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The Editor and the Editorial Advisory Board of JLLT remain committed to fostering a vibrant academic community that values rigorous scholarship, innovative teaching methodologies, and open dialogue. We kindly invite all linguists, methodologists, language educators, and researchers to contribute their knowledge and experiences to our growing body of work by submitting manuscripts.

Editorial Advisory Board (in alphabetical order)

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Foreword to the Issue

It is a pleasure to announce the release of the first issue of JLLT's fifteenth volume, which includes five scholarly articles. This issue again explores a range of pertinent topics that contribute to the ongoing discourse in language teaching and research. Each article reflects the ultimate desire of researchers and educators to enhance the quality of language teaching. Topics range from the potential importance of neuromotor phenomena for foreign language teaching, to the acquisition of oral skills using the language paradigm, the use of input and output in form-oriented teaching and exploratory learning, to the use of music in foreign language teaching.

The first article by **Heiner Böttger & Bianca Höppner** (Eichstätt-Ingolstadt, Germany) looks at an often neglected aspect of language skills known as muscle memory. By exploring the foundational muscles and brain regions involved, it illuminates how muscle memory significantly influences verbal communication, articulation, and the overall process of language acquisition. Moreover, the article presents a comprehensive methodological framework for enhancing (foreign) language and speaking training. It offers actionable strategies designed to bolster muscle memory, thereby improving both pronunciation and fluency. By intertwining theoretical insights with practical applications, This study not only adds to our understanding of how muscle memory affects speaking skills, but also seeks to establish the links between neuromotor functions and effective teaching practices. Readers will discover a wealth of knowledge that bridges theory and practice, making it a valuable resource for educators, linguists, and anyone passionate about mastering the art of spoken language.

The quest for spontaneous oral communicative competence is at the heart of foreign language education, yet it demands a thoughtful reevaluation of our linguistic and methodological frameworks. The article, written in French by **Günter Schmale** (Lyon, France), makes a compelling case for adopting an interactional and multimodal approach to effectively describe the communicative activities that resonate with foreign language learners. By analysing representative corpora of naturally occurring conversations, the article uncovers the significance of lexicogrammatical constructions, i.e. syntactic frameworks with specific lexical elements that serve as essential building blocks for language learning. In order to increase motivation and ensure the lasting acquisition of these vital constructions, the author advocates a constructivist methodology that not only enhances the learning experience but also empowers learners to engage more deeply with the language. By combining theoretical insights with practical strategies, the author aims to provide educators and linguists with tools to enrich their teaching practice, offer a deeper understanding of how to cultivate communicative competence in students, and bridge the gap between linguistic theory and effective language teaching.

One approach to improving foreign language teaching that has been discussed for some time is Form-Focused Instruction (FFI). While FFI has received considerable attention in language education, the specific impact of grammatical difficulty on input-based versus output-based FFI approaches in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts remains underexplored. The article by **Andrew Schenck** (Fort Hays (KS), USA) addresses this gap by conducting a meta-analysis of 36 experimental

studies, equally divided between Korean and Persian EFL learners. The author meticulously examines how different types of instruction — input-focused and output-focused — affect language acquisition, while also considering variables such as the complexity of target grammatical features and the learners' first language (L1). The findings not only enhance our understanding of how FFI can be tailored to different learner profiles but also suggest that both L1 and L2 characteristics play a crucial role in determining the effectiveness of instructional approaches. Educators and researchers alike will find valuable implications in this study, paving the way for more informed and effective teaching strategies in the area of foreign language acquisition.

Another learner-centred approach, which leverages students' natural curiosity to drive their educational journey, is Inquiry-based learning (IBL). A case study of this approach is presented by **Brikena Xhaferi, Jeta Hamzai & Gezim Xhaferi** (Tetovo, North Macedonia). Rooted in constructivist philosophy and inspired by the work of Piaget, Dewey and Vygotsky, IBL not only develops critical thinking skills but also increases student motivation and engagement. As modern educators increasingly advocate for its implementation across various disciplines, including language teaching, this study specifically investigates the perceptions and experiences of both teachers and students regarding IBL in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms at the tertiary level. Conducted at the South East European University (SEEU) in Tetovo, North Macedonia, the research employs a dual-method approach, utilising surveys and interviews to gather rich qualitative and quantitative data. The results show that IBL has many benefits, including a significant increase in critical thinking and active learning. This article not only highlights the transformative potential of IBL in language education but also provides insights into how educators can effectively implement this approach to create a more dynamic and interactive learning environment. Readers will gain a deeper understanding of how inquiry-based methods can contribute to making EFL more relevant and impactful for today’s learners.

This is also true of the final paper in this issue, presented by **Manuel Vida & Christine Ericsdotter Nordgren** (Stockholm, Sweden). Using Spanish as an example, the authors advocate the use of music in foreign language teaching. While many language teachers acknowledge the benefits of integrating musical activities into their instruction, research indicates that these methods are not utilised as frequently as desired. This mismatch can be suboptimal for both learners and educators. This study aims to bridge that gap by collecting real-world examples of music activities deemed beneficial for language development in Spanish within a Swedish school context, alongside identifying the key conditions that facilitate their implementation. Based on surveys and follow-up interviews with Spanish teachers, the findings reveal a diverse range of musical activities that enhance both communicative and cultural skills while creating a stimulating learning environment. Notably, the results suggest that the use of music in the Spanish language classroom is more prevalent than in other foreign language settings, indicating a promising shift in pedagogical practices. Crucially, the choice of music plays a significant role in the effectiveness of these activities, highlighting the importance of selecting appropriate musical content to achieve the desired educational outcomes. This article not only highlights the potential of music in language teaching, but also encourages educators to embrace musical activities as a powerful tool for enriching the language learning experience.

In conclusion, I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to the authors for submitting their manuscripts to JLLT. I would also like to express my appreciation to our readers who engage with the various articles, considering their potential application in their own research endeavours. Ultimately, I wish all readers exploring JLLT a rewarding and enlightening experience in their studies.

Thomas Tinnefeld

JLLT

Editor

Articles

Muscle Memory and the Development of Speaking Skills: Unveiling Neuromotor Foundations and Methodological Approaches in Foreign Language Education

Heiner Böttger & Bianca Höppner (Eichstätt-Ingolstadt, Germany)

Abstract (English)

The development of speaking skills, whether in a native or a foreign language, remains a complex field of study that combines neurobiology, psychology, language methodology and linguistics. This article focuses on a less studied component of language or speaking skills called *muscle memory*. It sheds light on its roots – the main muscles and brain areas involved – as well as its role in verbal communication, articulation, and language acquisition in general. It further outlines a holistic methodological approach to (foreign) language and speaking training that offers practical implementation options to improve muscle memory and, with it, accurate pronunciation and fluency. With these two focal points – theoretic background alongside practical considerations –, the article attempts not only to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the influence of muscle memory on the development of speaking skills, but also aims to bridge the gap between neuromotor processes and methodological practices.

Keywords: Muscle memory, speaking skills, neuromotor foundations, methodological approaches, foreign language teaching and acquisition

Abstract (German)

Die Entwicklung der Sprechfertigkeit – sei es in der Muttersprache oder in einer Fremdsprache – ist nach wie vor ein komplexes Forschungsgebiet, das Neurobiologie, Psychologie, Fremdsprachendidaktik und Linguistik miteinander verbindet. Der vorliegende Artikel hat eine wenig erforschte Komponente des Sprechens bzw. der Sprachbeherrschung zum Gegenstand, das sogenannte *muscle memory* (dt. ‚Muskelgedächtnis'). Es werden seine Wurzeln – die beteiligten Muskeln und Hirnareale – beleuchtet sowie seine Rolle bei der verbalen Kommunikation, der Artikulation und dem Spracherwerb im Allgemeinen. Darüber hinaus wird ein ganzheitlicher didaktischer Ansatz für das (Fremd-)Sprachentraining bzw. das Sprechtraining skizziert, der praktische Umsetzungsmöglichkeiten zur Verbesserung des Muskelgedächtnisses und damit der korrekten Aussprache und des flüssigen Sprechens bietet. Mit diesen beiden Schwerpunkten, dem theoretischen Hintergrund und den praktischen Überlegungen, versuchen wir nicht nur ein umfassenderes Verständnis des Einflusses des Muskelgedächtnisses auf die Entwicklung der Sprechfertigkeiten zu vermitteln, sondern auch eine Brücke zwischen neuromotorischen Prozessen und (Fremdsprachen)didaktischer Praxis zu schlagen.

Stichwörter: Muskelgedächtnis, Sprechfertigkeit, neuromotorische Grundlagen, methodische Ansätze, Fremdsprachenlehre, Fremdsprachenerwerb

1 Introduction

Language acquisition, whether in the mother tongue or in a foreign language, remains a complex subject of study across several scientific disciplines, converging the fields of neurobiology, psychology, and linguistics. Yet, what underpins fluency and skills in speech production is less conspicuously explored – a major component of which is muscle memory. It offers a fascinating glimpse into the complexities of verbal communication. *Muscle memory*, or *motor memory*, is postulated to apply not only to physical activities, but significantly also to the refinement and proficiency in spoken language. It demarcates the proficiency with which we produce sounds, words, and sentences, that result from repetitive practice and the gradual assimilation of muscular coordination in our unconscious procedural memory (Figure 1; Johnstone 2017):

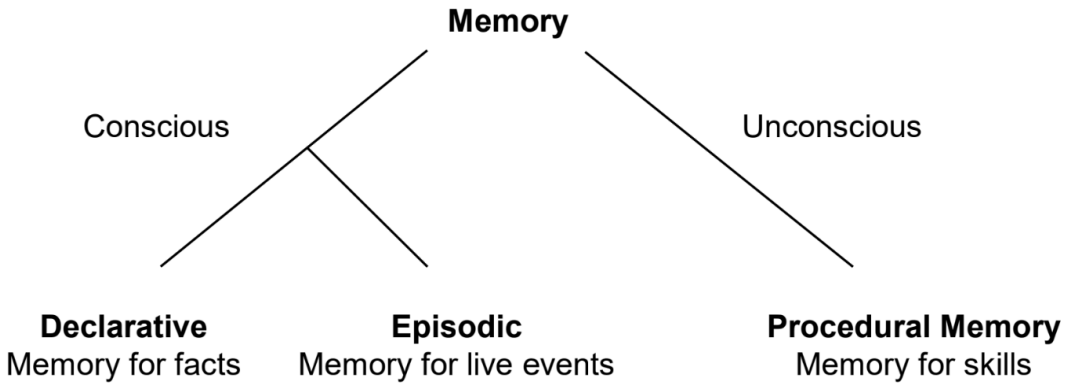

Figure 1: Types of Long-term Memory

Navigating through the varied linguistic competencies, from the articulation of phonemes to the rhythm and intonation of phrases, this paper takes a closer look at muscle memory and its imperative role in speech and language acquisition. By synthesising insights from different research perspectives, we seek to unravel the mechanisms by which muscle memory substantiates our ability to learn and articulate language effectively, providing a new lens through which the intricacies of spoken language can be understood and studied.

1.1 Definition of Muscle Memory and its Relevance to the Development of Speaking Skills

Muscle memory is a form of procedural memory that involves the consolidation of a specific motor task in memory through repetition. Unlike motor learning, which is often used synonymously, it does not encompass the process of establishing these neural connections in the first place, but rather refers to the existing connections that are generated and strengthened through practice. In addition, when a movement is repeated over time, a long-term muscle memory is created for that task, allowing it to eventually be performed without conscious effort (Brashers-Krug et al. 1996). This phenomenon is critical in a multitude of learning domains, including the acquisition and development of speaking skills.

The act of speaking is a complex motor skill that requires complex coordination between different muscle groups in the vocal tract, including the laryngeal, velopharyngeal, and articulatory muscles. The precise control and coordination of these muscles is critical to producing intelligible speech and achieving fluent verbal communication. Muscle memory plays a central role in automating these motor processes that are involved in speech production. Through consistent practice and repetition, learners can consolidate the neuromotor patterns associated with the articulatory movements required for speech (Tremblay et al. 2003). Over time, this leads to improved fluency and accuracy in speech production as, due to automation, the required motor sequences require less conscious effort to execute.

In addition, the relevance of muscle memory extends to the methodological domain, particularly in language education, where the focus is on developing speaking skills. Methodological strategies that incorporate kinesthetic and motor activities can considerably assist learners in developing the muscle memory necessary for proficient, near-native speech production. More specifically, exercises that emphasise repetition, feedback, and deliberate practice can help learners internalise the motor patterns necessary for accurate and fluent speech. Another area of application in language learning and teaching is that educators can use the principles of muscle memory to design instructional interventions that promote speaking skills. For example, articulation drills, phonetic exercises, and interactive speaking activities can provide the repetitive practice necessary to foster muscle memory and thereby improve speaking skills (Zielinski 2008).

In conclusion, the concept of muscle memory is intrinsically linked to the development of speaking skills, offering a valuable lens through which educators and language practitioners can understand and facilitate the motor learning required for proficient speech production.

1.2 The Importance of Exploring Muscle Memory within the Context of Language Education

From a modern, holistic methodological perspective, there is no alternative to taking muscle memory into account when learning a foreign language. The main reasons are:

1. Muscle memory plays a vital role in the ability to produce sounds accurately in a new language. Regular practice in pronouncing specific sounds, words, and phrases helps learners develop the muscle patterns necessary for fluency (Hancock 2018).
2. As learners develop muscle memory for the sounds and rhythms of a new language, their speech becomes more fluent and natural. This fluency is critical not only for effective communication but also for building confidence in using the language in real-life situations (Böttger 2024).
3. As the production of speech sounds becomes automatic through muscle memory, learners can devote more cognitive resources to other aspects of communication, such as vocabulary, grammar, and content. This shift allows

for a more complex and nuanced use of the language (Kearney & Guenther 2019).

4. For learners aiming to reduce their accent in a foreign language, developing muscle memory for native-like pronunciation can be essential. This often involves retraining the muscles to produce sounds that may not exist in the learners' native language (Baese-Berk et al. 2013).
5. Muscle memory contributes to the long-term retention of language skills. As with playing a musical instrument or a sport, regular practice embeds these skills more deeply, making them more resistant to decay over time (Krakauer & Shadmehr 2006).
6. Understanding the role of muscle memory in language acquisition can lead to more personalised teaching strategies that address learners' individual needs and challenges, especially in the area of pronunciation (Knoll 2017).
7. For young students undergoing speech therapy, such as those dealing with speech impediments, the concept of muscle memory is critical to relearning how to speak at all (Craig & Cleary 1982).

1.3 Aim and Scope

This paper aims to explore the role of muscle memory in the development of speaking skills, bridging the gap between neuromotor processes and methodological practices to foster enhanced language education outcomes. The structure of the paper is designed to provide a comprehensive understanding of the impact of muscle memory on the development of speaking skills, grounded in both theoretical frameworks and practical teaching strategies. Through this exploration, the paper seeks to contribute to the broader discourse on the integration of educational neuroscience insights into language methodology, particularly in the area of foreign language speaking skill enhancement; therefore, the examples chosen are from the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). English as an exemplary language was selected due to its global relevance and the high likelihood of it being well known by readers. Nonetheless, the insights depicted are transferable to other languages.

2 Literature Review

Although muscle memory has been extensively studied in various sport disciplines (Eftestøl et al. 2020, Sharples & Turner 2023, Snijders et al. 2002), there are relatively few studies available on its relationship and impact on speaking skills. This seems unjustified, given the similarities between the two domains. For example, just as athletes train complex movements by practising their partial movements first, language learners can practise and automatise the pronunciation of speech sounds first before assembling them into more complex movement sequences like words or phrases. Nonetheless, there are a number of important findings that shed some light on how muscle memory is interlinked with language and speaking in particular, a selection of which is presented here.

The first step in learning to produce sounds or groups of sounds at will, as well as improving pronunciation skills in general, is to repeat the respective sound sequences regularly in order to build up a kinesthetic memory (Khakim 2015). The reason for this is that repeating motor tasks strengthens the corresponding neural pathways, which results not only in more efficient motor control, but also in better performance over time (Shadmehr & Brashers-Krug 1997). Thus, when the motor sequences required for articulated speech are consistently practised, they become automated, allowing language learners to produce speech with greater accuracy and less cognitive effort (Max et al. 2004). In addition, individuals can also refine their motor control through repetitive practice, which will lead to improvements in phonetic accuracy over time (Guenther 2016). Thereby, it does not seem to matter whether students train their pronunciation abilities by simply repeating words or phrases or by using tongue twisters instead. That is, the latter training approach may be more suitable for motivational purposes but has been found to be similarly effective for purposes of correct pronunciation (Muin et al. 2017).

The fact that many language speakers report being error-free and fluent in a foreign language when thinking, but at the same time still make pronunciation errors or need to pause when speaking aloud, underscores the importance of speaking to build up muscle memory and automate pronunciation processes. Moreover, studies that investigate whether students' speaking fluency develops as a result of regular speaking exercises (e.g. group discussions, voice recordings) provide evidence not only that students become better speakers, but also that they become more aware of their own mistakes. For example, Lopez et al. (2021) used a pre-and post-test design to measure the development of 24 students' speaking fluency during a six-week action-research study by examining the speed, pauses, repetitions, and corrections of their audiotaped recordings. They found that their average speaking speed increased, while the average number of corrections and pauses decreased. However, regular training is not only important for developing fluency and speaking skills, but also for maintaining them. Language attrition, which refers to the loss of one's first language, is perhaps the most extreme and known example. It underlines the essence of the saying, 'if you don't use it, you'll lose it'.

In addition, semantic memory has been indicated to be not only functionally and neuroanatomically intertwined with the sensory system but also with the motor system (Kiefer 2008). This suggests that word meanings, which are considered part of the semantic memory, are interlinked with its sensory and motor representations. The latter ones, thereby, are likely to include representations of pronunciation features needed for error-free articulation – an important component of the muscle memory needed for speech production. Moreover, Kiefer et al. (2007) give evidence that conceptual representations also reflect (motor) experiences that were part of the learning process, such as the respective mood state. For example, if students learn the English expression *thumb up* and make the corresponding hand gesture while saying the phrase aloud, their mental representation of this sequence is likely to include this specific hand movement alongside the positive or negative state of mind they were in. Interestingly, this not only suggests that speaking and pronunciation exercises are important to connect the meaning of words or phrases in a given language with articulatory features, but also form the basis for more complex exercises like Voice Movement Icons (VMI). This task format pairs speaking or reading-aloud practices with actions or gestures more generally and has been found to

be beneficial for foreign language learning (see the compilation provided by Macedonia 2004). In essence, it allows the practice and automation of the phonological, morphological and syntactic structures of languages, as the combination of semantic and motor structures facilitates the storage of this information in different areas of the brain, making it easier to recall later. As the findings from Gröning (2011) underline, the use of gestures regularly correlates with an easier excitability of the motor cortex.

