# Elements in the Language Teaching/Learning Process: "Did he learn or was he taught?"

Peter Strevens

When teachers understand the learning/teaching process, they are better prepared to manage learning more effectively. The process begins with language intake being worked upon by the learner's qualities, including his intention to comprehend, and by a wide range of mental processes ("types of thinking"). When this is accompanied by suitable conditions for learning (which comprise impact, interest, variety and organisation conducive to learning) comprehension occurs. Some of what is comprehended is

also internalised as receptive learning. A further effort is required, in which the learner re-creates in sound a simulacrum (rough and ready likeness) of his receptive learning, in order to induce productive learning and use. At every single stage, the process can be made more rapid and effective through the intervention of a skilled teacher: good teaching recognizes the learner's needs at any moment and provides assistance of an appropriate kind.

The question in the sub-title, "Did he learn, or was he taught?", contains the fundamental mystery of all teaching and all education—in every subject, not only in language teaching, though perhaps more in language teaching than in most "factual" subjects, because of the rather special nature of language learning. Do our students learn English at all? Enough? Accurately? Effectively? How much of what we teach do they learn? How much of what they learn have we taught? How much of what they learn has not been taught by us? And so forth. Above all, how can we ensure that they learn more?

This paper is concerned with what happens when a person learns a foreign language with the help of a teacher, i.e., it deals with the nature of the language learning/language teaching process. In the very broadest terms, this can be described as follows. Language learning takes place by the operation of a learner's mental characteristics and mental processes—"thinking"—upon the flow of language experience that reaches him from the world at large and the language classroom in particular.

There is, in addition, a constant tension between those forces or elements or factors that work *against* learning a language, and those forces or elements or factors that work *towards* learning a language. The teacher's task is threefold: (i) to know and understand the language learning process as a whole, and its various elements; (ii) to recognise the

evidence and the symptoms of the contrary forces that reduce learning and to know what can be done to counteract them; (iii) to know how to foster the *positive* forces, those that conduce to learning a language *well*. And a good teacher can make a learner's progress faster, more effective, better; and good teaching can be supplied by a teacher who knows and understands the language learning/language teaching process.<sup>1</sup>

## THE LANGUAGE LEARNING PROCESS AND ITS ELEMENTS

From language experience, then, through the operation by the learner of his mental processes, to comprehension and thus to learning: these are the obvious main elements.

LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE
THE LEARNER
MENTAL PROCESSES
COMPREHENSION
LEARNING

Figure 1. The main elements of the language learning process

The learning process, seen as a percentage of language experience, is not 100% perfect: A certain amount is lost at each stage of the process. Not all the language experience is comprehended; not everything we comprehend gets learned. However, one of the advantages of teaching a language (in contrast to "picking up" a language) is that good teaching results in *more* of the language experience being comprehended than would otherwise happen—the teacher helps the learner to make *additional* sense of the unfamiliar language, so that comprehension is improved, while good teaching results in more of what is comprehended being actually learned, and so available for practical use by the learner.

Language Experience. What are the principal elements of the language learning process? Its main stages start with the essential, inescapable element, LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE.

No language experience, no language learning: the extent of an individual's language learning is determined by his or her total language experience. But notice: the extent of our learning is always less than our total language experience.

It may be helpful to think of *language experience* as meaning "all the total experience of that language, that we have had in the past, up to

now". In that case we need a different expression for all the language (and the language-related) events that an individual is in the process of experiencing at a particular time, for example, what the language learner receives during a lesson, when he hears or reads English, which adds to his previous experience. For this flow of language information, at a given moment, the term LANGUAGE EXPOSURE is suggested. In computer terms, language exposure is the "real-time" flow of language, audible and visible to the learner.

But not all the *language exposure* at a given moment is actually available, or used, for undestanding, or for learning. The individual's attention is drawn more to one part of the information than another, rather as in a cocktail party we select out one conversation or another. We need a term to refer to that *part* of the *language exposure* that is actually available to and used by the learner, for understanding and learning. For this, the "active ingredient" of language exposure, I use the term LANGUAGE INTAKE. i.e., roughly, what the individual *takes* out of the total available language *input*.

