion events gives rise to challenges for the learners. We will present some ideas as to how one can tackle these challenges and use them productively in teaching.

2. Acquiring conceptual fluency in the L2 context

Teachers and learners still widely assume that learning a foreign language primarily consists of mastering the formal inventory, which often leads to an overemphasis of formal aspects when correcting errors in learners' utterances. However, research on language-specific encoding of experiences has made a major contribution in highlighting the importance of the conceptual system and the socio-cultural embedding of languages for teaching purposes (Danesi, 2008; Littlemore & Low, 2006; Littlemore, 2009). In this vein, Danesi emphasizes that "the objective […] is to ensure that learners have access to the conceptual structures inherent in the target language and culture in a systematic, sequential, and integrated fashion with other areas of language learning" (Danesi, 2008, p. 231). These conceptual aspects and structures of the language may be essential for successful communication, but they remain hidden and opaque even for most L1-speakers because they are normally focused on the conceptual content, but not on the conceptual structure (cf. Langacker, 2000, p. 46). Thus, the goal of language teaching should be to make the various options of organizing conceptual content visible in the target language. This will help to implement the differences between the conceptual systems of L1 and L2 productively and will in the end lead to the acquisition of conceptual competence in the L2. Such conceptual differences between L1 and L2 may include aspects of the preferred encoding of motion events (e.g. cf. Slobin, 2004b; Jessen & Cadierno, 2013), as seen above. On top of that, they are also part of the different uses of source domains in metaphors (e.g. when expressing abstract concepts in colors, cf. Roche & Roussy-Parent, 2006; Danesi, 2008), of image schemes in grammar (e.g. power, space, container etc., cf. Oakley, 2007), the mechanisms of attention focusing (perspectives, salience, etc., cf. Langacker, 2013; Talmy, 2000), etc.

If the conceptual integration of different ways of encoding experiences in the cognitive system of the learner succeeds through the corresponding processes of assimilation and accommodation, the status of so-called transdifference is achieved (Roche, 2013; also Roche & Suñer, 2014). In this context, transdifference refers to the ability to adequately communicate in different languages by using conceptual content and structure according to the language-specific patterns (Roche, 2013). Being able to change between the conceptual systems of different languages is, in turn, an important condition for qualitatively developed multilingualism (Roche, 2013).

Acquiring such a conceptual fluency in the L2, however, remains a major challenge as it entails a reconstructing or re-learning of conceptual categories (e.g. Brown & Gullberg, 2011). In this context, a recent study by Tomczak & Ewert (2015) investigated conceptual processing differences between English monolinguals, Polish monolinguals and Polish learners of English (L2). Participants were asked to judge the meaningfulness of fictive motion events (e.g. *the road runs through the forest*). According to the embodiment hypothesis (e.g. Richardson & Matlock 2007), the authors assumed that processing fictive motion events should involve additional mental simulation of motion and, in turn, will take longer than processing real motion events and static depictions. Time response data confirmed this hypothesis showing that accessing the motor representations of motion is essential for adequately processing fictive motion expressions in both languages. The results of the judgments of sentence meaningfulness, however, show some conceptual processing differences between the groups. Although there were marked differences between the sentence ratings of both monolingual groups (Polish and English), L2 users (L1 Polish, L2 English) rated the sentences similarly in both languages. Their L2 ratings were similar to the ratings of monolingual speakers of English, but rating the same sentences in the L1, they assessed them as more meaningful than the monolingual speakers of Polish did (Tomczak & Ewert, 2015). This is interpreted by the authors as a transfer effect from L2 to L1.