3 Theoretical Framework

3.1 Muscles Involved in the Speech Process

Many muscles are involved in the speech process, both in the motor cortex and in other parts of the body. It is difficult to determine the exact number of muscles in the head area involved in speaking English because the muscles are closely connected and work in combination to produce different sounds. The exact mechanism and involvement of the muscles can vary depending on the articulation of the sounds, the language, and individual differences. Here are some of the main muscles involved in the oral speech process that can be easily identified by their location and basic function:

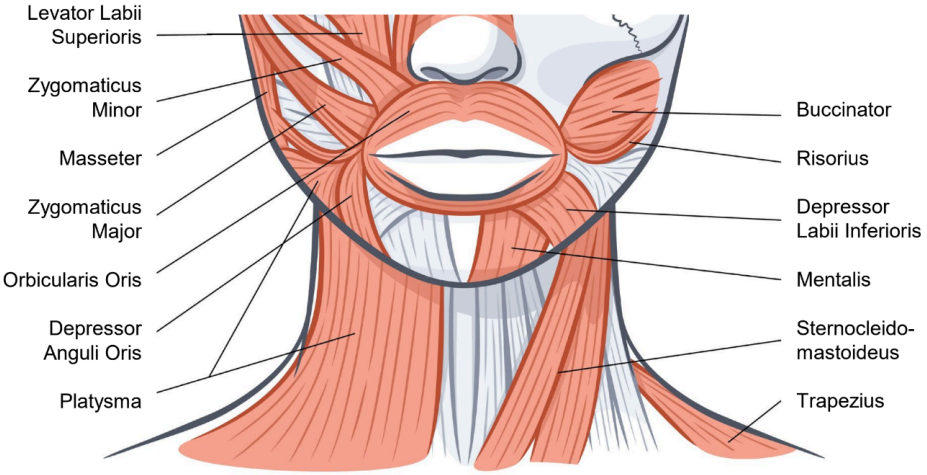

Figure 2: Face Muscles Ensuring Speech Production[1]

Speaking English mainly involves muscles in the head. Several muscles around the lips are responsible for articulating sounds. These include – amongst many others (Figure 2) – the *orbicularis oris* muscle, which contracts the lips, and the *levator labii superioris* muscle, and the *inferior depressor labii* muscle, which move the upper and lower lip. The *buccinator* muscle contracts the cheeks. Together, these muscles enable opening, closing, rounding and protruding the lips. They are important for producing labial sounds such as /p/, /b/, /m/, and /w/:

[1] *Frauengesicht – oberflächliches Tiefenmuskelschema.* Data adapted from iStock (2023) (https://www.istockphoto.com/de/vektor/frauen-gesicht-oberfl%C3%A4chliche-tiefenmuskel schema-vektorillustration-gm1530418768-525101383?phrase=muscle+face; 17-12-2023)

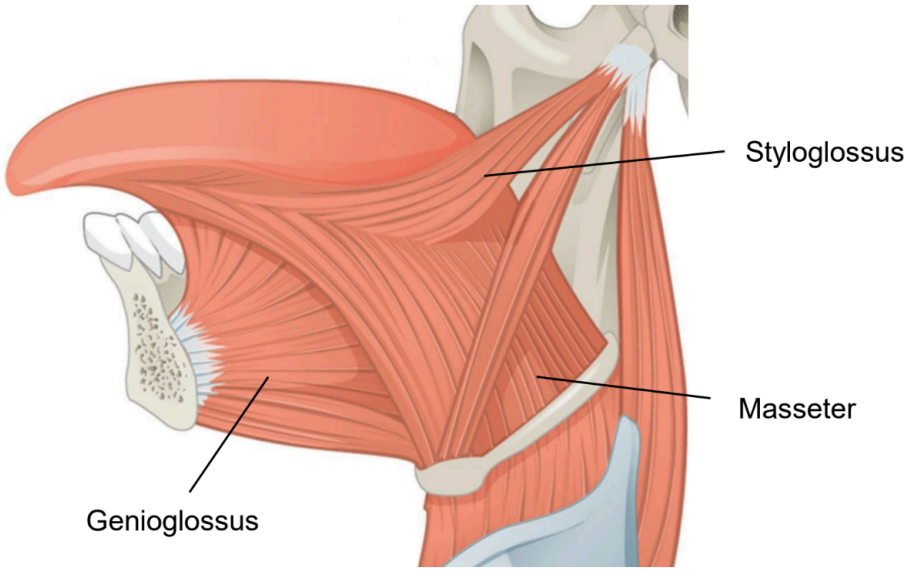

Figure 3: Main Muscles for Tongue Movement[2]

The tongue also plays a crucial role in the production of many sounds in English (Figure 3). There exist a number of muscles that are responsible for moving and positioning the tongue, including the *genioglossus* muscle, which is responsible for moving the tongue back and forth, and the *styloglossus* muscle, which is responsible for lifting the back parts of the tongue. When combined, they allow the tongue to be raised, lowered, moved forward, backward, and laterally when articulating consonants such as /t/, /d/, /s/, /z/, /l/, /r/, and many others.

The muscles of the palate, such as the *levator veli palatini* muscle and the *uvulae* muscle, are responsible for raising and lowering the palate. They form the hard and soft palate and help control airflow and resonance while speaking. The soft palate can be raised or lowered to control airflow through the nose and mouth. The palatal muscles are important for articulating sounds such as /k/, /g/ and /ŋ/. The muscles of the *temporomandibular* joint, such as the *masseter* muscle (Figure 2) and the *temporal* muscle, are responsible for the movement of the lower jaw (e.g. opening, closing) and thus, for the articulation of sounds such as /t/, /d/, /j/ and /r/. The muscles of the larynx play a central role in voice generation, more specifically in the production of vocal sound and pitch. These include the vocal cord muscle, *musculus vocalis*, and the *cricothyroideus* muscle. They allow the tension and positioning of the vocal cords to produce different pitches and vocal qualities.

Special trunk or core muscles are also involved, far away from the head or face. The diaphragm is the most important respiratory muscle and plays a crucial role in creating the airflow for speech. The abdominal muscles, including the straight and oblique abdominal muscles, support the function of the diaphragm in controlling the flow of air during speech. These muscles are located between the ribs and also help control breathing while speaking. Together, these respiratory muscles form the basis for pulmonic egressive sounds (all sounds in English), which require exhalation to

[2] Data adapted from Souza, Peter (2020): *Styloglossus Muscle* (https://anatomyzone.com/articles/*styloglossus*-muscle/; 17-12-2023)

produce meaningful speech sounds in addition to the articulatory muscles described above.

In all, speech production is a highly complex motor task that involves more than 100 muscles in the orofacial, laryngeal, pharyngeal, and respiratory systems. The precise and rapid coordination of these muscles and the production of temporally complex speech sounds require "long exposure and regular use" (Böttger 2020: 37).

3.2 Brain Areas Responsible for Planning, Executing/Controlling or Reflecting on Speech

The network of brain regions responsible for language and speech is often referred to as the *language network* or *language processing network*. It typically includes two main pathways, also known as the *dual loop* (Hickok & Poeppel 2007): the dorsal pathway and the ventral pathway. The *dorsal pathway* connects the Broca's area with the Wernicke's area via the *fasciculus arcuatus*. This pathway is involved in the pro- cessing of phonological and syntactic aspects of language and in the connection between language comprehension and the motor aspects of speech. The *ventral pathway* connects the Wernicke's area to the *anterior temporal lobe* and other frontal areas. It is involved in the processing of word meanings and semantic aspects of language (Böttger 2023: 126 for details).

Research refers to different models and theories of the functional organisation of the language network, such as the more traditional Wernicke-Lichtheim-Geschwind Model, which provides an early basis for understanding language processing in the brain, and more recent models based on advances in neuroscience and neuro-imaging technologies (Hagoort 2013). Research in this field remains active, and dif-ferent perspectives and models regarding the specific functions and interactions within this network continue to be explored.

The coordinated interaction in the network for planning, executing, and reflecting on the speech act involves numerous individual brain areas that complement each other in close interaction. Only in this way can language emerge. The most important key areas (Figure 4) are:

1. the Broca's area (part of Brodmann's area 44/45), which plays a crucial role in the planning of the motor aspects of language and grammar and is signifi-cantly involved in the production of spoken language,
2. the Wernicke's area (Brodmann's area 22), which is central to language com-prehension and is connected to Broca's area by the *fasciculus arcuatus*, a bundle of nerve fibres,
3. the Primary Motor Cortex (Brodmann's area 4), which is crucial for controlling and executing the movements necessary for articulation. Planning and coor-dination of complex movements, including speech movements, is done by the Supplementary Motor Area (SMA) and the Premotor Cortex,
4. the Auditory Cortex (Brodmann's area 41/42) as a fundamental basis for the perception and processing of acoustic signals,

5. the Inferior Parietal Lobe (Brodmann's area 39/40), which is involved in the multimodal integration of sensory and linguistic information,
6. the Anterior Cingulate Cortex (ACC) and Prefrontal Cortex, both of which are active in focusing attention, making word choices, and reflecting on spoken content,
7. the Basal Ganglia and Cerebellum, which are responsible for the timing and coordination of the motor activities required for speech,
8. the Angular and Supramarginal Gyrus, which play a central role in the processing of semantic word meanings and phonological information, and
9. the Insula, the so-called Insular Cortex, which coordinates articulatory movements:

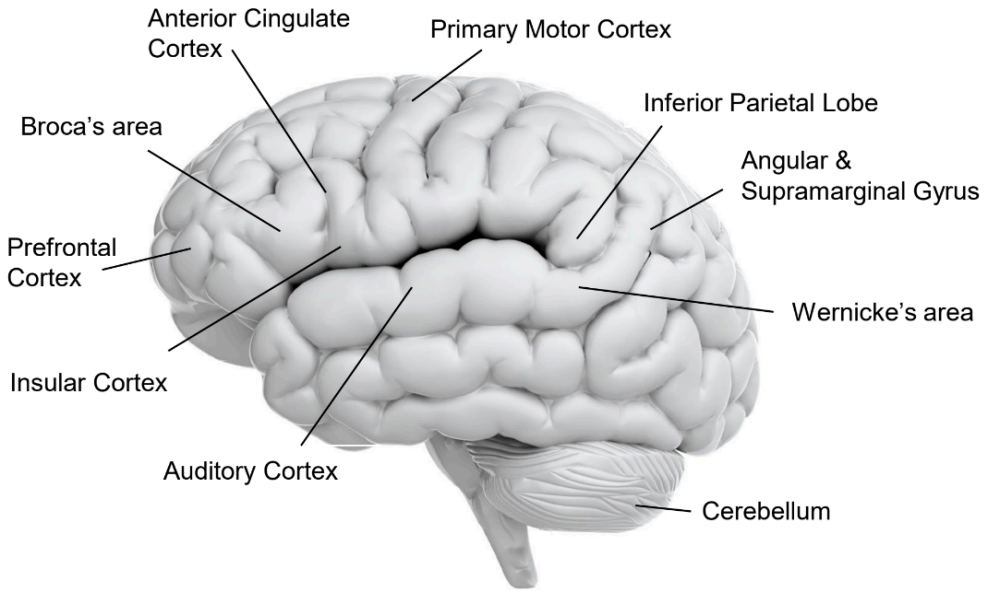

Figure 4: Key Brain Areas Involved in Language Processing and Production[3]

The number of individual sub-areas outlined above clarifies how complex speech is organised.

3.3 Motor Learning Theory and Speech Acquisition

Motor learning theories, which encompass the processes by which individuals acquire and refine motor skills, provide valuable insights into the development of speaking skills. Speaking is fundamentally a motor task that requires the precise coordination of various muscle groups in the vocal tract. The following discussion examines how motor learning theories elucidate the process of speaking skill development.

[3] *3d Render of Brain on White Background.* Data adapted from Shutterstock (n.d.) (https://www.shutter-stock.com/image-illustration/3d-render-brain-on-white-background-104263259; 17-12-2023)

The core principle of motor learning theories is the automatisation of motor sequences through consistent practice and repetition (Willingham 1998). This principle is particularly relevant to the development of speaking skills, where the automatisation of articulatory movements leads to improved fluency and accuracy in speech production (Max et al. 2004). Liberman & Mattingly (1985) proposed that speech perception is fundamentally a motor process, in which individuals perceive spoken words by identifying the intended articulatory gestures rather than the acoustic patterns generated. This theory sheds light on the motor basis of speech perception, which, in turn, has implications for the development of speaking skills. Embodied cognition theories argue that cognition is embedded in actions, suggesting a robust link between motor actions and language comprehension (Glenberg & Kaschak 2002). For example, the mirror neuron system is proposed to underlie the connection between action representation and language, further emphasising the role of motor learning in the development of speaking skills (Rizzolatti & Arbib 1998). Methodological strategies derived from motor learning theories, such as exercises that emphasise repetition, feedback, and deliberate practice, can significantly aid in the development of speaking skills (Ericsson et al. 1993). These strategies facilitate the consolidation of neuromotor patterns necessary for accurate and fluent speech production. The developmental pathways of language and motor skills exhibit rapid changes, plateaus, and a wide variability, making it difficult to disentangle their associations (Iverson 2010). However, recognising the interconnectedness of these domains can inform instructional practices aimed at enhancing speaking skills (Zambrana et al. 2014). Neurological studies highlight the long-lasting neuronal changes associated with motor learning and the formation of motor memories that are fundamental to understanding and facilitating the process of speaking skill development (Shadmehr & Holcomb 1997).

4 Methodological Implications

The acquisition of proficient speaking skills is a multifaceted endeavour that requires the harmonisation of cognitive, neuromotor, and affective domains. An essential facet of speaking skill development is the cultivation of muscle memory, which is fundamental to articulation and fluency. This chapter elucidates the methodological implications surrounding the holistic fostering of muscle memory in speaking skill development, with an emphasis on kinesthetic activities and motor exercises, as well as the role of repetition, feedback, and deliberate practice

4.1 Kinesthetic Activities and Motor Exercises Enhancing Articulation and Fluency

Kinesthetic activities and motor exercises play a key role in improving articulation and fluency in language learners. These activities forge physical connections between a concept and a tangible action, which, when repeated, promote the development of muscle memory for specific skills (BJU Blog 2023). Engaging learners in activities that require physical articulation of phonemes, words, and sentences can significantly enhance their articulatory precision and fluency. For example, tongue twisters, phonetic drills, and role-playing activities can provide

learners with opportunities to practise and refine the motor skills required for articulate speech. Moreover, the incorporation of motor exercises such as facial muscle and articulatory organ exercises can further reinforce muscle memory, thereby promoting enhanced articulation and fluency.

4.2 Repetition, Feedback, and Deliberate Practice Consolidating Muscle Memory for Speaking Skills

The consolidation of muscle memory for speaking skills is significantly influenced by repetition, feedback, and deliberate practice.

Repetition of articulatory movements and speech exercises facilitates the strengthening of neuromotor pathways, which is essential for the automation of speaking skills.

Feedback, both self-generated and externally provided, is crucial for identifying areas of improvement and facilitating the refinement of articulatory movements.

Deliberate practice, characterised by goal-oriented and focused repetition of speech exercises, is instrumental in fostering muscle memory (Pinzo et al. 2017).

Integrating these elements into the pedagogical framework can significantly accelerate the acquisition and consolidation of muscle memory for speaking skills.

5 Practical Examples

5.1 Examination of Successful Methodological Interventions Focusing on Muscle Memory to Improve Speaking Skills

Developing speaking skills through muscle memory involves a fusion of methodological strategies aimed at enhancing learners' motor and cognitive processes. While explicit resources directly linking muscle memory, methodological interventions, and speaking skill improvement might be scarce, various teaching techniques and learning strategies can be inferred to contribute to this objective. Below is a narrative synthesis structured around the key themes from the collected snippets.

5.1.1 Systematic Approach to Speaking Skills

Employing a systematic approach to teaching speaking skills can foster mastery, reduce language anxiety, and create a conducive learning environment. Although not explicitly mentioned, a systematic approach could include repetitive practice, which is central to the development of muscle memory (Askland et al. 2022).

5.1.2 Knowledge of Muscle Memory in Learning

Knowledge of muscle memory plays an important role in learning and efficient task performance. Hence, students should be educated about the impact that muscle

memory plays for enhancing their speaking skills as well as about exercises on how to best train it. In educational contexts, muscle memory is often harnessed to facilitate the retention and automatic retrieval of learned material or skills (Richards 2001).

5.1.3 Immersive Learning Techniques

Learning techniques in which students are immersed in a linguistic environment foster the improvement of speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills. Through this full engagement, learners develop a motor-cognitive synchronisation that aids in the seamless articulation of speech, analogous to muscle memory (Mahdi 2022). Yet, more research is needed in this field.

5.1.4 Kinesthetic Movement

Kinesthetic movement in the classroom has been suggested to build muscle memory, improving literacy skills. Although the discussed context is reading and writing, a parallel can be drawn to speaking skills, where kinesthetic activities might help in internalising phonetic and linguistic structures, thereby facilitating smoother speech delivery (Kindervater 2021)

5.1.5 *Debate* as a Methodological Intervention

Debate is a structured form of oral argumentation, where two or more parties express opposing viewpoints on a specific topic. It is an educational and competitive activity that emphasises critical thinking, effective communication, and research skills. As such, it is recognized as a valuable methodological tool for honing speaking skills By engaging in debates, learners can enhance various aspects of speaking competence. That is, the structured, engaging, and repetitive nature of debating supports language learners to formulate and articulate phrases, without focusing too much on pronunciation. It trains articulation through practice, just as physical repetition strengthens muscle memory for motor tasks, and includes implicit error correction (e.g., interaction partners repeating an incorrectly pronounced word accurately in their response). In contrast to monotonous repetition of words, it improves automaticity in speech production appealingly; it can, hence, potentially contribute to the development of muscle memory (el Majidi et al. 2021).

These collected insights hint at the intricate interplay between methodological interventions, muscle memory, and the enhancement of speaking skills. While the direct relationship might require further empirical exploration, the synthesised information provides a pathway to understanding how muscle memory can be harnessed methodologically to bolster speaking skills.

5.2 Evaluation of the Impact of Muscle Memory-focused Methodology on Learners' Speaking Proficiency

Muscle memory must be considered a fundamental aspect of language learning. It is especially crucial for speaking, i.e., a real-time activity requiring prompt responses to interactions. It also allows for real-time evaluation as students recognize successful or unsuccessful speaking trials immediately: As learners repeatedly practise speaking, they start to internalise the correct forms and structures of the language. This process enables them to instantly recognise when a sentence structure feels right or wrong, based on their previous successful or unsuccessful attempts. This notion suggests that muscle memory could potentially be integral in enhancing speaking proficiency through adequate methodological approaches.

What follows is an exploration of the impact of muscle memory-focused methodology on learners' speaking proficiency. This outline assimilates insights from a variety of sources, some of which hint at the relevance of muscle memory in language learning and speaking proficiency, although they do not directly evaluate muscle memory-focused methodology.

5.2.1 Cooperative Learning Strategies

Namaziandost et al.'s (2019) study explored the impact of cooperative learning – an instructional strategy where students collaborate on common tasks – on intermediate EFL learners' oral proficiency and motivation. Although not directly labelled as a muscle memory-focused pedagogy, cooperative learning could foster muscle memory through repeated interactive practices, potentially enhancing speaking proficiency. That is, as learners work together and practice language skills in a supportive environment, they are likely to experience more meaningful, real-life communication scenarios. This immersive and interactive environment encourages frequent use of the language, contributing to a more natural and automatic use of language structures and vocabulary, thereby improving overall language fluency.

5.2.2 Word-focused Exercise Conditions

A study investigating the effects of word-focused exercise conditions on vocabulary learning suggests that certain exercise types might influence language proficiency. While this study did not specifically address speaking proficiency or muscle memory, word-focused exercises could implicitly contribute to the development of muscle memory, thereby improving speaking skills (Teng 2022). In terms of language learning, the repetitive nature of these activities could make an important contribution. More specifically, regularly engaging in exercises that target specific vocabulary consolidates word retrieval processes, making them more automatic. This automaticity is a form of muscle memory in which the brain efficiently encodes and retrieves linguistic information without conscious effort. Over time, this can lead to smoother, more fluent speaking skills as learners are able to access and use vocabulary more easily in conversation.