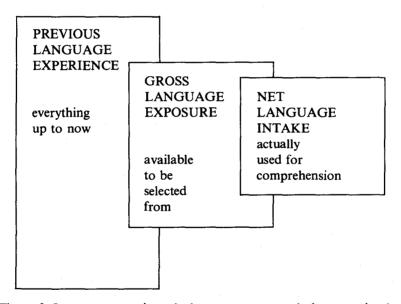


Figure 2. Language experience > language exposure > language intake

Once again, notice that *language exposure* is only part of our total language experience, and only part of that—*language intake*—is actually responsible for what we comprehend, and learn.

#### THE LEARNER

What does the learner bring to this process? A very great deal. Above all else, the learner brings the human, innate capacity to learn foreign languages. Except for cases of specific and severe physical or mental handicap (deafness, brain damage, developmental subnormality, etc.) all human beings who can acquire a primary language can also attain command of at least a spoken form of any other language.

In addition to this universal capacity to learn a language, every learner brings to the task three sets of characteristics which affect his progress as a learner. The first of these sets of characteristics stem from his personal identity as a learner. They reflect the learner's age and level of attainment, both of which make a considerable difference: the learning and teaching appropriate to a ten-year-old is not the same as for an adult, and a beginner learns differently from an advanced learner; they also reflect his language abilities: is he a good mimic? does he have a better than average, or less good, language memory? does he possess attitudes in favour of, or against, learning a foreign language? —or learning English in particular? There are a number of characteristics in this set whose importance we as teachers recognise, and to which we respond appropriately as a normal, natural part of good teaching.

The second set of characteristics is not often recognised, but is crucial. For this I propose the label VOLITION. Volition comprises three parts: first, an intention to comprehend and communicate. If there is no intention to learn, there will be precious little learning. The absence of any intention to learn may be due to various causes: community attitudes ("Don't learn English, for political reasons"); fear of failure ("I don't think I shall be able to learn a language"); boredom and a feeling of irrelevance ("Why should I learn English? —and anyway, it's boring"); personal reaction against a particular teacher (I hate Miss X: she can't teach me anything!): and many more. Nevertheless, it is a basic and essential task of the teacher to ensure that such negative attitudes are changed, by encouragement and cajoling and laughter and sympathy and compassion, so that the student does establish, however tentatively and provisionally, an intention to comprehend and to communicate. This is the essential, irreplaceable mental drive, the psychological trigger, for the two other parts of volition, namely: attention, and concentration, Attention is just what its name implies, Lack of attention to the flow of language intake means that for that period of time the flow is interrupted: comprehension, too, comes to a halt. On the other hand, when extra effort is needed to understand the flow of language, concentration can be summoned up. Volition, then, comprises intention, attention, concentration. All these are qualities used by every learner of a language.

The learner brings, then, one set of characteristics that describe his *identity* as a learner, and a second set, *volition*, that trigger and fuel his intention to comprehend and communicate.

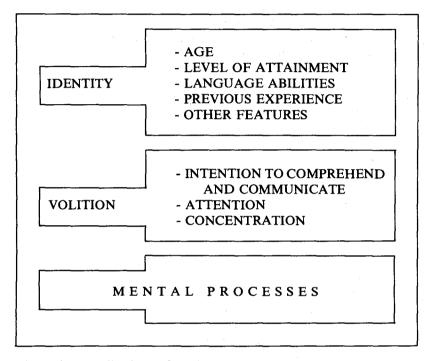


Figure 3. Contributions of the learner

But the learner brings yet a further set of characteristics, namely, a wide range of *MENTAL PROCESSES*. That is to say that teachers know, but rarely say, that learning a language requires *thinking*.

What sorts of mental processes—what sorts of thinking—are required? There are at least 25 different kinds of thinking involved, as summarised in Figure 4. Within a short paper it is not possible to describe all these but some examples of the main types of mental process are set out below.

#### I CONTROL PROCESSES

- Watch-keeping
- Tracking
- Concentration regulator
- Call in additional mental processes
- Switch on/off

#### II IDENTIFYING PROCESSES

- Recognise and identify the language (and variety)
- Segment the intake flow
- Assign meaning quickly, or shunt to problem-solving

## III PROBLEM-SOLVING PROCESSES

- Repetition (internal from memory)
- Guessing
- Provisional hypotheses
- Inference
- Analogy
- Translation
- Recall and look-up from memory
- Jig-saw: i.e., matching and assigning similarities
- Confirmation

#### IV GENERALISING AND INTERNALISING PROCESSES

- Generalisation
- Reflection, including focus on a particular feature
- Abstraction and formalisation
- Acceleration of comprehension through familiarity
- Ensuring congruence of systemic (linguistic) and schematic ("world knowledge") information
- Consign what is comprehended to memory (i.e., receptive learning)
- Make available what is comprehended as alternative control of inner monologue.