These findings go in line with recent studies on the processing of motion events showing that cross-linguistic influence on conceptualization patterns takes place both from L1 to L2 and vice versa. While several studies consistently show a mapping of conceptualization patterns from L1 to L2 (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008; Flecken, Athanasopoulos, Kuipers & Thierry, 2015), other studies found a subtle influence of the L2 on the L1 (Brown & Gullberg, 2011) and a bidirectional influence (Hohenstein et al., 2006). In this context, the study by Brown & Gullberg (2011) investigates the effects of lexicalization patterns on event construal with a focus on different path components: source, via and goal. The authors found that Japanese learners of English produced significantly more goal expressions per clause both in the L1 Japanese and the L2 English than English-only speakers and Japanese-only speakers showing that their conceptualization patterns did not reflect typical patterns either of the L1 or L2. In contrast to the study by Tomczak & Ewert (2015), the authors interpret the results arguing "that the acquisition of an L2 may prompt a shift away from a monolingual and towards a multilingual construal of motion within individuals" (Brown & Gullberg, 2011, p. 90). Furthermore, a study by

Filipovic (2015) suggests that multilingual individuals may also adapt the patterns of conceptualization in their L1 and L2 according to task-specific demands, e.g. by choosing the patterns which better fit both languages (e.g. using Spanish directional verbs that express path which is also acceptable in English, e.g. "He crossed the road running").

In sum, the studies presented in this section consistently show the impact learning other languages can have on the learners in terms of conceptual reorganization/restructuring. We assume that integrating emerging L2 concepts into the already established conceptual system can lead to effects in several ways: transfer from L1 to L2, transfer from L2 to L1 as well as L1-L2 convergence, among others. How all these effects can be managed in an efficient way and how the relevant learning processes can be supported to achieve such a transdifference in a classroom setting will be illustrated in the following section of this article. We use the example of the encoding of motion events and the challenges German and Turkish learners of Danish face in this domain. Let us first have a look at how learners approach the Danish conceptual system in the expression of motion events.

3. The influence of L1 on the expression of motion events in L2

During the acquisition of conceptual competence related to the expression of motion events in Danish as an L2, the following aspects posed a particular challenge for learners: a) an accurate description of the specific type of manner of motion; and b) the language-specific or conventionalized description of Path, since Danish has a highly specific way of expressing the Path component (Jessen, 2013). Let us now see how conceptualization patterns of the first language influence L2-usage.

An influence of conceptual patterns of one language on the use of another can be considered a case of conceptual transfer. Conceptual transfer is defined as "the hypothesis that certain instances of crosslinguistic influence in a use of one language originate from the mental concepts and patterns of conceptualization that the person has acquired as a speaker of another language" (Jarvis, 2011, p. 3).

A description of the different aspects of the expression of motion events in Danish as L2 for German and Turkish learners gives an impression of what conceptual transfer might look like. The studies serving as examples examined which spatial relations are expressed in the different L1s and how this influences the L2 use.

The studies are based on data from 99 test subjects, of which 21 have Danish as their L1, 25 with German as their L1, 25 with Turkish as their L1 as well as 14 German and Turkish learners of Danish respectively. All learners spoke Danish at work and interacted with Danes on a daily basis. 37 short video sequences functioned as stimuli. The videos contained a range of different motion events performed by people, primates and a number of other animals (Vulchanova, Martínez & Vulchanov, 2012; see material in the Appendix).

3.1. Motion verb inventories in German, Turkish and Danish

In order to see how German, Turkish and Danish speakers described different motion events in their L1, Jessen (2013) investigated which motion verbs were used for the description of short video sequences. A cluster analysis shed light on how frequently which verbs were used for which scene.

The results of the cluster analysis show that German speakers used the largest number of motion verb types (n=69), followed by the Danish speakers (n=41) and Turkish speakers (n=36). In all three languages, the three most frequent verbs were the respective forms of *run*, *walk* and *crawl*. These forms were, however, used in varying frequencies and therefore also not for the same scenes. This is a first indication that these verbs do not represent a one-to-one correspondence between the individual languages, but rather that they are language-specific descriptions.