5.2.3 Pronunciation and Methodological Approaches

Pronunciation, an essential aspect of speaking, is influenced by teachers' methodological approaches. Addressing pronunciation issues through specific strategies could implicitly involve muscle memory training, improving learners' speaking proficiency over time (Pennington & Rogerson-Revell 2019). Shadowing exercises, where learners repeat spoken words or phrases immediately after hearing them, can be particularly effective for this purpose. This method helps in aligning learners' articulatory movements with the correct pronunciation patterns. Tongue twisters and minimal pair drills, which focus on discriminating similar sounds, can also strengthen muscle memory and aid in the accurate production of sounds. Moreover, integrating stress and intonation pattern exercises helps learners grasp the rhythm of the language, contributing to more natural and fluent speech.

6 Discussion

The exploration of muscle memory in the domain of speech training unveils a multitude of potential benefits and challenges that are worth looking into for educators and researchers alike. Muscle memory, often viewed through the lens of motor learning, holds a significant place in language acquisition and speaking proficiency. It is posited that muscle memory plays an important role in language learning, particularly in speaking, which is a real-time activity requiring instantaneous responses (Lewis 2013). The essence of muscle memory is further echoed in cooperative learning strategies where repetitive interactive practices could foster muscle memory, potentially enhancing speaking proficiency (Namaziandost et al. 2019).

Moreover, the spotlight on word-focused exercises reveals that certain types of exercises might contribute to the development of muscle memory, thereby improving speaking skills (Teng 2022). Addressing pronunciation issues through specific methodological strategies could implicitly involve muscle memory training, improving learners' speaking proficiency over time (Pennington & Rogerson-Revell 2019). The discussion around speech-motor learning unveils that it necessitates not only the learning of a new motor plan but also a complementary perceptual-linguistic representation, hinting at the intertwined nature of muscle memory and linguistic proficiency (van Zelst et al. 2021).

Articulation therapy provides a window into understanding that speech, like every learned procedural memory, is based on muscle memory, with articulators working together to perfect speech sounds. As correct sounds are consistently made, muscle memory takes over, easing their production. Of particular note here is the nuanced discussion on muscle memory in speech production between Brené Brown, known for her research on vulnerability and leadership, and neuroscientist David Eagleman, who specialises in the brain's perceptual processes: it highlights the complex interplay between the brain, learning, and emotional processes in developing language proficiency. It also explores how our emotional resilience and neurological functions are intertwined, providing a deeper understanding of language learning and speaking skills from both psychological and scientific perspectives. In short, by combining expert insights from neuroscience and human behaviour, this discussion sheds light

on the relevance of muscle memory in speech production, hinting at a nuanced understanding required in language methodology (Mason & Eagleman 2020).

Furthermore, it is articulated that repeating a physical action many times can develop a permanent memory, which is crucial for improving pronunciation, an essential aspect of speaking proficiency (Vocals on Stage 2017). The concept of muscle memory is often associated with learning new skills and emphasises the importance of daily practice for kinesthetic coordination, a concept that could be harnessed in speech and language methodology.

The potential benefits of focusing on muscle memory might include enhanced automaticity and fluency in speech production and a reduced cognitive load on learners. However, challenges such as an over-reliance on memorisation and the variance in individual motor and cognitive abilities might impact the effectiveness of muscle memory-focused methodology. That is, while these methodologies may be a perfect fit for some learners, others may find it difficult to develop correct pronunciation with these due to, for example, differences in motor skills. This means that there is no one-size-fits-all approach to language learning, which relies heavily on memorization; instead, adaptive teaching strategies and abilities are needed to accommodate diverse learning styles.

The discourse around muscle memory in speech or language methodology necessitates a deeper empirical investigation. Recommendations for further research could encompass conducting empirical studies to evaluate the effectiveness of muscle memory-focused methodology on different learner groups and fostering interdisciplinary research collaborations between linguists, psychologists, and educators. On the practical front, integrated practical approaches that amalgamate muscle memory training within a holistic methodological framework and targeted teacher training on effective strategies to integrate muscle memory-focused exercises in speech training could be envisaged.

The integration of muscle memory-focused approaches in speech and language methodology, then, presents a promising venture. A nuanced understanding of its benefits and challenges, backed by empirical research, is crucial for realising its potential in enhancing speaking proficiency and designing effective methodological strategies.

7 Conclusion

To synthesise the information explored above, it is evident that muscle memory holds a significant niche in speech or language methodology, potentially serving as a linchpin for enhancing speaking proficiency. The intrinsic role of muscle memory in language learning, particularly in real-time speaking activities, underscores its importance (Lewis 2013). Methodological strategies like cooperative learning could implicitly foster the development of muscle memory through repetitive interactive practices, hinting at the potential for enhanced speaking proficiency (Namaziandost et al. 2019).

Moreover, the discourse on word-focused exercises, pronunciation training, and articulation therapy accentuates the potential interplay between muscle memory and various aspects of speech production, from pronunciation to fluent articulation (Teng et al. 2022, Pennington & Rogerson-Revell 201,; van Zelst et al. 2021). The nuance of speech motor learning, as discussed in the context of memory consolidation, further elucidates the intertwined nature of muscle memory and linguistic proficiency, hinting at a complex but promising area for exploration in speech and language methodology.

The above-mentioned dialogue between Brené Brown and neuroscientist David Eagleman (2020), along with the emphasis on daily practice in vocal training, resonates with the idea that muscle memory, fostered through consistent practice, could be a cornerstone for advancing speaking proficiency (Mason & Eagleman 2020, Marner-Brooks 2017). However, the road to harnessing muscle memory in language methodology is not without challenges, such as the risk of over-reliance on memorisation and the variance in individual motor and cognitive abilities.

The comprehensive evaluation of muscle memory in speech pedagogy beckons a multidisciplinary approach, encompassing empirical research and practical applications. It calls for an amalgam of insights from linguists, psychologists, educators, and speech therapists to unravel the full spectrum of benefits and challenges that muscle memory-focused methodology could entail. The promising potential of muscle memory-focused approaches, juxtaposed with the inherent challenges, underscores the need for a nuanced, evidence-backed exploration to design effective methodological strategies that could potentially revolutionise language education and, by extension, improve learners' speaking proficiency.

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Comment acquérir une compétence d'oral spontané en situation d'apprentissage institutionnalisée

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Résumé

L'acquisition de compétences en oral spontané, objectif prioritaire de l'enseignement scolaire des langues vivantes, nécessite le recours à des paradigmes linguistiques et didactiques appropriés. Au niveau linguistique, il s'agit de se référer à une approche interactionnelle et multimodale de la communication dont les structures de toutes les strates communicationnelles sont à élaborer sur la base de corpus de manifestations conversationnelles en contexte naturel. Les structures servant de base à l'apprentissage-acquisition par l'apprenant sont décrites en tant que constructions lexicogrammaticales, i.e. de structures syntaxiques plus ou moins pourvues lexicalement, que les apprenants mémorisent en tant qu'ensembles holistiques à employer tels quels. Au niveau didactique, il importe, dans une perspective constructiviste de créer un environnement pédagogique qui permet l'apprentissage et la subséquente acquisition durable et opérationnelle des constructions adéquates.

Mots clés : *Oral* spontané*, acquisition, approche interactionnelle et multimodale, construction lexicogrammaticale, approche constructiviste*

Abstract (Deutsch)

Der Erwerb spontaner mündlich-dialogischer Kommunikationsfähigkeit, zentrales Lernziel schulischen Fremdsprachenunterrichts, erfordert den Rückgriff auf angemessene linguistische und didaktische Ansätze. Ein interaktionell und multimodal orientiertes linguistisches Vorgehen ist unerlässlich, um auf der Grundlage von Korpora sämtliche Facetten konversationeller Aktivi täten in natürlichen kommunikativen Kontexten zu erfassen. Lernerrelevante kommunikative Strukturen werden so als lexikogrammatische Konstruktionseinheiten beschrieben, d.h. syntaktische Rahmen, deren *slots* in mehr oder weniger starkem Maße lexikalisch besetzt sind. Derartige "Konstruktionen" bilden die Grundlage des Fremdsprachenlernens. Um im institutionellen Kontext Motivation und insbesondere dauerhafte kommunikative Kompetenz zu schaffen, ist die Umsetzung eines konstruktivistischen Ansatzes erforderlich.

Stichwörter: Spontane mündliche Fremdsprachenkompetenz, dauerhafter Spracherwerb, interaktionaler und multimodaler linguistischer Ansatz, lexikogrammatische Konstruktionseinheiten, konstruktivistischer didaktischer Ansatz

Abstract (English)

The acquisition of spontaneous oral communicative competence, the main objective of institutional foreign language teaching, requires a return to appropriate linguistic and methodological paradigms. In order to comprehensively describe communicative activities relevant to the foreign language learner on the basis of representative corpora of naturally occurring conversations, an interactional and multimodal approach is essential. These communicative structures are described as *lexicogrammatical constructions*, i.e. syntactic frameworks whose 'slots' are more or less lexically provided and which serve as a basis for foreign language learning. To create motivation and ensure the long-term acquisition of these "constructions", it is necessary to apply a constructivist methodology.

Keywords: Spontaneous oral competence, perennial acquisition, interactional and multimodal approach, lexicogrammatical constructions, constructivist methodology

1 Introduction

Sous l'impulsion du Cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues (CERCL), les instructions officielles pour l'enseignement des langues étrangères de l'Éducation Nationale française attachent une importance particulière à l'acquisition d'une compétence orale opérationnelle en situation exolingue, notamment à l'oral "en interaction", non préparé en amont, contrairement à l'oral en continu.[1]

Les réflexions présentées porteront sur l'apprentissage en contexte institutionnalisé (scolaire, universitaire, école de langue...), non pas sur l'apprentissage au sein de situations en contexte naturel, i.e. non sollicité pour les besoins d'analyse, régies par des paramètres très différents, notamment la poursuite d'un objectif communicatif dans un cadre situationnel authentique ou encore l'interaction avec un locuteur natif. Il s'agira en outre de compétences actives ou productives, différentes des compétences passives ou réceptives qui dépassent en règle générale ce qu'un apprenant devrait être capable de produire de façon active en situation de contact.

La définition de la nature de l'oralité au sein du CERCL reste cependant très éclectique, empruntant à divers paradigmes, *a priori* pas toujours compatibles, entre autres à la grammaire générative de Chomsky, à la théorie des actes de langage ou à l'analyse de conversations (Schmale 2014). Les approches évoquées par le CERCL et par l'Éducation Nationale ne reflètent pas pour autant l'état actuel de la recherche en linguistique et didactique car elles restent enracinées dans une conception actionnelle-monologique, non pas interactionnelle-dialogique de la communication orale (Puren 2002, Schmale 2016a). Or le développement d'une conception véritablement interactionnelle de l'oralité nécessite le recours à une approche orientée vers les corpus (dans l'acception de Blanche-Benveniste 2005 : 57) ainsi qu'à un modèle linguistique holistique. Ces deux piliers théoriques constitueront le fondement d'une approche didactique de l'apprentissage voire même de l'acquisition[2] de l'oral spontané en classe. La réflexion sera organisée en quatre étapes : Quelle est l'importance de l'oral spontanée pour l'apprenant d'une LE et quels phénomènes de ce registre langagier doit-il maîtriser ? (point 2). Il s'impose ensuite de déterminer un modèle de description de l'oral spontané à des fins didactiques, orienté vers les corpus et une conception holistique des activités conversationnelles (point. 3). Cette dernière sera approfondie à travers une esquisse de la grammaire de constructions (point 4). La mise en pratique en classe nécessite naturellement un positionnement relatif à une approche pour l'enseignement-apprentissage en contexte non-naturel (point 5). En guise de conclusion nous proposerons une esquisse de la conception constructiviste en tant que théorie d'apprentissage (point 6).

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[1] La présente contribution se fait dans le prolongement d'une conférence plénière proposée lors de la journée d'études « Linguistique et didactique de l'oral spontané en France », Université Toulouse le Mirail, le 07 octobre 2022, co-organisée par Liubov Patrukhina (Univ. Toulouse le Mirail) et Jeanne Vigneron-Bosbach (Université de Poitiers).

[2] En nous référant à la distinction d'Holec (1989) entre "l'apprentissage" et "l'acquisition", la dernière relevant d'un processus individuel, *a priori* incontrôlable par l'enseignant.

2 L'oral spontané – Pertinence et caractéristiques

L'acquisition de compétences opérationnelles en communication orale revêt une imp ortance primordiale pour l'apprenant d'une LE pour plusieurs raisons.

- Premièrement, du fait – aussi bien qu'en phylogenèse qu'en ontogenèse – que l'oral l'emporte sans conteste sur l'écrit. Les hommes préhistoriques se sont parlé pour coordonner leurs activités de chasse et les enfants échangent oralement avec leurs parents bien avant qu'ils soient capables de communiquer avec eux au moyen de lettres ou plutôt de courriels ou de SMS dès six ou sept ans.
- Deuxièmement, sans même avoir besoin d'évoquer l'incidence grandissante de l'oralité sur la conceptualité de l'écrit, force est de constater que la communication orale occupe une place prépondérante dans la société moderne, en particulier pour ce qui des situations que l'apprenant d'une langue étrangère est susceptible de rencontrer.
- Troisièmement, l'interaction verbale est multimodale, fondée sur des facteurs segmentaux (syntaxe et lexique), suprasegmentaux ou prosodiques (débit, intensité, intonation...), corporels (statique, mimique, kinésique…) et contextuels (lieu, heure, interlocuteurs) alors que la communication écrite se limite au niveau segmental.

Il s'ensuit que la communication orale est régie par des principes à tous les niveaux qui divergent dans une plus grande mesure de ceux de la production écrite. Aussi, cette dernière ne peut servir de modèle pour l'enseignement-apprentissage de l'oral spontanée (en interaction).

Les phénomènes de l'oralité pertinents pour l'apprenant d'une LE, à différencier en fonction de l'âge et du niveau de compétence de l'apprenant, sont à décrire sur la base de corpus de productions orales représentatifs. Il va de soi que toute structure rencontrée au sein d'un corpus oral employée par un locuteur natif n'est *a priori* pas destinée à être transmise à un apprenant non natif. Aussi, tous les phénomènes propres à l'oralité mis en œuvre par les locuteurs natifs mentionnés par exemple par Fiehler (2001: 123-126) n'ont pas vocation *per se* à être enseignés à un locuteur non natif, peu importe son niveau de maîtrise de la langue étrangère, entre autres :

- Au niveau phonétique : les liaisons orales du type *hasse, kannse, willse* dans le Nord de l'Allemagne (hast du, kannst du, willst du), ['init] (isn't it) en anglais relâché tout comme le ['ʃɛ'pʌ] (je ne sais pas) en français.
- Au niveau morphosyntaxique : les "constructions apokoinu" : *ich suche das Wörterbuch … brauch ich, tu devrais goûter le roquefort … est très bon, there was a door … led into the kitchen* ; le verbe conjugué en deuxième position après des subjonctions telles *weil, wenn obwohl, p. ex ich konnte nicht kom- men, weil … ich war krank*; déclinaison faible de démonstratifs : *im Sommer <u>diesen</u> Jahres* ; le double superlatif : *die meistverkauft<u>este</u> Single des Jahres*.
- Au niveau lexical : les idiotismes fortement imagés et / ou métaphoriques (*ins Fettnäpfchen treten, jmdm. nicht das Wasser reichen können*), les ex-

pressions argotiques (*keinen Bock mehr haben, jmdm. auf den Sack gehen*), les jurons (*leck mich, Scheiße*).

- Au niveau pragmatique-interactif : correction du partenaire, jeux de mots, activités conversationnelles qui semblent *a priori* « réservées » au locuteur natif (cf. nos remarques ci-après sur les culturèmes). En effet, ce n'est pas à l'ap- prenant de corriger son interlocuteur/trice ou encore de faire des jeux de mots qui pourraient être interprétés comme erreur langagier.

Avant de détailler au point suivant un modèle linguistique-communicatif sous-tendant l'apprentissage d'une LE en contexte institutionnalisé, il est nécessaire de préciser les principes fondamentaux qui doivent systématiquement régir tout acte pédagogique en classe de LE. Les activités langagières et communicatives doivent:

- correspondre à l'âge, au niveau de compétence, à la relation sociale entre locuteur non natif et natif, à la situation de communication ;
- répondre à un style neutre, non marqué, ne déviant par conséquent de phonétique, morphosyntaxe, lexique, etc. d'un niveau considéré comme standard ;
- tenir compte de la bonne prononciation des structures en question ainsi que de la communication corporelle (non verbale) : on salue qui et comment ; importance et sens des gestes ; distance par rapport à l'interlocuteur ;
- respecter les « culturèmes » (Poyatos, 1976, Oksaar 1988), d'une part, les types d'activités ou de comportements fortement attendus (p. ex. utiliser les formules de routine appropriées, gestes / mimiques, conventions de table), d'autre part, les activités ou comportements non admis de la part d'un locuteur non natif susceptibles même de provoquer des réactions réprobatrices comme faire des jeux de mots, revendiquer le statut de natif. Dobrovol'skij & Lubimova (1993) soulignent en effet :

> Als Nichtmuttersprachler muss man sozusagen immer ein doppeltes Spiel spielen nach dem Prinzip: Ich fühle mich zwar in dieser Kultur wie zu Hause, bin mir aber ständig im Klaren, dass es sich für mich dabei um eine fremde Kultur handelt. (ibid.: 156)[3]

3 Une approche holistique pour la description de l'oral spontané

Fondés sur les principes esquissés ci-devant, un modèle linguistique qui facilite le développement d'une compétence communicative interculturelle opérationnelle sera mis en œuvre. Générer de telles capacités présuppose l'existence d'automatismes communicatifs, indispensables afin de pouvoir interagir efficacement en situation exolingue. Or, de tels automatismes, composés de structures communicatives mémorisées et spontanément activables, nécessitent comme condition *sine qua non* le recours à des structures langagières holistiques, toutes faites, préfabriquées, ou encore préformées. En effet, l'approche classique recourant à la trans-

[3] En tant que locuteur non-natif on doit jouer un double jeu selon le principe : Je me sens chez moi dans cette culture tout en acceptant qu'il s'agit pour moi d'une culture étrangère. (notre traduction)

mission de règles grammaticales d'ordre théorique accompagnées de listes de vocabulaire s'avère inefficace à la création d'automatismes. S'il est vrai que l'approche actionnelle, qui n'est du reste toujours pas *inter*actionnelle avec tout ce que cela implique, privilégie le succès communicatif à la correction grammaticale et, dans une moindre mesure, lexicale[4], cette méthodologie inspirée fortement de la théorie des actes du langage, s'appuie néanmoins sur une description traditionnelle de la structure langagière. Comme évoqué, cette approche s'est avérée non productive, *a fortiori* lorsqu'elle :

- est trop abstraite pour le jeune apprenant ;
- présente les phénomènes en question de manière décontextualisée, en faisant abstraction de situations de communication susceptibles de tenir compte de la multimodalité et des facteurs d'utilisation appropriés ;
- s'appuie sur la traduction dans la langue maternelle des apprenants alors le phénomène respectif est soumis à des contraintes non comparables (Schmale 2016b pour la construction passive ou Schmale 2020b pour les verbes de modalité *sollen* et *müssen*) ;
- comprend des erreurs descriptives (ibid.).