Figure 4. Mental processes in language learning

## Type 1: "Watchkeeping" and Controlling Processes

The language learner uses a kind of "tracking" procedure, rather like a record-player stylus following the groove on a disc, in order to "track" or follow the thread of language. Another controlling process of this kind is

switching on or off the intention to coomprehend: if the learner encounters too many difficulties of comprehension, too many unknowns, in the language flow, he may react by saying, in effect "I will not co-operate any more. I shall turn off." And there are other controlling processes, in addition to these.

## Type 2: Identifying Processes

The learner needs to *identify* the language he is attempting to comprehend. We have all suddenly encountered a speaker and said to ourselves "What on earth language is that?" And sometimes we have discovered that in fact it is English, or French, but it is of a variety that we are not familiar with. In other words, we always have to *identify the language*. Again, there are several other processes in this set, like dividing the intake flow into segments and quickly assigning a meaning to each and to the stream of segments—or, if that is not possible, calling up the next set of mental processes in order to solve the problems.

## Type 3: Problem-solving Processes

Once the flow of language intake has been established, the task of understanding involves a number of thought processes, like *guessing*, inference, analogy, mental look-up, and translation. There is no doubt that learners make use of a great deal of inner translation, especially when they are beginners. Then they gradually reduce the amount of inner translation, until by the time they are advanced learners they almost cease to use it.

Perhaps the most typical problem-solving process in language learning might be called the jig-saw process. We are all familiar with putting together a jig-saw puzzle. Piece by piece, we ask ourselves (intentionally) questions such as: "Have I seen other pieces with this colour? If so, where are they? What general part of the picture do they belong to—are they sky, or clouds, or sea...? Is there a special kind of line on this piece, that could match similar lines on other pieces—like an edge, for instance?" Or we may ask questions of a different type, such as "In order to make progress with the puzzle as a whole, what kind of pieces should I look out for? Can I finish this flower-bed, by finding just two more pieces?" And so forth. A very similar set of internal procedures is used in learning a language. Normally they are not verbalised, neither in informal acquisition of a foreign language, nor in informal but organised language learning. But sometimes a learner may be aware of a desired piece of language, and will find a way of asking for it, or eliciting it, either from friends, or from a native speaker, or from a teacher. "Dis-donc, qu'est-ce que ça veut dire, "full of oil"? Ce n'est pas comme "fuel oil"; ni "fool" non plus. Ah oui,

"plein de", "full of". Maintenant je comprends." The complex patternmatching process has many similarities with solving a jig-saw.

## **Type 4: Generalising Processes**

There is a whole series of other mental processes which, as comprehension is more and more achieved, organise the information. There is reflection, in which we use our ability to focus on a particular point; there is the process of using familiarity with various parts of language in order to speed-up comprehension next time we meet it; and there are many others.

The learning of a language is very much an *active* process, carried out by the learner in a number of identifiable ways, in particular, with the aid of three sets of characteristics, relating to IDENTITY, VOLITION, and MENTAL PROCESSES. If the learner's language experience is matched by an intention to comprehend, and if the learner applies his mental processes to the flow of language intake, one last set of conditions will permit and ensure that then comprehension takes place, and will determine just how effective the whole process will be. This last set of variables constitute the *CONDITIONS FOR LEARNING*.

## THE CONDITIONS FOR LEARNING

If there is one set of ideas we know about, as professional teachers, it is the conditions for learning. We know that among the many variables that determine our students' success, or lack of it, in learning, one of the most important and one which has almost the greatest effect, for or against learning, is the circumstances in which the learning occurs. These qualities I shall call IMPACT and ORGANISATION, the intended meaning of these terms being "impact on the learner's mental processes" and "organisation of information in a way most conducive to comprehension and learning."

It is common experience that the more impact with which some new pieces of language are presented, the more likely they are to be understood and learned. Some other qualities act in the same way: thus, under the label of *impact* are to be included also the qualities of *interest*, variety, and relevance (relevance, that is, as perceived by the learner).