The Danish speakers primarily used only three motion verbs for the majority of descriptions, which resulted in a rough breakdown of the semantic space: *kravle* "crawl", *løbe* "run", and *gå* "walk". The variation among the German speakers was larger. There were seven different verbs used to describe the lionshare of events. For the German and Danish speakers, the manner of motion type verbs dominated. The Turkish speakers used six different verbs, three of which were path verbs (*inmek* 'move downwards', *dönmek* 'turn' and *tirmanmak* 'climb'). This is illustrated using the example of the Danish verb *kravle* in figures 2-6 in the appendix.

Turkish

Others; 25,85%

yürümek "to go"; 26,45%

tırmanmak "to climb up"; 6,04%

emeklemek "to crawl"; 7,00%

koşmak "to walk"; 17,75%

ilerlemek "to move forwards"; 16,91%

Danish

Others; 18,07%

sno sig "to snake"; 3,72%

Bevæge sig "to move"; 4,18%

Kravle "to crawl"; 25,7%

Løbe "run/sprint"; 24,96%

Gå "to go"; 23,37%

German

laufen "to run/walk"; 23,09%

krabbeln "to crawl"; 12,56%

Others; 37,34%

gehen "to go"; 12,11%

rennen "to run/sprint; 7,4%

klettern "climb"; 7,5%
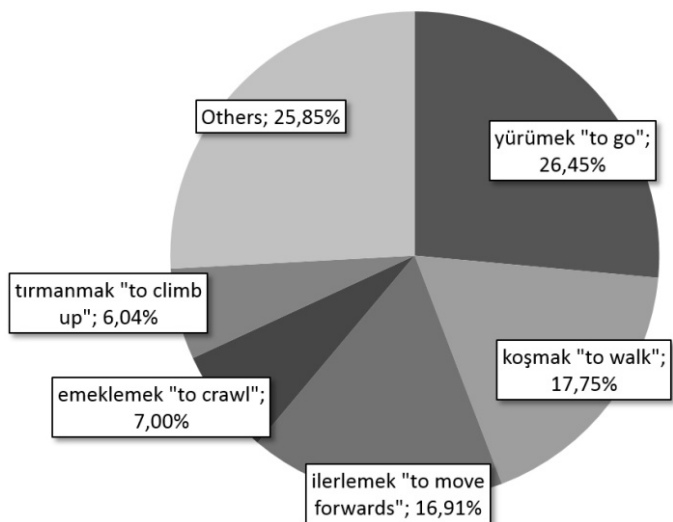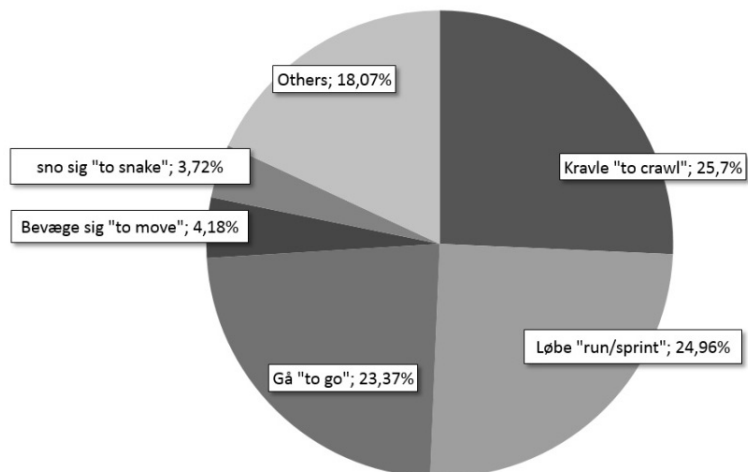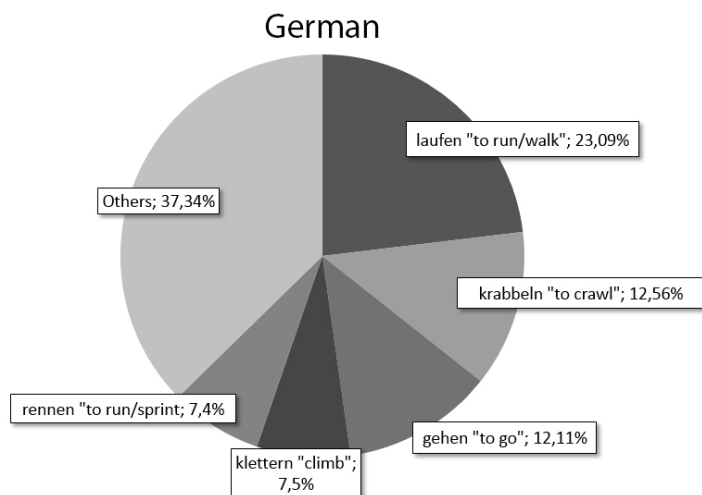
Figure 1-1. Distribution of the five most frequently used verb types in the three language groups for the sum of all descriptions