En revanche, un modèle d'apprentissage efficace d'une LE doit, d'une part, décrire tout phénomène linguistique et communicatif sur des bases de corpus de communications en contexte naturel, et d'autre part, en fonction de constructions lexicogrammaticales, c'est-à-dire de cadres syntaxiques lexicalement plus ou moins pourvus, réactivables tels quels ou facilement transformables en tant qu'énoncés (par définition multimodaux).

Une telle approche holistique stipule que les communicants recourent à des constructions lexicogrammaticales préformées, comme le souligne Bolinger (1976) :

> […] our language does not expect us to build everything starting with lumber, nails, and blueprint, but provides us with an incredibly large number of prefabs, which have the magical property of persisting even when we knock some of them apart and put them together in unpredictable ways. (Bolinger 1976: 1)

Gasparov (2004) va même jusqu'à affirmer que

> Whatever we say or perceive in speech is made from other facts of speech, which we recognize more or less as being present in our previous experience and being set in our memory. (Gasparov 2004: 46)

Les recherches sur la préformation langagière existent de longue date, remontant à Bréal (1972), Paul (1880) ou Bally (1909) pour n'en citer que quelques-unes (Schmale 2021a). Plus récemment, certains travaux proposent des études quantitatives relatives à la fréquence d'utilisation pour arriver à un taux de 70 % (Wray & Perkins 2000) ou même de 80% de « formulaic material » (Wray 2000: 466)[5]. Ces

[4] Interdisant même le cours grammatical traditionnel.

[5] Erman & Warren (2000) affirment que 52% de la production écrite et 58% de la production orale sont composés de structures fabriquées.

résultats sont toutefois à prendre avec précaution, compte tenu de critères de classement peu distinctifs.

Mais attention, toute structure préformée n'a pas automatiquement vocation à être utilisée par le locuteur non natif. Nous écartons, en effet, de l'enseignement tout apprentissage systématique de proverbes (*Morgenstund hat Gold im Mund*) et de lieux communs (*Was sein muss, muss sein*), d'expressions idiomatiques fortement imagées et sémantiquement non compositionelles (*Öl ins Feuer gießen, ins Fettnäpfchen treten*), mais aussi de certains types de formules de routine (*das verbitte ich mir, das glaubst du doch selbst nicht*).

Tout d'abord parce que les catégories phraséologiques évoquées font partie des culturèmes, c'est-à-dire des phénomènes communicatifs "réservés" aux natifs dont l'emploi par un apprenant de LE n'est que rarement salué de façon positive, pouvant même entraîner des réactions négatives si l'emploi ne correspond pas à l'âge ou au statut social de l'apprenant, notamment s'il peut être interprété comme prise de position haute.

De plus, étant donné la complexité de leurs structures syntaxique et sémantique et leurs conditions d'utilisation, ces expressions préformées sont difficilement mises en œuvre de façon communicativement adéquate par un apprenant. Ceci d'autant plus que les recherches en phraséologie, lexicologie et lexicographie se sont peu intéressées aux fonctions communicatives, ayant mené leurs investigations de surcroît à partir de corpus écrits, non pas conversationnels (Schmale, à par.).

En outre, une analyse de large corpus révèle que même les locuteurs natifs font très peu appel aux idiotismes que l'on trouve dans les collections et dictionnaires spécialisés (p. ex. le Duden 11, 2020). Les études de grands corpus en témoignent, p.ex. Moon (1996) :

> Note, however, that 30% of the idioms in The Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Idioms (1995) occur less often than once per 10 million words in The Bank of English. (Moon 1996 : 252)

Pour l'allemand, Schmale (2023) démontre que seulement un nombre négligeable des idiotismes appartenant à une liste se revendiquant le statut de « Phraseologisches Optimum » (Hallsteinsdottir et al. 2006 : 133-136)[6] se retrouvent effectivement dans un corpus de 32 heures d'enregistrements de talk-shows, mis à part *sich ein Bild machen, aus heiterem Himmel, unter einen Hut bringen, die Nase voll haben, auf die Nerven gehen, auf den Punkt bringen, keine Rolle spielen, aufs Spiel setzen, rote Zahlen schreiben, Rede und Antwort stehen, auf dem Spiel stehen*. D'un autre côté, un nombre à peine légèrement supérieur des phrasèmes idiomatiques du corpus étudié sont employés dans un grand corpus de langue parlée comme la *Datenbank Gesprochenes Deutsch* (DGD) de l'IDS Mannheim[7], p. ex. *keinen Bock (mehr) haben, auf die Nerven gehen, mit dem ersten Schritt beginnen, den Schwarzen Peter haben* et quelques rares occurrences supplémentaires.

[6] Pas plus que ceux de la collection proposée par Dobrovols'kij (1997 : 265-288) intitulée « Phraseologisches Minimum ».

[7] https://dgd.ids-mannheim.de/dgd/pragdb.dgd_extern.welcome (17/09/2023).

Il faut néanmoins admettre que la représentativité d'un corpus ne peut être que rela- tive, comme le constate Steyer (2003) :

> Er (i.e. der Linguist; GS) muss sich zunächst von der Idee der absoluten Repräsentativität eines Korpus verabschieden, eines repräsentativen Korpus, das ihm dazu verhilft, sprachlichen Usus schlechthin beschreiben zu können. Repräsentativität kann in unserem Verständnis nur ein relationaler Terminus sein, ein Korpus ist repräsentativ in Bezug auf etwas (etwa auf einen Teil der Sprachgemeinschaft, auf einen Text- bzw. Diskursbereich, auf eine historische Etappe usw.). (Steyer 2003: 35)

Force est néanmoins de constater que l'emploi d'idiotismes reste l'exception, d'un côté, et que la prétention des travaux cités ci-devant de présenter le minimum voire l'optimum du stock phraséologique de l'allemand a été falsifiée. Même si l'on s'appuyait sur des corpus représentatifs relatifs aux besoins communicatifs d'un apprenant LE, on ne pourrait du reste pas envisager l'apprentissage des expressions préformées par des locuteurs natifs pour les raisons développées plus haut.

En revanche, certaines catégories de phrasèmes doivent obligatoirement constituer une partie intégrante de la compétence productive de chaque apprenant : les *formules de routine*, les *collocations* et les *constructions* :

- Les *formules de routine* ou *pragmatèmes* accomplissent des activités communicatives sous une forme conventionnelle ou stéréotypée dans quasiment toutes les situations de communication ou contextes discursifs imaginables, à l'écrit comme à l'oral, p. ex. *saluer, remercier, s'excuser, féliciter, se plaindre, se renseigner* etc. Elles sont indispensables pour que l'apprenant LE puisse agir et interagir de manière compétente en situation de contact sous peine de sanctions communicatives.

- *Les collocations* sont des combinaisons usuelles d'unités lexicales, tels que *sich die Zähne putzen, se laver les dents, brush one's teeth* ou encore *einen Termin vereinbaren, prendre rendez-vous* etc., *make an appointment*. Ces associations lexicales doivent être apprises par l'apprenant car, bien qu'interprétables en contexte, la production pourrait induire des transferts erronés en raison de la variation des verbes collocateurs entre les langues citées. Elles sont de ce fait incontournables, en particulier face à milliers de collocations dont l'étude sur corpus de discours en contexte naturel n'est qu'à ses débuts.

- Les *constructions* dans l'acception de la *grammaire de construction* (CxG) sont des combinaisons lexicogrammaticales, c'est-à-dire des cadres morphosyntaxiques plus ou moins prévus lexicalement. Elles dépassent largement le champ des expressions phraséologiques étudiées jusqu'à présent.

Étant donné que ces constructions sont au cœur de l'approche holistique préconisée, un point entier du présent article lui sera consacré.

4 Les constructions lexicogrammaticales

Dans leur article fondateur de la *grammaire de construction* (CxG), Fillmore, Kay & O'Connor (1988) partent de l'idée que ce qui est idiomatique dans les langues ne peut être saisi par une « atomistic grammar » (ibid.: 504). Ils définissent l'idiomaticité de la manière suivante :

> We think of a locution or manner of speaking as idiomatic if it is assigned an interpretation by the speech community but if somebody who merely knew the grammar and the vocabulary of the language could not, by virtue of that knowledge alone, know (i) how to say it, or (ii) what it means, or (iii) whether it is a conventional thing to say. Put differently, an idiomatic expression or construction is something a language user could fail to know while knowing everything else in the language. (ibid.: 504)

Les auteurs définissent les constructions, regroupant des « exceptional phenomena, minor sentence types, special constructions, locutions, manners of speaking » (ibid.: 504), en tant que ‹ form-meaning-pairs › dont la description doit recourir à des informations non seulement syntaxiques, mais aussi lexicales, sémantiques et pragmatiques (ibid.: 501). Il existe deux types de *constructions* : d'une part, les « substantive idioms » dont « lexical make-up is (more or less) fully specified » (ibid.: 505), qui correspondent donc *grosso modo* aux expressions phraséologiques classiques, d'autre part, les « formal idioms », « syntactic patterns dedicated to semantic and pragmatic purposes not knowable from their form alone » (ibid.: 505-506), i.e. des cadres syntaxiques proposant des « slots » à remplir par des unités lexicales dont le choix est toutefois restreint co- et contextuellement[8].

Face à ce paradigme fondamentalement cognitiviste et, par conséquent, non empirique, nous favorisons – d'après Ziem & Lasch (2013) – une approche fondée sur l'usage au sein de corpus de conversations en contexte naturel. En effet, afin de démontrer que les constructions – et en particulier quelles constructions – sont réellement enracinées dans la mémoire des communicants et réactivables telles quelles, un recours à la linguistique de corpus est indispensable. Seule une telle approche empirique est à même de véritablement décrire tous les facteurs afférents à l'emploi en contexte naturel des activités communicatives au niveau segmental, prosodique, corporel, pragmatique etc. Ziem & Lasch (2013) soulignent de ce fait :

> Als Konstruktion dürfen […] Form-Bedeutungspaare gelten, insofern Form und Bedeutung in einem weiten Sinn verstanden werden, dergestalt, dass erstere nicht nur phonologische, sondern auch syntaktische Aspekte umfasst, und letztere nicht nur semantische Aspekte, sondern auch pragmatische Gebrauchsbedingungen einschließt. Konstruktionen sind demnach weder hinsichtlich ihrer Abstraktheit noch hinsichtlich ihrer Komplexität beschränkt. (Ziem & Lasch 2013: 10)

Adoptant une perspective fondée sur l'usage en contexte naturel d'une part, et inter- actionniste, d'autre part, les constructions lexicogrammaticales sont régies par trois principes fondamentaux :

[8] Nous faisons abstraction de l'approche largement discutée de Goldberg (2006), qui préconise une conception extrêmement étendue de la notion de "construction", y intégrant des éléments même au niveau du morphème.

- La conventionnalité : Les constructions sont employées de manière récurrente sous une forme *a priori* non figée au sens strict, mais reconnaissable à partir de dénominateurs minimaux de préformation. Leur forme avec tout ce qu'elle implique est déterminée à partir de l'étude de grands corpus de communication en contexte naturel.
- La nature cognitive et conceptuelle : Leur forme de base correspond à une combinaison d'éléments syntaxiques, lexicaux et fonctionnels qui est in scrite en mémoire, mais qui doit être mise en œuvre au sein de contextes langagiers pouvant nécessiter des adaptations, des modifications et des changements.
- La polyfactorialité : Les constructions sont composées de facteurs morpho-syntaxiques, lexicaux, prosodiques, corporels, cotextuels et contextuels. Elles sont, par conséquent, déterminées à partir de leur polyfactorialité, la polylexicalité ne constituant plus une condition suffisante. Même si la plupart des phrasèmes sont le plus souvent polylexicaux, ils peuvent de ce fait être monolexicaux, p. ex. les formules de routine *Achtung !, Vorsicht !, Glückwunsch !*, liant un monolexème à une fonction au sein d'une situation caractéristique, des facteurs spécifiques étant donc étroitement rattachés à leur emploi. Il importe de souligner que tout phrasème, qu'il soit polylexical ou monolexical, est *a priori* soumis à la polyfactorialité (Schmale 2020a).

À titre illustratif, ci-après quatre types de constructions, décrits par la recherche dans ce domaine, qui ne cesse de prendre de plus en plus d'ampleur :

- La construction *réponse dubitative* : *Ich und zu spät ? Er und ein Freund? Du und verlässlich? – Lui avocat? Moi abandonner? Lui s'excuser ? – Me, lie / a lier? Her, sing arias? Me, crazy?*
- La construction *exclamation / emphase* : *Wie geil ist das denn! Wie bescheuert ist das denn! – Qu'est-ce que c'est bête / nul / idiot ! – How strange / weird / stupid is that!*
- La construction *expression du désespoir* : *Es ist zum Haare ausreißen! Es ist zum wahnsinnig werden! Es ist zum Verzweifeln! – C'est à se taper la tête contre le mur !*
- La construction *mécontentement / reproche* : *Was glotzt du mich so °an? Was °redest du da? Was °soll das?*[9] *– Qu'est-ce qu'il a à me regarder comme ça ? Mais qu'est-ce qu'il a à vouloir tout changer ? – Why are you staring at me? Why are you saying that?*

À la suite des principes posés plus haut (point 3), il convient toutefois d'écarter ces types de construction des structures destinées à l'apprentissage par l'apprenant d'une langue étrangère. Elles sont, en effet, trop marquées stylistiquement et trop idiomatiques pour être employées par un non natif.

Nous proposons, en revanche, une approche semi-inductive, en tentant de décrire en tant que constructions des phénomènes langagiers qui posent problème aux apprenants de l'allemand comme langue étrangère. Cette approche sera illustrée par le biais d'une esquisse de la particule modale *denn*, omniprésente dans les

[9] Le signe ° marque l'accent d'énoncé de ces trois constructions allemandes.

manuels de l'allemand depuis le niveau le plus élémentaire, sans pour autant générer un emploi correspondant à la réalité communicative. Une description de *denn* en tant que construction voire au sein de constructions[10] tentera de remédier à cette lacune.

L'emploi préconisé de *denn* dans les manuels scolaires semble suggérer que toutes les questions imaginables doivent être posées en insérant *denn*, la formule type que l'on trouve systématiquement étant *Wie heißt du denn?* De toute évidence, promouvoir une telle utilisation témoigne de l'absence d'une analyse fondée sur un corpus de conversations en contexte naturel concernant la description des formes et fonctions de cette particule modale en général. Le fait que l'on rencontre une seule et unique occurrence de *Wie heißt du denn*?, adressée par une institutrice à un nouvel élève, dans le corpus FOLK du DGD comprenant 3172 énoncés avec *denn* en position d'énoncés non initiale, en témoigne.

L'examen détaillé des *tokens* d'un échantillon de 1000 occurrences avec *denn* révèle en effet sept proto-constructions avec *denn* dont voici un type susceptible d'être utile pour un apprenant (adolescent) de l'allemand : {interrogatif en w-} ou {Ø} + V + {pron. pers.} + *denn* + {complément} + ?[11] qui a pour fonction d'assurer et d'ap- profondir une information préalable fournie par le partenaire d'interaction. Cette proto-construction – tout comme les variantes avec *denn* détaillées par Schmale (2021b, 2022) – a été le résultat de recherches sur corpus de conversations entre adultes, c'est-à-dire non pas entre jeunes dont l'âge correspond à celui d'apprenants adolescents.

Des corpus représentatifs du langage des jeunes n'existaient par ailleurs pas à l'heure actuelle. Ceux comme le *JuSpil* (27/02/2024) (Bahlo & Fladrich 2015) ne peuvent guère servir de modèle pour l'apprentissage de l'allemand. Compte tenu des observations relatives aux *culturèmes*, il n'est peu souhaitable que le langage employé par un jeune apprenant s'inspire de celui d'un jeune natif, s'agissant de tournures argotiques voire même vulgaire en particulier ou déviantes de la norme en général. Les énoncés ainsi que les mini-dialogues (1) à (3) plus avant, ont dû être construits par l'auteur de la présente contribution afin d'illustrer les constructions avec *denn* qui pourraient proposer l'objet de l'enseignement. Toutefois, les constructions et les mini-dialogues ne sont nullement le seul fruit de l'imagination de l'auteur du présent texte étant donné qu'il dispose d'une très longue expérience de l'enseignement de l'allemand à tous les niveaux. Cette expérience ne peut néanmoins se substituer à une étude sur corpus représentatif qui aura pour l'objet de vérifier, de rectifier ou de falsifier les modèles suggérés, le cas échéant. Le tableau suivant, qui ne prétend aucunement à une quelconque exhaus-

[10] Compte tenu de sa polyfactorialité, *denn* pourrait effectivement être considérée comme "construction" à part entière au sens défini tout comme une formule de routine monolexicale comme *salut* avec la seule différence que la dernière est liée à des situations de communications spécifiques alors que *denn* joue un rôle essentiel dans la constitution d'une activité langagière marquée.

[11] Légende : {} = élément facultatif ; Ø = position non occupée ; V = verbe conjugué ; PP = pronom personnel ; COMP = complément au sens large (objet, partie de la base verbale, adjectif, etc.).

tivité, la liste des interrogatifs en *w-* se limitant délibérément à ceux susceptible d'être à la portée d'un apprenant, reste donc *a priori* incomplet. Les énoncés type listés ont, par conséquent, pour seul objectif de fournir une illustration des activités langagières prétendument utiles dans la poursuite des buts communicatifs d'un l'apprenant :

{interrogatif en w-} ou {Ø} + V + {PP} + denn + {COMP} + ?	
w- / Ø	**Énoncés type (niveau B1/B2)**
Ø	Hast du ihn *denn* mal gefragt? Kannst du die Reise *denn* bezahlen?
was	Was willst du *denn* später mal werden?
wo	Wo wohnst du *denn*? Wo ist *denn* das Kino? Wo wollen wir uns *denn* treffen?
wohin	Wohin wollt ihr *denn* in Urlaub fahren? Wohin hast du *denn* den Brief geschickt?
woher	Woher weißt du das *denn*?
wann	Wann soll ich *denn* kommen? Wann bist du *denn* angekommen? Wann fängt *denn* das Spiel an?
wie	Wie war *denn* der Film? Wie hat das Essen *denn* geschmeckt?
wer	Wer ist *denn* jetzt dran? Wer hat *denn* Lust mitzukommen?
wem	Wem hast du *denn* das Buch geliehen? Wem soll ich *denn* das Geld geben?
worüber	Worüber habt ihr euch *denn* unterhalten? Worüber soll ich *denn* ein Referat halten?

Tableau 1: Exemples illustrant la proto-construction avec *denn*

Bien évidemment, les énoncés ci-devant sont à placer dans des contextes communicatifs adéquats étant donné que la fonction principale de la particule modale *denn* ne réside nullement dans l'atténuation de l'acte de parole d'accueil, mais avant tout dans la recherche d'approfondissement d'une information (au sens large) livrée par le partenaire d'interaction verbale en contexte amont. L'énoncé avec *denn* ne peut occuper en effet que très exceptionnellement la première partie d'un échange, c'est-à-dire poser cette question *wie heißen Sie denn ?* de but en blanc à un adulte serait tout simplement plus que curieux voire carrément faux.