Similarly with *organisation*. Teachers are aware that a sequence of unconnected bits of information are much less easily comprehended and learned than is the same information when organised with coherent relationships. (This was one of the principles behind the introduction of *situational teaching*, and behind ESP: items to be learned are better

absorbed and retained by the learner if they hold together as a set, having common properties. This principle is in some ways like the *jig-saw* process.)

Organisation in the sense of "conducive to learning" implies the existence of principles for achieving this, including: deciding what is to be learned—both overall, throughout a language course of perhaps several years, and from moment to moment within a single class—which involves quantity, time (i.e., overall duration) and therefore, by simple mathematical consequence, intensity. And finally under the heading of organisation comes repetition, which recognises that most of the language we learn is comprehended and learned not the first time we encounter it (unless there was a great deal of impact) but the second or third or fourth or fourteenth time. This is an important concept. Many discussions on theories and methods of learning and teaching languages are vitiated by the unstated assumption that an item presented ought to be an item learned. Reality shows otherwise. Most language items are gradually comprehended more and more fully, accurately, confidently, rapidly with successive fresh encounters of the item. It is probably also the case that the number of encounters necessary for full comprehension and learning is reduced by increases in impact and organisation, but increased by the passage of time since the last previous encounter.

Now we can sum up these conditions for the learning of language material: it comprises IMPACT, with *interest, variety* and *relevance*; and ORGANISATION, with *quantity, time, intensity* and *repetition*.

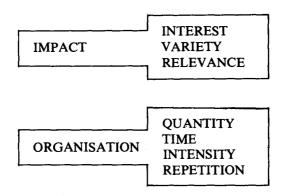


Figure 5. Conditions for learning

Although the learner has these marvellous qualities of learning, then, with the possibility of triggering a drive to comprehend, and the great

array of thought processes, he (the learner) is not just a cabbage in the field of language learning. On the contrary, a human learner is reactive to the intake flow and interactive with other human beings, and is responsive in important ways to the external circumstances of learning. In short, by studying the *learning/teaching context* it is possible for teachers (or for properly instructed learners) to have an enormous effect on the extent of the learning.

#### COMPREHENSION AND LEARNING

Approaching the end of the process, let us assume that the conditions for learning have been satisfactory, that a particular learner has applied his mental processes to a suitable flow of intake, and has in fact comprehended quite a lot. *Some* of what has been comprehended will have been learned—as receptive learning. Not all of it, but some of it: although comprehension is essential for learning, for several reasons learning is less (in quantity) than comprehension. Furthermore, learning first occurs as receptive learning: before we can actively produce even that limited amount of the foreign language which we can understand, a further process has to take place.

It is generally agreed that productive use of a foreign language comes later than receptive comprehension. But what has to occur in order for the learner to move across this gap between receptive to productive? Most authorities talk only about a delay, a "silent period", which is held by some people to be very long; or by others to be unimportant, and probably very short. I believe the desirable length, if any, of a silent period, depends solely on how quickly the individual learner carries out the activity described below which is involved in progressing from receptive learning to productive use. How quickly he does so depends on many factors: age, personality-type, volition, and others—as well as the variable extent to which the drive to comprehend was accompanied by a drive to communicate and interact.

But what is the activity that progresses from receptive to productive? I believe it entails the act of trying to reproduce (in speech or writing) a replica of what we can "hear" internally, or "visualize" internally—it entails re-creating our "interior monologue" in the foreign language. The purpose for doing so may be in order to communicate, or to interact, but the activity is one of reproducing in real life the noises or the written language from inside one's head. The label suggested for this is a SIMUL-ACRUM, that is, a rough and ready representation, an attempt at reproducing something, which we know will not be 100% perfect—though it is capable of being improved. The willingness of individuals to

create or produce a simulacrum varies greatly. This willingness or resistance is much dependent on whether they expect their efforts to be successful (for example because they are good mimics), and on whether they mind making mistakes (to re-state crudely a number of psychological criteria). The learner's efforts at a simulacrum are adjusted as a result of feedback, from his own observation of his own efforts, and from reactions to his efforts seen on the faces and in the actions of others. The simulacrum is in principle capable of being continually improved, right up to equivalence with the performance of a native speaker, though the end-point of improvement is normally reached long before that. Learners typically stop learning before teachers stop teaching. And at any given moment the learner's productive learning consists of his successful simulacrum of his perceptive learning. We must recall also that, starting from comprehension, the learner's perceptive learning is less in quantity than that; and because the practical activity of producing a simulacrum is not by any means 100% perfect, the consequent productive learning is less again.