This variance in the number of motion verbs used can be attributed to differences in the number of possible subcategories. Although hyponyms could be observed in all languages, there were large differences between the languages: while the number of more specific verb types was comparably low in Turkish, the largest number of hyponyms was used in German. Typically, these motion verbs in German describe a fine-grained conceptualization of a motion event. For example, *taumeln* describes a type of walking. German is very rich in these specific descriptions. Most hyponyms in German describe the types of walking/running. In Danish, most hyponyms were special types of fast motion. In Turkish, there were only very few hyponyms for one type of walking, namely to stroll around. This is one of the difficulties learners have to overcome: Turkish learners of Danish for example, first have to understand that it is possible and common in Danish to be very precise about the manner of motion.

The Turkish speakers used a path verb for almost all of the scenes that depicted a non-horizontal motion. This was to be expected on account of the typologic classification of Turkish. In Danish, these Path verbs hardly exist. Learners will have to realize that and find ways to express the L1 path-concepts in the L2 that does not offer terms for these concepts. We shall now see how they approach this task.

3.2 The influence of L1 on the expression of motion events in L2

Let us see how learners deal with the acquisition of a language that exposes them to different conceptual categories than their own. The following study examines this phenomenon and looks at how the L1 influences the expression of motion events in L2 Danish (Jessen & Cadierno, 2013).

Motion verbs

The acquisition task for the German and Turkish learners in learning Danish can be characterized as follows: the German learners have to switch from a more complex description system to a simpler one. In other words, they have to learn to make coarser semantic distinctions. The Turkish learners have to learn that Path should not typically be expressed in the verb. They also have to learn that manner of motion verbs like *kravle*, *løbe,* and *gå* exhibit a different extension in semantic space than their Turkish counterparts.

Using a cluster analysis, the verbs used by the German and Turkish learners were examined. An analysis of the learner language data showed that the German learners used the largest number of motion verb types (48). They demonstrated the largest amount of diversity, or in other words, many motion verb types were frequently used. Conversely, the Turkish learner group used 28 different motion verb types, fewer than the L1-Danish speakers (41). The Turkish learners and the L1 Danish speakers showed relatively large accordance in their description. The three most frequently used verbs were also identical in all three groups: *løbe* "walk, fast", *kravle* "crawl", and *gå* "go" (cf. 3.1.). However, the frequency with which they were used within the groups differed: L1 Danish speakers used one of the three verbs in 75% of the cases, German learners in 61% and Turkish learners in 86%.