À titre d'illustration, quelques mini-échanges avec les constructions type évoquées ci-dessus :

(1) A veut inviter B à lui rendre visite, mais B ignore où habite A :
A: Willst du morgen Nachmittag zum Kaffeetrinken zu mir kommen?
B: Gern, wo wohnst du *denn*?
A: In der Mozartstraße 32.
B: Gut, ok. Und wann soll ich kommen?
A: So um drei, passt dir das?
B: Ja, prima, dann bis morgen.
A: Alles klar.

(2) A a envoyé une lettre à B que ce dernier n'a pas reçue :
A: Hast du meinen Brief gekriegt?
B: Nein, noch nicht. Wann hast du ihn *denn* geschickt?
A: Letzte Woche schon.
B: Komisch, an welche Adresse hast du ihn denn geschickt?
A: Na, an deine in der Münchner Allee 45.
B: Ja, die Adresse ist richtig.

(3) A raconte à B qu'il est allé au cinéma :
A: Du, ich war gestern im Kino.
B: Was hast du dir *denn* angeschaut?
A: Den neuen Film mit Leonardo DiCaprio.
B: Und wie war der Film?
A: Ehrlich gesagt, war ich ein bisschen enttäuscht.

Les mini-échanges inventés à des fins illustratives démontrent que toutes les activités des séquences (1) à (3) intégrant la particule modale *denn* sont précédées d'une information initiale délivrée par le partenaire d'interaction A dont B souhaite approfondir le contenu. La PM occupe dans ce co(n)texte effectivement un rôle d'atténuation du contenu exprimé, rendant la force illocutoire moins intense, la question moins péremptoire. Il ne faut toutefois pas oublier que le contraire peut être le cas, i.e. que *denn* peut aussi rendre une question plus tranchante, même plus agressive, p. ex. dans *Was soll °das denn ?* Le même constat serait à faire pour *Wie heißen °Sie denn ?*, adressée à un adulte, alors que *Wie °heißen Sie denn?* serait très inhabituelle voire saugrenue de la part d'un jeune apprenant car la tournure impliquerait la prise d'une *position haute*.

5 Principes pour l'enseignement-apprentissage de l'oral spontané en contexte institutionnalisé

Employer de manière compétente les constructions comme tout autre phénomène langagier (y compris la corporalité) comme condition de la possibilité de communiquer spontanément à l'oral, nécessite naturellement la mise en œuvre d'éléments constitutifs en contexte institutionnalisé. Sans prétendre à une présentation exhaustive, voici les principes *sine qua non*:

- Le recours systématique aux supports pédagogiques multimodaux tenant compte aussi bien du niveau segmental que prosodique ainsi que du

mimogestuel et présentant tout phénomène communicatif dans son contexte d'utilisation. Le recours aux applications via le smartphone (Boostani 2020) pourrait être envisagé.

- Bien que cette exigence puisse sembler presque banale, agencer l'environnement de cours en U ou en fer à cheval est une condition indispensable pour la communication entre tous les participants. Un agencement frontal entraînerait obligatoirement le passage de toute intervention communicative par l'enseignant.
- Ce dernier doit au contraire se mettre en retrait pour devenir facilitateur en cas de besoin. La pratique de l'oral ne sera guère spontanée si le professeur reste omniprésent intervenant dans toutes les activités communicatives, *a fortiori* lorsque c'est lui qui initie et dirige tout échange.
- Chaque acte communicatif concernant une activité pratique du cours – p. ex. s'excuser pour un retard, demande d'ouvrir la fenêtre, solliciter des explic ations, annonces de l'enseignant – doit obligatoirement être produit en langue cible. Ce sont en effet des activités du cours ayant un objectif communicatif réel en contexte institutionnalisé contrairement aux dialogues simulant des futurs échanges potentiels. Il est donc primordial de ne pas donner l'impression aux apprenants qu'on parle allemand lorsqu'il ne s'agit pas d'une situation réelle, mais français, la langue maternelle, lorsque "c'est sérieux". Tout en respectant, cela va de soi, le principe de l'emploi de langue cible de manière éclairée ("aufgeklärte Einsprachigkeit" en reprenant la notion fondée par Butzkamm (1973)).
- Dans la mesure du faisable, tout exercice oral, structural ou lexicogrammatical doit être organisé sous forme dialogique (mini-jeux de rôle) entre apprenants. L'entraînement à l'emploi de la particule modale *denn* pourrait donner lieu à un échange du type :

  A: Hast du Lust, morgen mit ins Kino zu kommen?
  B: Was läuft denn im Moment?
  A: Rambo Nr. 15.
  B: Nein danke, kein Interesse.

  Il s'agit, en effet, de créer le maximum d'occasions de prise de parole à l'apprenant dans des contextes s'approchant de la réalité communicative.

- L'approche constructiviste, qui sera esquissée au dernier point en guise de conclusion, semble particulièrement à même de faciliter l'acquisition (à long terme) de compétences relatives à l'oral spontané au détriment d'un apprentissage à court terme.

6 En guise de conclusion – La conception constructiviste de l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère

L'approche du constructiviste, dont les principes sont fondés sur une longue tradition de réflexion pédagogique et philosophique (Caine & Caine 1991), plus récemment confortés par des recherches en neurosciences, constitue en effet une

condition nécessaire à l'acquisition d'une compétence en oral spontané de l'apprenant LE. Kurt (2021) souligne par conséquent :

> The theory of constructivist learning is vital to understanding how students learn. The idea that students actively construct knowledge is central to constructivism. Students add (or build) their new experiences on top of their current foundation of understanding. As stated by Woolfolk (1993) 'learning is active mental work, not passive reception of teaching'. (Kurt 2021, sans pages)

La création d'automatismes, stipulée comme base indispensable de toute production orale spontanée, présuppose en effet l'existence de constructions de schémas communicatifs, organisés au sein de systèmes de mémorisation flexibles, liés les uns aux autres à travers des synapses et, de ce fait spontanément activables.

Avec l'objectif de créer de tels systèmes de connaissances holistiques mémorisés, il est essentiel de respecter certains principes pédagogiques qui sous-tendent la condition de la possibilité de l'acquisition (par définition pérenne) qui dépasse un simple apprentissage de (plus) courte durée. Sans pouvoir détailler l'intégralité des douze principes de "brain-based learning" (Caine & Caine 1991: 79-87), nous nous contentons des principes fondamentaux suivants :

- « […] specific 'items' are given meaning when embedded in ordinary experiences » (ibid.: 86). Cet axiome élémentaire stipule *grosso modo* que l'apprentissage doit avoir lieu au sein de situations les plus naturelles possibles qui permettent de mettre en œuvre le principe du "learning by doing".
- « The brain is a parallel processor » (ibid.: 80) qui ne traite pas simplement des informations proposées, mais qui est influencé par les pensées, l'état physique et psychique de l'apprenant, son humeur, ses sensations et ses préférences, qui tous ont une incidence sur le stockage, le "patterning" (ibid. : 80), des faits et des connaissances, qui relèvent, de surcroît, de la personnalité de chaque individu, ce qui fait que les activités pédagogiques implémentées en classe doivent être les plus variées possible afin que chaque apprenant y trouve son compte.
- « Learning engages the entire physiology » (ibid.: 80-81) est une maxime proche de la précédente. Elle définit apprentissage et mémorisation en tant que processus relevant des cinq sens qui font que chaque apprenant assimile des faits et connaissances d'une manière individuelle et plus ou moins unique. Même s'il existait véritablement des types d'apprenants oraux ou écrits (ce dont on peut douter dans leur exclusivité), l'enseignant doit néanmoins organiser les activités d'apprentissage les plus variées possibles. Cette maxime est d'autant plus importante que les
- « Emotions are critical to patterning » (ibid.: 83-83) étant donné que la possibilité de développement d'émotions passe nécessairement par les cinq sens. Un souvenir personnel illustre bien cette prémisse: L'auteur du présent article, 59 ans après, se souvient encore comme si c'était hier de son *premier* cours d'anglais à l'âge de 10 ans, dans lequel la professeure a joué de l'harmonica et a fait chanter les élèves « This old man… ». Cette

expérience, bien évidemment individuelle et isolée, démontre toutefois que l'appel aux sens peut provoquer des émotions très positives[12].

- « Learning is enhanced by challenge and inhibited by threat » (ibid.: 86-87). Tout comme générer des opportunités susceptibles de déclencher des émotions positives, créer une ambiance dépourvue de menaces de sanctions est primordial. Il s'agit en particulier de renoncer aux interruptions et corrections inutiles lors du processus d'expression orale de l' apprenant dans la mesure où l'on comprend ce dernier. Des générations d'apprenants français nous on dit qu'ils préféraient ne pas s'exprimer oralement par crainte d'être interrompus de toutes façons par l'enseignant pour les corriger.
- « The brain processes parts and wholes simultaneously » (ibid.: 83) finalement revient sur l'approche par constructions lexicogrammaticales au détriment de règles abstraites (Schmale 2020b). Le cerveau ne mémorise donc pas les unités lexicales discrètes, mais plutôt les entités communicatives intégrales. L'enseignement des langues étrangères doit en tenir compte et abandonner les méthodes classiques procédant par *règles + vocabulaire*.

Les axiomes développés ci-devant constituent selon l'approche constructiviste la condition de la possibilité de l'acquisition, i.e. d'une mémorisation pérenne, et d'une activation automatisée permettant une expression orale spontanée et la poursuite efficace d'objectifs communicatifs d'un apprenant d'une langue étrangère. Qui plus est, l'organisation de toute activité d'enseignement-apprentissage en contexte institutionnel, respectant les principes esquissés, contribue très largement à la motivation de l'apprenant d'apprendre et idéalement d'acquérir de nouvelles connaissances et les mettre en œuvre dans des contextes nouveaux.

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Learning How to Use Input-Based and Output-Based Form-Focused Instruction: A Meta-Analytic Comparison of Korean and Persian EFL Learners

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Abstract

Although Form-Focused Instruction (FFI) has been extensively investigated, the degree to which grammatical difficulty impacts input-based and output-based FFI approaches has yet to be well defined in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context. To address the need for further research, 36 experimental studies were selected for meta-analysis (18 studies with Korean EFL learners and 18 studies with Persian EFL learners). The effects of the type of instruction (input vs. output) were analysed along with other variables that may affect acquisition (complexity of a target feature and L1). The results suggested that input-based in- struction was more effective for smaller phrasal features, while output-based instruction was more effective for features with more complex clauses (e.g., relative clauses or conditionals). Regarding the L1, output-based emphasis of collocations was more effective with Persian EFL learners, whose L1 shares more morphosyntactic similarities with English. Collectively, both L1 and L2 may determine the efficacy of FFI.
Keywords: Form-focused instruction, EFL, grammar, Korean, Persian

1 Introduction

Focus on form is a pedagogical technique for language instruction that emphasises grammar through “occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features – by the teacher and/or one or more students” (Long & Robinson 1998: 23). To date, several different types of focus on form have been developed. While they all share a common purpose, they differ with respect to how “occasional” the shift of attention is. Some techniques such as *input flood*, which denotes the placement of a larger number of target features in a text, and *input enhancement*, which utilises underlining or highlighting of grammatical features in a text, provide a minimally intrusive method to focus attention on grammar.

While minimally intrusive, techniques like input-flood or input-enhancement may also be minimally effective in increasing the accuracy of production. These techniques often yield inconsistent results (Rassaei 2012). Some studies suggest that enhancing input with bolding, underlining, and italicising aids in language acquisition (Alanen 1995, Jourdenais et al. 1995, Lee 2007, Rassaei 2015, Sarkhosh et al. 2013), whereas other studies suggest that it has little to no impact (Cho 2010, Lee & Huang 2008, Leow et al. 2003). Concerning input flood, the results of previous research report variable degrees of effectiveness (Rassaei 2012). The variability of

results in studies that use the same type of Form-Focused Instruction (FFI) may suggest that other background influences are involved. If these influences are better understood, the true potential of both input enhancement and input flood could be realised, thereby allowing educators to effectively use the techniques on a consistent basis.

In addition to input enhancement and input flood, attention may also be focused on a grammatical feature through an input-based technique called Processing Instruction (PI). This pedagogical strategy helps learners to identify a relationship between form and meaning through structured input activities (Soruç 2018). The technique is executed in three steps:

- providing information about the target linguistic form or structure
- informing learners about input processing strategies that may negatively affect the target structure, and
- carrying out input-based activities that help the learner understand and process form during comprehension

  (Nassaji & Fotos 2011: 24)

To understand the negative evidence provided to help learners process input, we can examine the Lexical Preference Principle by VanPatten (2004). This principle, part of the Primacy of Meaning Principle, suggests, for example, that the past *-ed* will be acquired later than lexical features. Consider the following example:

> The boy studied English yesterday.

In this example, the learner is thought to concentrate on units imbued with more semantic meaning (verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs) over the systematic and redundant past *-ed*. Since the lexical adverb *yesterday* already denotes the past, the regular past tense of the verb becomes redundant in this sentence. Using this principle for input processing, learners are helped to understand the difficulty of learning the past *-ed*. First, they are given information about the target feature and potential learning difficulties. Next, they are provided with tasks that require an understanding of the correct structure in order to understand meaning (Benati 2005, Uludag & VanPatten 2012). As an example, learners may be asked to listen to sentences and choose whether the actions they describe happened yesterday or today.

Like other forms of FFI, the results of PI have yielded mixed results. A study by Benati (2005), for example, revealed that PI had a significant effect on accuracy in written production when the regular past tense was emphasised (Benati 2005). Concerning this study, Benati (2005) concluded that

> PI has clearly altered the way learners processed input and this had an effect on their developing system and subsequently on what the subjects could access for production. (ibid.: 83)

Although compelling, the results of the study revealed that scores for the PI group were only higher on the interpretation task. Production tasks for the PI group were less accurate than those from either the traditional (explicit) or meaning-based instruction groups. Similar findings were revealed in another study of Russian prepo-

sitional phrases, whereby traditional pattern drills had a larger impact on productive tasks than Processing Instruction (Comer & de Benedette 2011). VanPatten (2014) has used such lacklustre results for Processing Instruction in production to conclude that explicit instruction is largely superfluous. The variability of results, however, may suggest that contextual factors influence the efficacy or inefficacy of different forms of FFI. Therefore, further study is needed.

2 Using Output for FFI

While the modification of input is one viable means of focusing attention on a grammatical feature, it is not the only one. Swain (1998) pointed out that having students produce output can enhance the noticing of a grammatical feature. Speaking and writing can also allow the learner to test hypotheses about a grammatical feature or use 'metatalk' about linguistic features to reflect on language use (Swain 1998). Several studies suggest that promoting output helps learners to acquire grammatical features and vocabulary (Izumi 2002, Rassaei 2012, Shintani 2011). In a study of 129 Persian learners, output had the most significant impact on writing production of *so* and *such* clauses, outperforming text enhancement, input enrichment, and control groups on both immediate and delayed posttests (Rassaei 2012). In a study of English relative clauses, Izumi (2002) found that learners who engaged in output activities outperformed learners who received visual input. The study led researchers to conclude that "no support was found for the hypothesis that the effect of input enhancement was comparable to that of output" (ibid.: 542).

As in the case of input-based instruction, studies of output-based instruction often yield inconsistent results. Shintani (2011) found that both input-based tasks for comprehension and output-based tasks for production had positive effects. However, input-based tasks enhanced interaction, leading to improved performance on a comprehension test. Benati (2001) also found that input-based tasks increased performance more significantly than output-based tasks that use explicit grammar rules with follow-up writing or oral practice. Some research even suggests that output-based emphasis of grammatical features is largely superfluous. In a study by Izumi & Bigelow (2000), output-based tasks did not have a significant impact. Follow-up research further suggested that

> the output task failed to engage learners in the syntactic processing that is necessary to trigger L2 learning, while the task for the nonoutput group appeared to promote better form-meaning mapping. (Izumi & Bigelow 2000: 587).

3 Reasons for Variability in Results: A Closer Look at Grammatical Features

The results of both input-based and output-based instruction show a great deal of inconsistency, leading to confusion about precisely how and when a specific type of FFI should be used. In reality, there are a number of other contextual variables that also influence the acquisition process, thereby affecting whether or not an instructional intervention is effective. The type of grammatical feature, for example, has a

large impact on morphosyntactic development, as well as the efficacy of FFI (Dyson 2018, Dyson & Håkansson 2017). Regarding grammar, past studies have relied on overly simple binary classifications, suggesting that target features can be divided into just two categories: lexical or systematic (Wang & Jiang 2015). Although this is indeed an important distinction, it oversimplifies the features of grammar that influence FFI. As revealed by the Processability Theory, grammatical features are more complicated than simple binary classifications would suggest (Pienemann & Lenzing 2015).

In addition to systematic and lexical characteristics, the complexity of phrases or clauses associated with each target feature helps to determine when grammar is acquired. According to the Processability Theory, grammatical features may be separated into three main types.

- The first type of grammatical feature is *intra-phrasal*, meaning that a single word or phrase must be modified for construction. An example of this type of feature would be when a noun phrase, like *car*, receives a plural marker to become *cars*. Due to the relative simplicity of intra-phrasal features, they tend to be acquired early in the process of L2 development.
- The second type of grammatical feature is called *inter-phrasal*, because it requires the manipulation of multiple phrases for construction. An example would be when an auxiliary verb is inverted with the subject noun phrase in a yes/no question (e.g., *Can you hand me a pen?*). Another example would be the addition of a third person singular *-s* morpheme, which requires an inter-phrasal understanding of the relationship between the subject and verb for correct conjugation (e.g., *He eats*). Due to heightened complexity, inter-phrasal grammatical features tend to be acquired later than their intra-phrasal counterparts.
- The final type of grammatical feature is *clausal*, meaning that multiple clauses must be manipulated for construction. An example of this type of grammatical feature would be the past hypothetical conditional, which requires the creation of both a main and subordinate clause (e.g., *If I hadn't drunk too much last night, I wouldn't have missed class*). Due to the morphosyntactic complexity of clausal features, they tend to be acquired last (Pienemann 2005).

As revealed by the elements of the Processability Theory, increased grammatical complexity may have a significant impact on acquisition, suggesting that learners need to be at a certain proficiency level in order to benefit from FFI that is focused on a specific target feature (Gholami & Zeinolabedini 2018).

Like grammatical complexity, L1 differences can impact how easily a grammatical feature is acquired. When Spanish EFL students learn target features like the English definite article, for example, which is similar to the L1, they outperform counterparts from countries like Japan, Korea or China, who lack this particular feature in their native languages (Luk & Shirai 2009). In addition to morphological features, the acquisition of syntactic features appears to be influenced by a learner's L1. Persian EFL learners, for example, whose L1 is largely head-final, tend to read and comprehend texts more slowly than their Turkish counterparts, who use a head-initial L1 like English (Maleki 2006). Korean learners, whose language shares

the head-final parameter found in Persian, also tend to have more difficulty processing and acquiring head-initial English syntax (Shin 2015). Overall, there is a great deal of research suggesting that both morphological and syntactic features are influenced by a learner's L1 (Yang et al. 2017).

Past studies of FFI have variable results, preventing educators from practically applying FFI techniques in a consistently effective way. These inconsistencies reflect weaknesses in the design of past experimental research, which utilised oversimplistic classifications for variables that influence L2 development. In reality, the impact of diverse grammatical features, along with associated influences from the L1, are more complex than past studies would suggest. Modern studies re- cognise these fundamental weaknesses, calling for more qualitative studies that can explore multiple influences of second language acquisition (De Costa, Gajasinghe, Ojha & Rabie-Ahmed 2022, Lee 2019). While qualitative analysis can provide a more holistic view of multiple variables, so may meta-analysis, which collates past experimental studies, allowing for comparison. Through comprehensive analysis of many past experimental studies, a more holistic perspective may be obtained, which can help educators understand how and when different types of input-based or out- put-based FFI techniques should be used.