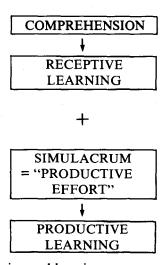


Figure 6. Comprehension and learning

Further practice in the foreign language—that is, more language intake, more mental activity, more comprehension, more simulacrum-making, more communication—all this extends, consolidates and strengthens the learner's command of the foreign language, and takes him through the various stages from beginner, to intermediate, to advanced.

To sum up: practical language learning requires a drive to comprehend and communicate: this is helped (or hindered) by the learner's abilities and

attitudes, and by the extent to which his volition and mental effort enhance the flow of language intake through his many mental processes; as a result of these processes, comprehension occurs; as comprehension takes place it is internalized and some of it becomes receptive learning. The drive to communicate leads the learner to attempt to produce a simulacrum of his learned knowledge; this creates productive learning which in turn is extended by further language intake, practice and use.<sup>3</sup>

#### TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

Recapitulating the various stages of the process it can be seen how teaching can affect each one—and thus, if the teacher is skilful, improve them.

## Language Exposure and Intake

Almost everything the teacher does can affect the language exposure and intake: the design of the syllabus; the selection of texts and course-books and readers; providing in Chomsky's terms a "language-rich environment" by leading the learner towards more and more experience of the language—but experience which will enable the student to extract, as intake, language that best fits the particular point he has reached in his learning progress, as observed by the teacher; and also, from moment to moment in class, the guidance and choice by the teacher of the English being used, by the teacher himself, or by the students; or through the decision to make use of the language embodied in reading texts, or in video programmes, or in computer texts. In short, the teacher by his role as a manager of learning has almost complete control of the learner's language exposure, especially in the early stages of learning, and therefore he has substantial control of the language intake, from which alone the student can understand and learn.

## Intention to Comprehend and Communicate

If this intention does not exist already as a consequence of the student's own interest or motivation, the teacher has many possibilities of establishing such an intention, of maintaining it, and of reinforcing it through evidence to the student of his own success, and of the intrinsic interest and value of comprehending, learning, communicating, interacting.

## Learner's Qualities

It is part of a teacher's professionalism to know his students—and to cherish them, as learners and as individuals. That means the teacher being

aware of all those features of the student's identity that affect his learning: Is he a young child, an adolescent, an adult? Is he a beginner, intermediate, advanced? What are his learning styles? How can he best be kept up to his optimum learning rate? Has he any negative attitudes, or lack of confidence, that reduce his learning and which the teacher can improve? The teacher can produce in the learner a frame of mind that is receptive to learning. (Incidentally, it is to this frame of mind receptive to learning, which in turn stimulates an *intention to comprehend*, that the so-called "humanistic methods"—Silent Way, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia—strongly address themselves.)

#### Volition

The teacher is well placed to help the student (i) maximise his intention to learn, (ii) keep up his attention to the language input; and (iii) when necessary, apply deliberate concentration to the tasks of comprehending, learning, communicating. The teacher is indeed an attention-guider, and very important, too—but that is only a tiny part of the total task.

#### Mental Processes

The teacher's training and experience enable him to be aware, from moment to moment, of what kind of thinking the learner is engaged in, and whether other thought-processes might be more helpful. Most of the time the teacher has no need to name the mental processes—indeed, they are generally below the level of consciousness—but sometimes it may help to say, for example: "All right, guess what it means." Or "Do you remember so and so? Perhaps that will help you to understand this." Most of the mental processes can be raised to a conscious level of thought: a good teacher learns to recognise when doing so can be helpful to learning, and when it might be harmful.

## **Conditions for Learning**

It is in the power of the teacher to continuously provide the best possible conditions for the material presented to the student through the flow of intake to be learned: the teacher can control *impact, interest, variety* and *relevance,* and he is himself a part of the *organisation* of learning, having as part of his professional duties the responsibility for making the presentation conducive to learning. The good teacher can and does make a great improvement in rates of comprehension and learning by continuous attention to these matters, for example, through laughter, variety and skilful manipulation of the work of the class. Unfortunately, teachers can, and sometimes do, have an opposite effect. Boring teaching certainly exists: it leads to low-grade learning. *There is no need for boring* 

teaching. However, for the teacher to create and maintain positive conditions for learning requires constant effort and professionalism.