Firstly, this shows that the three most frequently used verbs in Danish by native speakers and learners do not have the same extension in semantic space for their users. Figures 2-6 in the Appendix illustrate this using the example of the verb *kravle.* Both learner groups did not use the Danish verbs like the L1 Danish speakers. By comparison, both learner groups also differed from one another in their usage of the Danish verbs. The German learners used cognates that are more limited in their meaning in Danish (for instance *løbe* cannot be used as a cognate for *run* in Danish for slow motion events). Other cognates have somewhat different meanings in both languages, e.g. Danish *hoppe* and German *hoppeln.* *Hoppe* was not used by L1 speakers to describe a scene with a moving

koala, *hoppeln* and *hoppe* were however used by the L1 German speakers and by German learners of Danish. Turkish learners used *gå* very frequently. It appears that Turkish learners, in cases in which they would use a Path verb in Turkish, used *gå* in Danish because Danish does not have corresponding Path verbs. They know other verbs, like *kravle* "krabbeln" and *gå*, but did not use them for these scenes.

The German learners demonstrated a tendency to maintain the differentiated segmentation of semantic space of their first language in L2 Danish. Additionally, the German learners used *løbe* similarly to the German *laufen* for fast and slow motion events, which is not possible in Danish. In sum, the difficulty of changing from a more complex to a simpler description pattern and from a simpler to more complex one explains that the German learners' answers were based on the semantic-conceptual categories of their L1. As such, cases of conceptual transfer are present.

The Turkish learners demonstrated an above-average usage of the motion verb *gå*, which appears to reflect the difficulties of mapping information over the motion type onto the motion verb. Such difficulties can be attributed to the absence of Path verbs. The Turkish learners also describe a scene which shows how a ladybug moves along a branch with *gå*. In this scene the L1 Danish speakers preferred the expression *kravle* 'crawl'. This is yet another example of a possible explanation to be found in the source language, because in Turkish a bug "walks", in Danish it "crawls".

In sum, it can be observed that the semantic categorization in the second language is influenced by the pattern of segmentation of the semantic space in the first language. Figures 2-6 in the Appendix show this with the extension of the Danish verb of motion type *kravle* 'crawl' and the description of the same scene by the learners. When assessing the descriptions of the individual scenes, the learners' descriptions of the videos in the L2 indicate that they relied to some degree on the information selection patterns of their first language. The challenge for the language teacher is to be aware of the conceptual differences and to make their students aware of them.

The same influence of the L1 on the L2 can be observed in the expression of Path for the learners of Danish. In Danish Path is typically expressed in two elements:

(3) Mumin trolden kører **ind igennem** slottet.
 'The moomin goes in through the castle'

This complex system of coding of Path enables a more detailed Path description when compared to German or Turkish. And indeed this level of complexity is seldom met in the learners' language use of Danish. Even when Path is expressed in a complex fashion, the semantic conceptual content is different.

Table 1-1: Two example scenes for the expression of Path in the five groups

Group	Koala Scene	Crocodile Scene
L1-Speakers–Danish	*op ad* (vector up + medium/via)	*ud i* (conformation out of + conformation into)
L1-Speakers–German	*rauf/hoch* (vector up)	*in*-s (conformation into)
German Learners of Danish	*op* (vector up)	*i* (conformation into)
L1-Speakers–Turkish	*-a tirman-* (goal + vector up)	*-a doğru* (goal + vector horizontally)
Turkish Learners of Danish	*op på* (vector up + location)	*imod* (goal)

4. Teaching verbs of manner in the classroom

The in depth description of the learner challenges provides keys as to which aspects of the expression of motion events are retained due to the conceptual distance between the languages. It showed for example how the Turkish learners used the motion verb *gå* with above-average frequency. The learners recognize that a target structure does not exist in the L2 and resort to a strategy that fulfils the minimal requirements regarding the description (Hendriks & Hickman, 2010). The learners are influenced in the description of motion events by their L1.

Despite the practical teaching relevance of this aspect, only very few systematic attempts to teach the motion type verbs have been undertaken to this point. However, some recent studies have already given some general directions on how to address such aspects in the context of L2 learning by using concept-based teaching methods. For example, Stam (2015) assumes that explicit instruction on the gestural expression of manner of motion could contribute to the acquisition of such thinking for