4 Research Questions

The present meta-analysis was designed to investigate grammatical difficulty and its impact on the efficacy of input-based and output-based instruction. Since grammatical difficulty cannot be defined without consideration of both grammatical complexity (intra-phrasal, inter-phrasal, and clausal) and L1 differences, selected studies of input-based and output-based instruction examined a variety of grammatical features, along with learners at diverse developmental levels who had two different L1s: Korean and Persian. The following questions were posed to guide our examination:

1. What types of instruction (input-based or output-based) are most effective with each type of grammatical feature (intra-phrasal, inter-phrasal, and clausal)?
2. Does the effectiveness of an instructional type (input-based or output-based) differ according to the similarity of a target feature to the L1?

Through investigating the questions above, it was hoped that a holistic understanding could be obtained to reform curricula or enhance automated language learning systems, thereby tailoring instruction to learner needs.

5 Method

In accordance with a need for further research, the present meta-analysis was designed to examine the impact of variables like *grammatical complexity* (intra-phasal, inter-phrasal, and clausal), *type of instruction* (input-based vs. output-based), and learner L1 on accuracy of production in speech or writing. To obtain studies of EFL

learners from each target L1, Google was systematically searched by using the keywords *Korean* or *Persian* with various search terms for grammatical features (*plural, past tense, past regular, past irregular, passive, third person, questions, article, definite article, indefinite article, phrasal verb, verb particle, conditional*) and types of FFI treatments (*form-focused instruction, focus-on-form, focus-on forms, PI, text en- hancement, dictogloss, output, input, control group*). Following the search, full texts for each study were obtained for further examination.

There are key differences between explicit knowledge and actual performance in pro- duction (implicit knowledge). Therefore, only studies that elicited responses in speech and writing were selected. To ensure that production reflected implicit knowledge of a target feature, studies had to use language assessments that communicated ideas, not rules. The assessments also needed to put pressure on learners to prevent conscious correction of language errors. Finally, the assessments needed to focus on meaning and avoid the use of metalanguage (Ellis 2009). In order to be included within the present meta-analysis, each experimental study needed to have:

1. An input-based or output-based treatment (including time for treatment and methods of delivery)
2. Pretest and Posttest measures of production (either oral or written)
3. Information about the type of grammatical feature targeted, and
4. Participants that used only one target L1 exclusively (Korean or Persian)

Out of all the studies examined for Korean learners, 59 experimental studies were located. From this group, only 18 studies met the criteria for inclusion. Many studies lacked adequate assessment of productive, implicit knowledge, leading to their exclusion (Appendix A for more information on selected studies). Concerning Persian learners, 89 potential studies were located. Out of these studies, only 18 could be used (Appendix B for more information). In addition to problems with assessment of production, some studies lacked sufficient knowledge to understand the methodology or length of treatment. Thus, they were excluded. *In toto*, the present meta-analysis contained 36 studies for analysis.

5.1 Grammatical Feature Type

Once the studies had been compiled, the results of each study were organised and evaluated according to grammatical features. The types of grammatical features were grouped for comparison. As revealed by the Processability Theory, grammatical complexity could vary based on whether a target feature is intra-phrasal (e.g., verbs and associated morphological features like the regular past *-ed*), inter-phrasal (e.g., question inversion or phrasal verbs), or clausal (e.g., cancel inversion) (Pienemann & Lenzing 2015). Grammatical features from studies of Korean and Persian learners in Appendices A and B were separated as in Table 1:

	Target Features (Korean Studies)	Target Features (Persian Studies)
Intra-phrasal	Single adjectives, verbs, and nouns (2 Studies) Present Perfect (4 Studies) Collocations (*despair*, *earnestly*, etc.) (1 Study) Verb tenses (1 Study) Participial adjectives (e.g., *boring/bored*) (1 Study)	Single adjectives, verbs, and nouns (1 Study) Verb tenses (2 Studies) Modals (2 Studies)
Inter-phrasal	Comparative adjectives and *than* (*smarter than X*) (1 Study) Verb + Pronoun + to + V (*I want her to visit*) (1 Study)	Collocations with multiple phrases - combined adjectives, nouns, and verbs (2 Studies) Passive Voice (5 Studies) Causative (2 Studies)
Clausal	Conditional (5 Studies) *That*-Trace Filter (1 Study) Relative Clauses (1 Study)	Conditional (1 Study) All Errors in Clause – t-units (1 Study) Relative Clauses (1 Study) *so* and *such* + *tha*t (1 Study)

Table 1: Separation of Grammatical Features Based on the Processability Theory

In total, 88 treatment groups were obtained from the selected studies. As nine of the control groups contained collocations with more than one grammatical feature from a different complexity level, these treatment groups were excluded from the analysis of grammar type, leaving a remainder of 79 treatment groups.

5.2 L1 Influence

In order to investigate the influences of L1 on the acquisition of English grammatical features, EFL learners with two native languages, Korean and Persian, were studied. There were 88 treatment groups in total (41 Persian and 47 Korean). These languages differ in how closely their grammar resembles English. Being from the Altaic language family, Korean grammar tends to differ more significantly from its Persian counterpart when compared to English. Overall, Persian appears to share more lexical, morphological, and syntactic attributes with English, which are factors that may influence how a second language is acquired (Luk & Shirai 2009, Maleki 2006, Shin 2015).

Although both Korean and Persian share an SOV word order and lack question inversion, they differ significantly in how other grammatical features are used. These differences appear to reflect a Persian connection to the Indo-European language family, as well as an ancestral link to English. In Persian conditionals, for example, the Persian word for *if* is a free morpheme that is generally used at the beginning of the conditional clause, followed by a main clause which uses the future tense. Despite Persian being a head-final language in sentence structure, the *if*-marker appears at the beginning of the conditional clause, as in English (Abdollahi-Guilani et

al. 2012). In contrast to both Persian and English, the Korean conditional is bound to a head-final parameter.

Concerning verb tense, Persian also parallels English in a number of ways. It uses a past tense verb that is completely different from the present form (similar to lexical past in English) (Persian in Context 2013: 9). Concerning the future tense, it

> is used almost exactly like the English future tense; the only difference being that it is also very common in Persian to use the present tense for expressing future actions. (Mazdeh 2013: para. 1)

Concerning aspect, Persian is similar to English in usage. The present perfect aspect, for example, adds a present copula to the past participle, which parallels the English form. This similarity suggests that "By and large, the Persian present perfect, sometimes referred to as past narrative, corresponds to the English present perfect" (Grammar and Resources 2007: para. 3). Korean verb tenses for the simple past also resemble English in some ways, having regular past forms to add the past meaning. Despite such similarity, the present perfect and present perfect progressive tenses lack equivalent morphosyntactic structures in Korean. Instead, Korean uses a variety of morphological verb endings and adverbials to express aspect, making it highly different from its Persian counterpart in regard to this morphosyntactic feature.

Both English and Persian have an article system. Unlike English, however, only the indefinite article is used in Persian. Nouns that do not have an indefinite article are considered to be definite (Momenzade & Youhanaee 2014: 1187-1188). Korean lacks the English article system entirely. Instead, learners express definite articles through modifiers like demonstrative pronouns and the indefinite article by numeric modifiers (Lee 1999: 37).

Persian relative clauses are head initial, as in English. However, there is a difference in the word order of the constituents in the Persian relative clause. In contrast to both Persian and English, Korean relative clauses use the head-final attribute. This factor, along with morphological differences in the use of relative clauses in Korean, suggests that it is more highly disparate from English.

Overall, the comparison of the two languages suggests that Persian has more grammatical similarities than its Korean counterpart in regard to English. This is not surprising, given that both English and Persian are Indo-European languages, whereas Korean is from the Altaic language family. Due to the distinct differences, these two languages were used as a variable to examine the influence of L1 similarity on the effectiveness of FFI. Persian and Korean language learners were separated for analysis so that the influence of L1 similarity on the acquisition of English grammatical features could be assessed.

5.3 Input-Based Output-Based Definitions

Studies designed to evaluate the efficacy of either input or output were selected and separated based on instructional type (Appendix C for more information about treatments). Those studies that had a major emphasis on both input and output in the FFI treatment were excluded from the analysis. Whereas treatments primarily

designed to emphasise the impact of input (e.g., input flood, IE, and PI) were assigned to the input category, tasks that emphasised output (e.g., text reconstruction or dictogloss) were assigned to the output category. The *input vs. output* distinction was used to analyse differences in effect sizes, along with variables such as grammatical complexity and learner L1. For input, there were a total of 52 treatment groups; for output, there were a total of 36 groups.

Overall, output-based treatments included a variety of both written and spoken tasks. As an example, a study by Fakharzadeh & Youhanaee (2012) included individual text reconstruction, close translation, and a dictogloss. Among these tasks, production in the form of writing may be expected, along with verbal production associated with the dictogloss. Metatalk may also be expected, as learners share information about a story to reconstruct a text. Other studies of output-based assessments like that of Kim (2014) utilised images to elicit verbal responses about a target feature. With the exception of studies that used only the dictogloss, there was little standardisation of the techniques used to elicit output. While forms of production did vary, Swain (1998) points out that all production tasks give learners the ability to use and test hypotheses about a target feature. Some output groups did include a degree of explicit information or guidance to conduct the activity, which was a type of input. In each treatment, however, the emphasis was on producing output rather than providing input. Studies that used a dictogloss, for example, required input before the story was reconstructed. However, the main goal of the activity was output, as reflected by procedures that included note taking, meta-talk, and story construction. Although some input may have been provided with output treatment groups, the main goal of these groups was to generate either an oral or written product. Therefore, a clear emphasis was placed on production, rather than input, allowing learners time to test hypotheses as envisioned by Swain (1998). Some studies provided an emphasis on both input and output in the same treatment groups. These treatment groups were excluded from the analysis. Control groups with no treatment were also excluded from the analysis.

5.4 Procedure

In order to compare results from individual studies, effect sizes needed to be calculated for each study. Whereas p-values reveal whether results are significant (not a result of chance), effect sizes determine the magnitude of a difference between groups (Sullivan & Feinn 2012). Since significant p-values may not actually reveal a large effect (e.g., large numbers of participants or amounts of data may cause even a small difference to be significant), effect size is needed to understand how impactful a treatment is. Calculating the effect size also provides a consistent way to compare different studies, since the calculations are standardised measures.

Cohen's *d* was used to calculate effect size, as in the study by Spada & Tomita (2010), which analysed effects of explicit and implicit instruction on the acquisition of simple and complex grammatical features in English. In the current study, effect size was calculated by inserting pretest scores (M2), posttest scores (M1), and associated standard deviations (SD2 and SD1) into the Cohen's *d* formula for effect size (Spada & Tomita 2010: 307):

d = [M1 - M2] / [SQRT[(SD1SD1 + SD2SD2]/2]

After calculating the effect sizes for each treatment group, the results were collated based upon the variables, allowing for further analysis. For grammatical complexity, for example, effect sizes were collated based upon whether an intra-phrasal, inter-phrasal, or clausal feature was emphasised. For L1, effect sizes were collated based upon the use of either Korean or Persian learners. The results were then broken down by type of instruction (input or output) for further analysis.

6 Results and Discussion

6.1 Target Feature-based Instruction

The first research question aimed to investigate the effects of grammatical feature type on the efficacy of FFI. Results were first analysed according to categories of grammatical complexity suggested by the Processability Theory: intra-phrasal, inter-phrasal, and clausal. The comparison of grammatical complexity with the type of instruction suggested that output-based instruction is more effective when more complex, clausal features are emphasised (Table 2). At the more complex clausal level, the difference in effect was .48. Because prior research of meta-analysis suggests that a small effect size is d >0.2, a medium effect size is d >0.5, and a large effect size is d<0.8 (Rice & Harris 2005), the difference between input and output-based instruction for clausal features is sizable, representing a small, yet nearly medium difference in effect:

Grammatical Complexity	Input-Based Output-Based	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Intra-phrasal	Input	2.5691	15	2.12048
	Output	2.4799	14	2.10277
Inter-phrasal	Input	2.8026	18	2.36274
	Output	2.7078	10	2.58128
Clausal	Input	2.0018	12	2.04204
	Output	2.4767	10	2.57465

Table 2: Average Effect Size by Grammatical Complexity and Type of Instruction

Input-based instruction was more effective for phrasal grammatical features. At both the intra and inter-phrasal level, the difference in effect size was similar. At the intra-phrasal level, input-based instruction was more effective by .09; at the inter-phrasal level, input-based instruction was more effective by .10.

Regarding Research Question 1, which attempted to discern the impact of FFI on diverse grammatical features, the results suggest that more complex clausal target

features benefit more from output-based instruction. In contrast, intra- and inter-phrasal features appear to benefit more from input-based instruction. This finding may reveal that instructional styles can be carefully selected based upon the target feature to maximise acquisition. Input-based instruction may better assist beginning or intermediate learners who are presented with activities targeting intra- or inter-phrasal features. In contrast, more complex clausal features may be served by output that pushes learners to speak or write. Clausal features have more constituents that must be ordered syntactically, which may explain why production has a larger effect. Production may activate a syntactic encoder, promoting better acquisition of syntactically complex features.

Intra- and inter-phrasal features included largely lexical and morphological features. These features appeared to benefit more from input-based instruction. Combined verb tenses, collocations, modals, and comparative adjectives from these categories, all these benefited more from input. The passive, which also benefited more from input-based instruction, has many lexical elements. In the case of a sentence like *The book was written*, for example, the past auxiliary (*was*), and the past participle (*written*) must be lexically retrieved. If the main verb is regular, the morphological ending *-ed* must be attached, adding further complexity to the feature. In the case of grammatical features that are lexically complex, input-based instruction may prime the learner by providing information for form/meaning mapping, which facilitates the correct use of lexical structures associated with these features. By combining several elements together, the scope and complexity of a target feature increases, which may require a scaffold in the form of additional input.

It is possible that input provides assistance with form-meaning mapping or simplistic binary morphological features like the past *-ed*. Input may provide scaffolding early in the acquisition process. As the complexity of syntax increases, output-based instruction may more effectively push learners to arrange syntactic elements into the correct word order. Essentially, input or output may emphasise different characteristics of grammar. Since the difficulty posed by lexical variation or syntactic complexity is also determined by the L1, characteristics of the learner must be further studied to clarify the impact of input and output-based instruction.

6.2 Influence of L1 on Effectiveness of FFI

Research Question 2 attempted to ascertain the influence of L1 differences. Overall, Persian learners had higher effect sizes than their Korean counterparts. This finding may suggest that language acquisition is hastened by similarities between the Persian L1 and English L2, which both belong to the Indo-European language family.

While both Persian and Korean learners benefited more from input (Table 3), the difference between input and output-based instruction for Korean learners (difference of .30) was much larger than that for Persian learners (difference of .09). Since the Korean L1 is more highly dissimilar from English as an L2, this finding may suggest that input-based instruction is more effective with target features that differ more significantly from the L1:

L1	Input-Based vs. Output-Based Instruction	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Persian	Input	3.4706	22	2.63968
	Output	3.3796	19	2.76402
Korean	Input	1.8122	30	1.13980
	Output	1.5088	17	.80511

Table 3: Average Effect Size Based on L1 and Type of Instruction

When the same target features were emphasised, effect sizes tended to be larger for Persian FFI interventions (Figure 1):

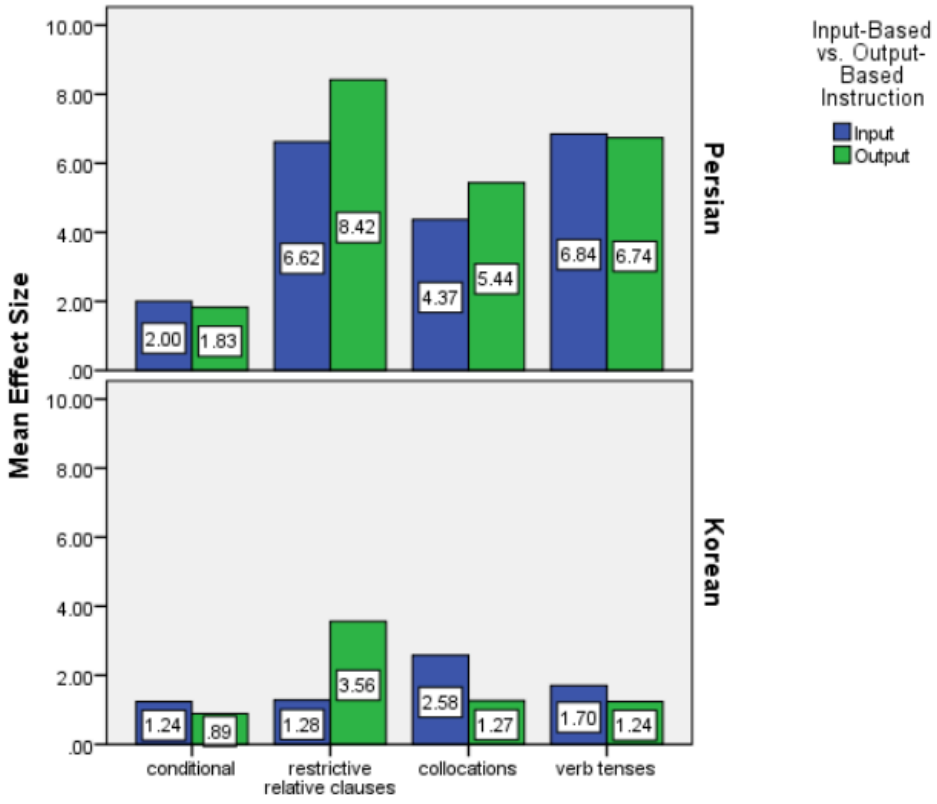

Figure 1: Input and Output-Based Instruction for the Same Grammatical Features in Persian and Korean

Except for the conditional feature, effect sizes for Persian learners were more than double than those of their Korean peers. Our results may suggest that L1 similarities to English have impacted the effect size. Each of the L2 grammatical features in Figure 1 is more similar to Persian than Korean (Section 5 for more information).

Although the impact of FFI seems to be less substantial for Korean EFL learners, the effects of input and output-based instruction for each grammatical feature appear consistent across the groups (with the exception of collocations). Input-based instruction tended to be more effective, albeit slightly, for the conditional and verb

tenses than output-based instruction. In contrast, output-based instruction seemed to be more effective for relative clauses. Only lexical categories and collocations differed across the groups. For Korean learners, collocations had a higher effect size when input-based instruction was used (*d*=2.58). This value led to a sizable difference from output-based instruction of 1.31. Persian learners, in contrast, benefited more from output-based instruction when collocations were emphasised (*d*=5.44). The resulting difference is also substantial, leading to a gain of 1.07. L1 similarities may explain why collocations had higher effect sizes for Persian EFL learners. Whereas input provides exemplars, output requires learners to produce collocations without assistance. Due to common lexicogrammatical forms from the Indo-European language family, Persian collocations or cognates may promote transfer, thereby negating a need for exemplars within the input.