## Comprehension

Since comprehension is the central, inescapable core of learning, the teacher can help the learner by heightening comprehension, by assisting him in successfully "tracking" the thread of meaning in the language intake, by confirming the student's guesses, keeping up the flow of comprehension as a normal, continuous sequence—and by ensuring that comprehension has its own intrinsic value to the student, of interest, impact, variety, relevance. Receptive learning can thus be encouraged by the teacher, so that more and more of what is comprehended is also internalized as receptive learning.

#### Drive to Communicate: Simulacrum

The learner can be helped, when he is ready, to make the effort to produce language, whether spoken or written. He can be assisted in self-improvement, particularly in fluency and accuracy, in grammar and in pronunciation, in vocabulary, in functions and notions, in the ways in which discourse is formulated. These are by and large the traditional, mainstream areas of language teaching: they have their place in an overall perspective. These are also the areas in which operates the current fashion for communicative learning. The learner can do little of this for himself, except very slowly and haphazardly, but a good teacher can greatly help the learner.

#### **Further Practice**

Again, a teacher can guide further practice in such a way as to maximise the extension to his existing learning, receptive and productive—in effect, to manipulate the language input to the student so that it does not just repeat material already learned but includes new material, not yet fully learned.

## **CONCLUSION**

These concepts are perhaps exceptionally important, because teachers face a danger from various quarters, and especially from those who suggest or imply that teaching is impossible, or that even in the very best circumstances all the teacher can do is to keep the learners awake and supply them with a flow of the language. This notion first surfaced at the

beginning of the audio-lingual era, when some people argued that language teaching was by nature ineffectual, so instead we should turn to theoretical linguistics plus native informants. Now we meet it again among people who, mis-interpreting the ideas of Krashen and others, say that language teaching is by nature ineffectual and that therefore there is no great value to being a teacher.

Of course a language can be learned without a teacher. Of course some teaching is not very effective or successful. But good teaching exists, and where it exists it is enormously helpful and successful. Good teaching is immensely valuable because of the very nature of the language learning/language teaching process. And teachers, by understanding the learning process, can deliberately so guide and steer our teaching that we more effectively manage the learning of our students.

#### **FOOTNOTES**

- <sup>1</sup> This paper, which was delivered in Quebec on June 15, 1984 to the Annual Convention of SPEAQ (la Société pour la Promotion de l'Enseignement de l'Anglais, Langue Seconde, au Québec), contains a truncated version of the author's proposed "paradigm of the language learning/language teaching process": the full version will appear in his book A First Handbook for the EFL/ESL Teacher, Cambridge University Press (forthcoming). The ideas expressed in this paper have been shaped by fruitful dialogue with scores of language teachers and applied linguists. To acknowledge them all individually would have made the paper excessively long.
- <sup>2</sup> In the extended version (forthcoming) of the paradigm of the language learning/language teaching process of which this paper is a partial outline, the phrase used here "re-creating our interior monologue" refers back to a discussion of the nature of learning a language. In that discussion it is proposed that (i) the individual's "stream of consciousness" is partly verbalised and partly un-verbalised; (ii) the process of first language acquisition adds the verbalised "inner speech" element to the infant's unverbalised stream of consciousness; (iii) the process of becoming literate makes available a verbalised "inner written language" in addition to the verbalised "inner speech"; (iv) the process of learning a foreign language adds, by increments which reflect his learning progress, the possibility of controlling his interior monologue either in his mother tongue or in the foreign language.
- <sup>3</sup> The extended version of the paradigm includes reference to the universal phenomenon of language attrition—the loss of language command that occurs with the lapse of time and an absence of language exposure and use.

#### THE AUTHOR

Peter Strevens has taught modern languages, EFL and applied linguistics, and has trained teachers in Europe, Africa, North America and East Asia; he has engaged in research in speech communications, phonetics and applied linguistics. His publications include New Directions in the Teaching of English (OUP), Teaching English as an International Language (Pergamon), and his forthcoming First Handbook for the EFL Teacher (CUP). At present he works in Cambridge as Director-General of the Bell Educational Trust.