While L1 similarity or difference appears to have influenced the effect size, other factors may also have influenced the results. Korean studies appear to reveal a larger duration for treatment with conditionals, which seems to suggest that the higher effect sizes among Persian learners are the result of L1 transfer. However, three out of the five Korean studies examined the third (past hypothetical) conditional (Kang 2011, Song 2007, Song & Suh 2008), whereas two studies examined the second (present unreal) conditional (Kang 2003, Shin 2011). In the Persian study by Khani & Davaribina (2013), only the first and the second conditional structure was emphasised. Using FFI with only first and second conditional features may have resulted in a larger effect size, explaining why Persian learners outper- formed their Korean counterparts in regard to this target feature. Concerning other grammatical features, the effects of L1 similarity and duration were difficult to inter- pret. Both relative clauses and verb tenses were more highly similar to the Persian L1 and of higher duration in the Persian studies examined (Appendices A and B for more information about duration). Such an inability to discern the potentially syner- gistic effects of both duration and L1 reflects a need for further research.

7 Conclusions

The present meta-analysis sought to examine the influence of input and output-based instruction, as well as other mitigating factors impacting the efficacy of FFI (grammatical complexity and L1). The results revealed that the success of input- vs. output-based instruction is highly dependent upon grammatical difficulty, which is ultimately defined by characteristics of the grammatical feature, along with characteristics of a learner's L1. Concerning grammatical difficulty, the results suggest that intra-phrasal, inter-phrasal, and clausal attributes attributed to Pienemann's Processability Theory influence the efficacy of FFI. More complex clausal features, like the relative clause, appeared to benefit more from output-based instruction, which forces learners to put constituent parts in a specific sequence. Grammatical features at the intra- and inter-phrasal levels benefited from more input-based instruction. Input may provide form-meaning mapping required for better acquisition of phrasal features, which are largely morphological and lexical.

L1 and L2 differences also appear to influence the efficacy of FFI, as well as the type of instruction which is most effective. Overall, studies with Persian EFL learners had

higher effect sizes. Having an Indo-European language, Persian learners may share common collocations or grammatical features that facilitate transfer. Concerning the relative clause, for example, a head-initial component makes it more like English than Korean, which uses a head-final noun at the end of a relative clause. Although Persian learners tended to benefit more from FFI, the effects of instruction appeared similar based upon the target feature. Input-based instruction tended to be more effective than output-based instruction for the conditional and verb tenses; output-based instruction appeared to be more effective for relative clauses. Only lexical categories and collocations differed across the groups. The disparity from collocations may suggest that L1 transfer makes input less necessary for Persian EFL learners.

The results of the study provide information that may be useful to educators, yet limitations still exist concerning the degree to which research may be adapted to practice. As existing experimental studies often examine similar grammatical features with learners at similar English proficiency levels, the degree to which timing determines effectiveness of FFI is still unknown. Furthermore, past experimental studies selected for meta-analysis used different treatments and assessments that may have impacted the results. In the future, more controlled experimental or qualitative research is needed to provide an even more holistic perspective of FFI. With such a perspective, theory may finally be applied to practice. Educators may then be able to provide effective pedagogical techniques at the right time, thereby tailoring instruction to the needs of diverse learners.

Appendices

Appendix A

Studies of Input/Output Using Learners with Korean L1

Authors	Duration	Learner Proficiency (Number)	Grammar Feature
Kang (2011)	Three hours in one week	TOEIC 420 to 930 (Average 675) (*n*=15)	Conditional
Kang (2003)	Twelve hours / six hours for two weeks	No information given (*n*=134)	Conditional
Song & Suh (2008)	Three sessions over a month period	Intermediate (*n*=52)	Conditional
Yang (2008)	Two-hour treatment	Approximately 140 to 185 on reading TOEIC (*n*=70)	Present perfect progressive

Kim (2014)	Three sessions of treatment over three days	Intermediate (self-rating) (*n*=42)	**Who do you think that married Sarah last year?* / *that*-trace filter
Kang (2009)	Eight 25-minute form focused treatments over four weeks	Intermediate (*n*=150)	Verb + NP + to infinitive / *ask me to*
Song (2007)	Three sessions of about 30 minutes over a three-week period	Intermediate TEPS 501 to 700 (average 600.5) (*n*=140)	Conditional
Yang (2004)	Two-hour class	No information given (*n*=70)	Present Perfect Progressive
Kim (2002)	Eight 25-minute focus on form treatments over four weeks	Low Intermediate (*n*=72)	Participial adjectives (*boring*) and Verb + Pronoun + to + V (*I want her to visit my place*)
Yeo (2002)	20 to 30 minutes twice (once each week for two weeks)	No information given (*n*=90)	Participial adjectives
Cho (2011)	25 minutes in one session	No information given (*n*=117)	Present Perfect (for regret)
Lee (2003)	One session (5-minute long reading session and interaction session of 8 to 10 minutes)	Low to Mid-Intermediate (*n*=68)	Words like *eyesight* and *adequate*
Jeong & Lee (2018)	Treatment session 1 (30 minutes) + Treatment session 2 (after a 5-minute break) (30 minutes)	High Intermediate (*n*=66)	Two adjectives and five nouns
Lim (2007)	Two 50-minute classes a week for three weeks (a total of 300 minutes) - Six sessions over a three-week period	Intermediate (*n*=62)	Present Perfect
Shin (2011)	Over 2 weeks	Both low and high mixed (based on high school midterm exam) (*n*=90)	Conditional

Hwang (2018)	A one-class period	250 to 320 TOEIC (low English Proficiency) (*n*=122)	Verb tenses and relative clauses
Lee (2002)	A one-class period	Low Intermediate (*n*=124)	Collocations such as: *I had better do* / *at an american college* / *smart enough to* / *turned to* / *in despair*
Kim & Nam (2017)	All on the same day / Pretest treatment of around 20 to 30 minutes	High Intermediate or low advanced by self-report (*n*=100)	Tem Idiomatic expressions like *shake a leg* and *hit the sack*

Appendix B

Studies of Input/Output Using Learners with Persian L1

Authors	**Duration**	**Learner Proficiency**	**Grammar Feature**
Rassaei (2012)	Two successive sessions untimed	No information given (*n*=134)	*So* and *such* + *that*
Moradi & Farvardin (2016)	Six sessions (45 minutes per session)	No information given (*n*=120)	Past *-ed*, past irregular, and future *will*
Farahian & Avarzamani (2019)	Twelve sessions each of about one hour and a half	Pre-Intermediate with no knowledge of the English passive (*n*=51)	English Passive
Birjandi (2011)	Three weeks / three passive tenses taught and practised in separate weeks	No prior knowledge of target structure (*n*=127)	English Passive
Khani & Davaribina (2013)	Treatment lasted one week	No information given (*n*=117)	Conditional (Type 1 and Type 2)
Fakharzadeh & Youhanaee (2015)	Twelve weeks and post-test in the following week	No information given (*n*=77)	Modals

Azmoon (2021)	Eight sessions	No information given (*n*=56)	(*A / an / some / any, at / on / in*; *usually / sometimes / always / never; first / then / after that / next / finally*)
Younesi & Tajeddin (2014)	Four 90-minute treatment sessions	1st year English majors at university (*n*=139)	Noun Clauses (e.g., relative clauses) - *If, whether, that (the fact that), where (ever), when (ever), what (ever), how, who (ever), whom (ever), and which (ever)*
Gholami & Farvardin (2017)	Four weeks - five collocations per week - 2 minutes per session	Lower Intermediate based on OPT (*n*=80)	Collocations: noun + noun, adjective + noun, verb + noun, noun + verb, and adverb + verb structures
Fakharzadeh & Youhanaee (2012)	One explicit instructional treatment given in week 3. Form-focused tasks given from weeks 4 to 15	Intermediate according to OPT (*n*=52)	Modals
Dabiri (2018)	Treatment given from weeks 1 to 3	Intermediate (*n*=90)	English Passive
Modirkhamene, Pouyan & Alavinia (2018)	Three consecutive sessions (two hours each)	Elementary (*n*=40)	Past *-ed*
Rahemi (2018)	Three weeks (two 90-minute sessions per week)	Students who are one deviation above and below the mean (intermediate) (*n*=185)	English passives delimited to Simple Present, Past, and Future tenses
Fahim & Ghanbar (2014)	Two 1-hour sessions in PI Group over two consecutive days	High Intermediate adult EFL (*n*=56)	Causative *my mother had me wash the dishes* (first-noun principle)
Birjandi & Rahemi (2009)	A 2-week treatment phase	No prior information of structure (*n*=169)	Causative *have or get*
Baleghizadeh, & Saharkhiz (2014)	Five 15-minute treatment sessions	Lower Intermediate adults (*n*=60)	The Simple Past passive structure
Sadeghi Beniss & Edalati Bazzaz (2014)	Twelve 30-minute sessions during a 4-week period of the semester	Upper Intermediate (*n*=30)	All errors (T-Units) Assessed

Naseri & Khodabandeh (2019)	12 sessions (3 per week) over 4 weeks / all learners got the same collocations / 105 mins each session but only small time dedicated to teaching the collocations	Intermediate (*n*=150)	Fifteen adjective-noun and fifteen verb-noun collocations on two topics of nature

Appendix C

Number of Treatments and Treatment Types

Korean Studies	Persian Studies
Authors **Number of Groups -** **Treatment Type – Effect Size**	**Authors** **Number of Groups -** **Treatment Type – Effect Size**
Kang (2011) 1 – Input (Low proficiency input enhancement and consciousness raising) (*d*=3.3120) 1 – Input (High proficiency input enhancement and consciousness raising) (*d*=.7846)	Rassaei (2012) 1 – Input (Input Enhancement) (*d*=5.0152) 1 – Input (Input Flood) (*d*=1.6376) 1 - Output (16 item completion task (Were there sixteen items or sixteen tasks?) and verbal examples elicited from students) (*d*=5.3603)
Kang (2003) 1 – Output (All output and production activities) (*d*=1.6461) 1 – (Processing Instruction) (*d*=1.5110)	Moradi & Farvardin (2016) 1 – Input (Input Flood) (*d*=5.5317) 1 – Input (Textual Enhancement) (*d*=8.1578) 1 – Output (Explicit instruction of rules followed by output practice) (*d*=6.5526) 1 – Output (Output activities that require exchange of ideas and the target structure) (*d*=6.9265)
Song & Suh (2008) 1 – Output (Reconstruction task) (*d*=.7611) 1 – Output (Picture-cued writing) (*d*=1.0041)	Farahian & Avarzamani (2019) 1 – Input (Processing Instruction) (*d*=1.5347) 1 – Output (Dictogloss) (*d*=.7042) 1 – Output (*d*=.5039)
Yang (2008) 1 – Input (Textual Enhancement) (*d*=3.1854) 1 – Output (Dictogloss) (*d*=2.6561)	Birjandi (2011) 1 – Processing Instruction (*d*=1.3311) 1 – Output (*d*=1.6493)

Kim (2014) 1 – Input (60 target sentences with images and rule explanation in Korean) (*d*=1.1846) 1 - Input (60 target sentences with images and rule explanation in Korean) (*d*=.7914) 1 – Input (Input Enhancement - 60 target sentences with images) (*d*=.7770)	Khani & Davaribina (2013) 1 – Processing Instruction (*d*=2.0006) 1 – Output (*d*=1.8252)
Kang (2009) 1 – Input (negative feedback plus one session of rule presentation) (*d*=2.0896) 1 – Input (Input Enhancement) (*d*=1.3206)	Fakharzadeh & Youhanaee (2015) 1 – Input (Reading, Listening, and explicit information about the target feature) (*d*=3.8685) 1 – Output (Dictogloss, text reconstruction, and cloze translation) (*d*=4.8524)
Song (2007) 1 – Input (input enhancement) (*d*=-.0654) 1 – Output (picture-cued writing) (*d*=1.0042)	Azmoon (2021) 1 – Input (Processing Instruction) (*d*=.7259) 1 – Output (Dictogloss) (*d*=2.0138)
Yang (2004) 1 – Input (in-depth reading, comprehension questions, and feedback - student metatalk but not implicit treatment given) (*d*=3.1854) 1 – Output (a modified dictogloss) (*d*=2.6140)	Younesi & Tajeddin (2014) 1 – Processing Instruction (*d*=6.6212) 1 – Output (Text reconstruction cloze task) (*d*=8.4164)
Kim (2002) 1 – Output (communicative tasks designed to elicit target form) (*d*=1.2692) 1 – Input (Consciousness raising - rules of target forms / comprehension and checkup questions) (*d*=.2630)	Gholami & Farvardin (2017) 1 – Input (both text enhancement and input flood) (*d*=8.7107) 1 – Output (required to make sentences with target collocations) (*d*=5.4372)
Yeo (2002) 1 – Input (Input Enhancement) (*d*=.6998) 1 – Output (Dictogloss) (*d*=1.2229)	Fakharzadeh & Youhanaee (2012) 1 – Output (dictogloss, individual text reconstruction, and corrected-close translation combined) (*d*=1.5775)
Cho (2011) 1 – Input (input flood and input enhancement combined) (*d*=1.0470) 1 – Output (Image and sentence completion) (*d*=1.5110)	Dabiri (2018) 1 – Processing Instruction (*d*=2.1465) 1 – Output (production-oriented activities without mechanical components) (*d*=1.8768)

Lee (2003) 2 – Input (input with target feature) (*d*=1.1159) 2- Output (production activities) (*d*=1.0066)	Modirkhamene, Pouyan, & Alavinia (2018) 1 – Processing Instruction (*d*=.7037) 1 – Output ("traditional instruction" – mechanical activities and communicative practice emphasising target feature (Only one or several features?)) (*d*=.5199)
Jeong & Lee (2018) 1 – Input (Input Enhancement with pictures – body part circled) (*d*=3.7538)	Rahemi (2018) 1 – Input (Processing Instruction) (*d*=1.3311) 1 – Output (60 production items requiring the participants to use passive – meaning oriented) (*d*=1.6493)
Lim (2007) 1 – Input (Input with visual) (*d*=1.4194)	Fahim & Ghanbar (2014) 1 – Input (Processing Instruction) (d=5.3768) 1 – Output (Dictogloss) (*d*=8.9829)
Shin (2011) 1 – Output (Guided Essay) (*d*=1.0495) 1 – Output (Reconstruction task) (*d*=.6293) 1 – Input (input with target feature) (*d*=.2237)	Birjandi & Rahemi (2009) 1- Input (Processing Instruction) (*d* 1.6178) 1 – Output (meaning-based pictorial and non-pictorial written tasks) (*d*=1.7875)
Hwang (2018) 3 – Input (Input Enhancement - narratives with bolded text) (*d*=1.7438) 3 – Output (Audio-recorded narratives with dictogloss) (*d*=2.2880)	Baleghizadeh & Saharkhiz (2014) 1 – Input (Processing Instruction) (*d*=8.1492) 1 – Input (Input Enhancement) (*d*=3.1264) 1 – Input (Consciousness Raising - read simple past active and passive sentences and distinguished the differences between the two structures in pairs) (*d*=4.3211) 1 – Output (Traditional grammar exercises that students answered in pairs) (*d*=2.4173)
Lee (2002) 2 – Output (read 146-word story out loud and worked in groups to retell story) (*d*=1.5252) 2 – Input (with picture prompts) (*d*=1.7565)	Sadeghi Beniss & Edalati Bazzaz (2014) 1 – Input Enhancement (Picture sequencing and other activities that do not require speaking) (*d*=.0529) 1 – Output (pushed output through picture description, retelling, ask and answer task and storytelling - speaking) (*d*=1.1584)
Kim & Nam (2017) 3 – Input (explicit information provided) (*d*=3.5602) 2 – Input (just input) (*d*=2.7907)	Naseri & Khodabandeh (2019) 1 – Input (Input Enhancement through text) (*d*=1.9888) 1 – Input (Input enhancement through WhatsApp) (*d*=2.4034)

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Perceptions of Inquiry-based Learning in Higher Education: A Case Study from North Macedonia

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Abstract

Inquiry-based learning (IBL) is a learner-centred approach based on using students' questions to facilitate learning. This approach is based on constructivist philosophy, particularly the work of Piaget, Dewey and Vygostky. Because it is suitable for developing students' critical thinking skills, modern educational methodologists call for its wider use in the classroom, not only in language teaching but also in other disciplines. The present study aims to explore teachers' and students' perceptions and classroom experiences of IBL in the EFL classroom at tertiary level. The research context is the South East European University (SEEU) in Tetovo, North Macedonia. The study, which uses two instruments, a survey and an interview for data collection, found that IBL has several benefits, including the development of communication skills, collaboration among students, critical thinking and active learning.
Keywords: Inquiry-based learning, tertiary level, language learning, teachers and students' perceptions

1 Introduction

With the inclusion of Artificial Intelligence in education, learners and teachers are exposed to unlimited resources and tools for learning and teaching. The education system in North Macedonia is going through tremendous changes in all levels of education. Not leaving any child behind is one of the core issues of the national curriculum and universities must prepare future teachers to respond to the diversity and differentiation that they will face in the future. One of the best ways to achieve these goals is using modern teaching methods and approaches which put the learner in the centre of learning. An important current trend in teaching EFL which engages learners a lot and promotes active learning is inquiry-based learning.

Inquiry-based learning is a pedagogical approach which has its roots in the 1960s when discovery learning, as opposed to traditional teaching methods such as the Grammar-Translation Method, began to be used (Brunner 1961). Based on Dewey's pedagogy of experiential learning, inquiry is conducted in a way that is based on the main principles that students should engage with the content, ask questions in class and work together to find solutions to different learning problems. Additionally, learners are expected to construct knowledge by themselves and based on experiences.

The present study focuses on teachers' and students' perceptions and experiences with inquiry-based learning at a tertiary level of education, i.e. at the South East

European University (SEEU) in North Macedonia. The institutions in this country strive to move away from traditional teaching methods, used until recently, to modern teaching methods including technology such as Mobile-assisted language learning, Google Meet, Microsoft Teams, Online quizzes, Podcasts and AI in edu- cation. The utilisation of modern technology enhances inquiry-based learning because technology creates environments that engage learners in self-learning and increases their autonomy.

Indeed, there is a growing recognition of the importance of preparing learners for the demands of 21st-century education, which emphasises critical thinking, problem-solving, and creativity. Inquiry-based learning plays a crucial role in promoting these skills by engaging students in activities that require them to think critically, analyse information, and generate creative solutions to real-world problems.

At the South East European University, various learning activities are implemented to enhance students' learning experiences. These activities include classroom debates, research papers, projects, group work, class reflections, online quizzes, all of which provide opportunities for students to explore complex issues, collaborate with their peers, and apply their knowledge in practical contexts. No doubt, teachers play a pivotal role in shaping students' learning experiences and helping them develop the skills necessary for success in the 21st century. By understanding teachers' perspectives on inquiry-based learning, this study aims to provide insights into how best to support educators in implementing effective teaching approaches and promoting student learning and achievement.

2 Basic Aspects of Inquiry-based Learning

Inquiry-based learning is a contemporary approach based on constructivist principles that place the learner at the centre of learning. The main principles of this approach are *problem-solving*, *investigations* and *questions*:

> Inquiry-based teaching has often focused on its application in science and maths education, but the approach is equally well-suited to the teaching of the humanities'. (Sweetland 2008: 1)

Furthermore, the role of the teacher in an inquiry-based classroom is quite different from that of a teacher in a conventional classroom. Instead of providing direct instruction to students, teachers help students generate their own content-related questions and guide the investigation that follows (ibid.). The role of the teacher is very important in this process because his or her task is to lead and facilitate learning.

Regarding this issue, Pappes (2014) summarises four different forms of inquiries used in this approach:

- *Confirmation inquiry:* This is a question or method given to learners with known results at the end. This type of inquiry offers learners an opportunity to reinforce ideas which require the practice of investigative skills.
- *Structured inquiry*: The learner is given a question or a method by which to

arrive at the end result.The aim is to provide explanations for the evidence provided during a confirmation inquiry.

- *Guided inquiry*: Learners only get the question, and the idea is to design a method of investigating the question itself.
- *Open inquiry*: Learners form their questions, design the methods of investigation, conduct their inquiry and present the results.

Laursen & Rasmussen (2019) summarise four pillars of inquiry-based learning, which include student engagement with meaningful tasks, student collaboration, teacher inquiry, student thinking, and the promotion of equity in the design of facilitative choices by teachers. Alfieri et al. (2011: 3) believe that inquiry-based learning has the advantage of allowing students to interact with materials and models, manipulate variables, explore phenomena and attempt to apply principles, and provides them with opportunities to notice patterns, discover their underlying causalities and learn in ways that appear more robust. When it comes to the methodology of inquiry-based teaching, it is based on the 5E model (*engage, explore, explain, evaluate*, and *elaborate*). This model is flexible, and it offers best teaching practices (Bybee 2009). The 5E model is also based on constructivism and supports students' learning through experience:

Phase	Summary
Engagement	The teacher or a curriculum task accesses the learners' prior knowledge and helps them become engaged in a new concept through the use of short activities that promote curiosity and elicit prior knowledge. The activity should make connections between past and present learning experiences, expose prior conceptions, and organize students' thinking toward the learning outcomes of current activities.
Exploration	Exploration experiences provide students with a common base of activities within which current concepts (i.e., misconceptions); processes, and skills are identified and conceptual change is facilitated. Learners may complete lab activities that help them use prior knowledge to generate new ideas, explore questions and possibilities, and design and conduct a preliminary investigation.
Explanation	The explanation phase focuses students' attention on a particular aspect of their engagement and exploration experiences and provides opportunities to demonstrate their conceptual understanding, process skills, or behaviors. This phase also provides opportunities for teachers to directly introduce a concept, process, or skill.
Elaboration	Teachers challenge and extend students' conceptual understanding and skills. Through new experiences, students develop deeper and broader understanding, more information, and adequate skills. Students apply their understanding of the concept by conducting additional activities

Evaluation	The evaluation phase encourages students to assess their understanding and abilities and provides opportunities for teachers to evaluate student progress toward achieving the educational objectives.

Table 1: 5 E Model (Bybee et.al.2006: 2)

Williams (2019) suggests that the 5E model for instruction can be used as a flexible one that can be very useful for curriculum development, instructors, and other educators based on constructivism and best teaching practices. In 2023, Zusy introduced a model of instruction that prioritises engaging students in the classroom to foster knowledge acquisition through phased lessons. This innovative approach is characterised by inquiry-based learning, which fundamentally shifts the dynamic of education from passive reception to active discovery. Including inquiry as a teaching method, students are given the opportunity to explore information themselves, rather than simply receiving it through traditional lecturing or instruction.

Furthermore, the main benefits of inquiry-based learning are that it enhances critical thinking, comprehension and communication skills; it helps students to explore different topics; it supports language learning and ideally makes students love learning; it is useful for different types of classrooms and promotes diversity and differentiation in the classroom (Crocket 2019). Nonetheless, there are three main disadvantages of inquiry-based learning, which Gutierrez (2018) lists. These include concerns about decreased performance in standardised testing; the risk of overlooking important issues if too much time is devoted to student inquiries, and student discomfort with the level of participation required; and potential unpreparedness of teachers to effectively facilitate inquiry-based lessons. These reflections show that implementing inquiry-based learning is not an easy task for teachers as there exist several obstacles which need to be overcome.

Recently, several studies have looked at the effectiveness of the inquiry-based method in ELT in different contexts.

Stepanechko & Kozub (2022) conducted a quantitative survey to collect data from 76 students who were enrolled in a specialised program in cybernetics and IT. The participants' age ranged from 17-18 years old. The study aimed to present the implementation of the inquiry-based method in English language classes and to determine if this method is effective to develop students' speaking skills. The activities used were those that encouraged collaboration between students and other learning materials, increased learners' intrinsic motivation and promoted critical thinking. The teacher's sole role was that of a facilitator who organises students' learning and fosters their critical thinking and engagement in learning. The findings showed that there were many benefits of inquiry-based learning such as the development of students' curiosity, inspiration of deep learning and cognition as well as the increase of motivation and their overall learning achievements.

Gholam (2017) employed a mixed approach; the research questions were related to some challenges of implementing inquiry-based learning and to find out the reasons why student teachers favour using it in the classroom. Eight participants, all students, completed the survey. The results revealed that the participants were of the

opinion that the school system was an obstacle for the implementation of inquiry-based learning in the classroom. The study recommended that inquiry-based learning should be used at all levels of schooling, starting in the early stages of development. According to the study, the integration of inquiry-based learning into the school curriculum can enhance interaction and students' questioning techniques.

In conclusion, the implementation of inquiry-based learning in EFL teaching and learning has its advantages, but also presents considerable challenges.

3 Methodology

The present study was conducted with the aim of exploring the potential of inquiry-based learning at the tertiary level in SEEU, North Macedonia. It was considered to be a pioneering project because none of the studies previously dealt with this issue in the given research context. By examining teachers' perceptions, students' attitudes and experiences, and the perceived benefits of inquiry-based learning, the study aimed to provide insights into the effectiveness and potential challenges of implementing this approach in EFL instruction at the tertiary level.

The study aimed to address the following research questions:

Q1: What are teachers' perceptions of the inquiry-based approach at the tertiary level of education?

Q2: What are students' attitudes and experiences with inquiry-based learning in their classroom?

Q3: What are the benefits of implementing inquiry-based learning in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom?

These research questions were designed to explore the perspectives of both teachers and students regarding inquiry-based learning in the tertiary education context, particularly focusing on the EFL classroom.

The institution in which the present study was carried out is the South East European University (SEEU) located in Tetovo, North Macedonia. The study was conducted at the Faculty of Languages, Cultures and Communication, one of the seven faculties of this university. Students enrolled on the English Language and Literature major, BA programme. After graduation, the majority of them became EFL teachers; therefore, training them in using modern approaches is crucial for their success in their future teaching career. Additionally, the SEEU is a multilingual University which promotes learner-centred education, combines the best possible inquiry-based learning practices and trains its staff continuously. It is now regarded as a model for multi-ethnic, multi-lingual higher education in South East Europe.

The present study employed two research instruments: a teacher survey and student interviews. The teacher survey contained two parts: 1) perceptions of inquiry-based

teaching and 2) usefulness of inquiry-based instruction. According to Jonex, Baxter & Khanduja (2013: 5), questionnaires are a very useful survey tool, allowing large populations to be assessed with relative ease.

The questionnaire employed contained 30 questions. In addition, semi-structured interviews with students were used to explore their perceptions and experiences of inquiry-based activities. The interview itself included eight open-ended questions appropriate for the purpose of this research. According to DeJonckheere & Vaughn (2019), semi-structured in-depth interviews are commonly used in qualitative research, and they are the most frequent qualitative data source in health service research.

4 Results

4.1 Quantitative Results

The survey on EFL teachers' perceptions of inquiry-based learning received responses from 32 teachers at the South East European University. However, only 30 surveys were filled out completely. The results are presented in Table 1 and Table 2:

Items		Agree	Neutral	Disagree
1	I look forward to lessons that use inquiry-based activities.	22	4	4
2	Inquiry-based activities are time consuming.	19	2	9
3	It is difficult to maintain control during inquiry-based activities in the class.	7	6	17
4	Language skills are the ability to ask and answer questions about real-life situations.	20	2	8
5	Inquiry work serves no purpose if learners do not use everyday English.	11	7	12
6	Language learning involves discovering new things about the world.	19	0	11
7	I prefer my learners to design their own inquiry activities.	17	5	8
8	Inquiry-based tasks help my learners to develop their problem solving skills.	26	1	3
9	I found online materials for inquiry-based lessons.	20	0	10
10	Assessment of inquiry-based activities is challenging.	23	1	7

Table 2: Teachers' Perception of inquiry-based learning

Based on the findings presented in Table 2, it can be concluded that teachers

generally hold positive perceptions of inquiry-based learning. The majority of participants, comprising 22 out of 30 teachers (73.3%), expressed enthusiasm for lessons that incorporated inquiry-based activities. While a small number of teachers, 7 out of 30 (23.3%), found maintaining class control to be a challenge, the overwhelming majority, 26 out of 30 (86.6%) agreed that inquiry-based learning developed problem-solving skills in their students.

Furthermore, the results indicate that a significant number of teachers, 23 out of 30 (76.6%), perceived assessment of inquiry-based learning to be challenging, suggesting a need for further development in this area. Regarding the availability of materials for inquiry-based classes, the majority of participants (20 out of 30; 66,6%) reported finding online materials useful, while one third of them, representing 10 teachers (33,3%), disagreed with this estimation.

Overall, these findings highlight the positive stance of teachers towards inquiry-based learning, with acknowledgment of its benefits for student learning outcomes. However, they also underscore certain challenges such as classroom management and assessment, indicating areas for potential improvement and professional development:

	Items	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
11	Students enjoy doing inquiry-based activities.	21	3	6
12	Students know how to identify problems during and give solutions in inquiry-based activities.	17	4	9
13	Inquiry-based activities improve students' communication skills.	28	1	1
14	Inquiry-based activities increase students' motivation for learning.	18	2	10
15	I have learners working in groups during inquiry-based activities and benefit from it.	17	4	9
16	Introverted students gladly participate in inquiry-based activities.	10	10	10
17	Students improve their critical thinking skills during inquiry-based learning.	18	5	7
18	Students are actively engaged during inquiry-based tasks.	26	1	3
19	Students' enjoyment is high in inquiry-based learning.	14	6	10
20	Students are highly concentrated while doing inquiries.	22	0	8

Table 3: Usefulness of Inquiry-based Learning Activities with Students

The findings presented in Table 3 indicate that teachers generally perceived inquiry-based learning activities as highly beneficial for students. More specifically, a majority of teachers, 28 out of 30 (93.3%), reported that inquiry-based learning activities were very useful for improving students' communication skills. Similarly, 26 teachers (86.6%) noted that students were actively engaged while working on inquiry-based activities, thus indicating a high level of commitment to learning. Teach- ers also observed that students enjoyed inquiry-based activities, with 21 (71%) out of 30 teachers reporting this finding. Furthermore, 22 (73.3%) teachers indicated that students demonstrated high levels of concentration when engaged in inquiry-based activities. However, there were mixed responses regarding the participation of introverted students in inquiry-based activities, where 10 (33.3%) teachers agreed that introverted students willingly participated in inquiry-based activities, another 10 teachers (33.3%) remained neutral on this statement, and 10 teachers (33.3%) disagreed with the notion that introverted students gladly participated in inquiry-based activities.

Overall, these findings suggest that teachers perceived inquiry-based activities as highly useful for students, particularly in terms of improving communication skills, increasing engagement, enjoyment, and concentration. However, there appears to be variability in how introverted students engaged with such activities, with some teachers observing willingness to participate while others did not.

4.2 Interview Results

The second instrument of this study involved interviews with 40 English as Foreign Language (EFL) students majoring in English Language and Literature. The purpose of the interviews was to inquire about the participants' experiences with inquiry-based learning within their department. The interview contained eight questions covering students familiarity with IBL, their experiences, perceptions, benefits, challenges and possible recommendations for teachers while implementing IBL in the classroom. The participants who were interviewed were all students in the aforementioned department.

Q1: Do you know what inquiry-based learning is?

P1: Yes, it is a new teaching approach related to problem-solving activities.

P3: Well, it is a student-centred learning process which focuses on solving open-ended questions.

P11: I think it is learning with the help of asking questions.

P19: This approach makes students engaged in the learning process by making real-word connections through exploration.

P22: I think it aims to encourage students to ask questions and find solutions to problems in real-life situations.

Analysing all the responses to the first question "Do you know what inquiry-based learning is?", it is collectively described as a student-centred teaching approach that emphasises problem solving and questioning. Key aspects include engaging students through exploration, focusing on open-ended questions, and making real-world

connections to encourage students to find solutions to real-world problems.

Q2: Can you describe your experience in using inquiry-based learning as positive or negative in the classroom?

P5: Inquiry-based learning always works with students in a positive way because when you teach a hard topic, you connect it with some examples from real life.

P15: One instance where I found inquiry-based learning to be very positive was during a group project. Our task was to research and present on a topic related to our studies. Instead of just assigning us a topic, the teacher allowed us to choose our own topics and encouraged us to explore our interests.

P26: As a student, my experience with inquiry-based learning in the classroom has been overwhelmingly positive. It has transformed the way I approach learning and has had a significant impact on my educational journey.

P27: Through inquiry-based learning, I have developed strong critical thinking and problem-solving skills. I have learned how to analyse information, evaluate its credibility, and draw logical conclusions.

Based on the responses to the question about participants' experiences with IBL, they generally indicated that inquiry-based learning was viewed positively, with benefits including increased engagement, autonomy, critical thinking and real-world connections. Specific examples (such as P15's group project) and detailed outcomes (such as P27's skills development) provided concrete evidence of its positive impact.

Q3: Do you think you achieved your learning aim(s)?

P4: Personally, I think I have achieved my learning aims.

P10: Yes, I strongly believe that my learning aims have been achieved.

P28: Yes, because I have developed critical thinking skills and communication skills a lot.

P39: I have because I am an introverted person and group work helped me to participate more in the problem we were given by the teacher.

An analysis of the responses to the question of whether students had achieved their learning objectives through IBL shows that the responses indicated a positive perception of the achievement of learning objectives, with varying levels of detail. P28 and P39 provided more detailed insights by specifying skills acquired and personal growth experiences, whereas P4 and P10 provided more general affirmations of their achievements.

Q4: Can you name any factors of inquiry-based learning you find the most / least useful?

P7: Factors of inquiry-based learning that I often found useful are: curiosity and engagement, independence and autonomy. While least useful was the need for guidance.

P14: For the most useful I would choose the problem-based inquiry approach when you give students a real life problem and they with their problem-solving skills need to solve the problem and the least effective I would choose the lecture method or the oral method of teaching.

P27: Some factors that make inquiry-based learning useful include active student engagement and collaborative learning. On the other hand, some factors that may make inquiry-based learning less useful include teacher preparation and prior knowledge.

P34: The most useful factors of inquiry-based learning are a context for questions, a framework for questions, a focus for questions and different levels of questions. Least useful would be evaluation of the activity.

Based on the interview responses regarding the most and least useful factors of IBL, the participants mentioned curiosity, engagement, problem solving skills and collaboration. On the other hand, the need for guidance, method of teaching / lecturing, teacher preparation and evaluation of the activity were mentioned as the least useful.

Q5: What was the most challenging in inquiry-based learning?

P14: I needed to be trained to practise inquiry-based activities in the class.

P20: For me, the most challenging aspect was to solve problems but luckily we worked in groups so we managed it very well.

P 31: Students' preparedness because it is a time-consuming activity.

An analysis of the responses to the challenges that inquiry-based learning posed for pupils revealed the need for adequate teacher training, the difficulty of the problem-solving tasks and the need for pupils to be well prepared due to the time-consuming nature of these activities. These findings point to the importance of professional development for teachers, the benefits of collaborative learning, and the need for effective time management and preparation.

Q6: Which courses encouraged the use of inquiry-based learning?

P2: For me, this was more appropriate to be used in language skills classes because I was given freedom to work.

P17: In the course ESP for law, we were thrilled to work on inquiry-based tasks because it helped us to solve problems related to law.

P29: Inquiry-based learning was very useful for us while taking a teaching methodology-related course because we could choose our own activities for class presentations.

P34: Definitely the course language and society encouraged the use of inquiry-based activities in class.

When asked about the courses that most promoted IBL in the classroom, participants identified Language Skills, ESP for Law, Teaching Methodology and the Language and Society course.

Q7: Do you have any suggestions for teachers for inquiry-based learning?

P1: My suggestion is to practise it with the students because it increases our critical thinking skills.

P9: My experience with inquiry-based learning was very useful therefore, I strongly recommend it to teachers of EFL.

P12: I would suggest they implement it in class especially for developing collaboration

and speaking skills of the students.

P22: I would definitely suggest it to teachers because it encouraged active learning where we actively participated in the learning process through inquiry-based activities.

In response to question 7, which asked for any other suggestions for teachers, the students indicated that they were all in favour of implementing IBL in the classroom because it improved their critical thinking, developed collaboration in the classroom and promoted active learning. In general, the students' suggestions highlighted the many benefits of implementing inquiry-based learning in the classroom, and their feedback emphasised the importance of incorporating inquiry-based approaches into teaching practices in order to create engaging and effective learning experiences for all students.

Q8: Will you use it when you become a teacher? Why or why not?

P5: I will definitely use it with my students in my future teaching career.

P28: Yes, I think I will use it to develop my students' critical thinking skills.

P35: I will think about it when I become a teacher.

P40: Yes, because I really enjoyed the group work and problems we had to solve.

When asked about their use of IBL once they become teachers, participants recognised the potential benefits of IBL in promoting critical thinking, collaboration and engagement. Positive experiences with IBL activities such as group work and problem solving also influenced participants' intentions to use them in their future teaching careers.

The overall results from the students' interviews indicate a strong preference for inquiry-based learning as their favourite class activity, with universally positive and rewarding experiences reported by all participants. Although it can be suggested that interview responses may be influenced by the research process, the genuine enthusiasm of students for Inquiry-Based Learning (IBL) is evident in classrooms where researchers have implemented it themselves.

The above findings underscore the effectiveness of inquiry-based approaches in engaging students and fostering a supportive and enriching learning environment. They suggest that inquiry-based learning resonates well with students, improves their critical thinking skills and contributes to their overall satisfaction with the course. It also helped them to learn how to analyse information, evaluate its credibility, and draw logical conclusions as well as work collaboratively.

5 Limitations of the Study

During the research process, the researchers encountered several limitations. These included a small pool of participants drawn exclusively from one institution, as well as limitations related to research methods and insufficient training for teachers in the implementation of Inquiry-Based Learning (IBL) in the classroom.

A limited number of participants undermines the representativeness of the study's findings and hinders the ability to draw broader conclusions. This limitation can result in a lack of diverse perspectives, experiences and contextual factors, which may lead to biassed or distorted findings. As a result, the findings may lack robustness and may not accurately reflect the different experiences and challenges associated with IBL in different educational settings.

Furthermore, the lack of a survey method limits the systematic collection and analysis of quantitative data on participants' perceptions, attitudes and behaviours towards IBL. Surveys could provide standardised measures of the depth of participants' experience of IBL, their level of satisfaction and their perceptions of its effectiveness. Without survey data, the study relies heavily on qualitative data, interviews, which, while insightful, may not provide a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under study.

In addition, inadequate teacher training in the implementation of IBL can lead to inconsistent or ineffective implementation practices. This deficiency may impede teachers' ability to effectively facilitate inquiry-based activities, resulting in suboptimal learning experiences for students. Inadequate training may also contribute to challenges such as difficulties in designing meaningful inquiry tasks, managing group dynamics, or accurately assessing student learning outcomes.

6 Conclusions

The present study was designed to explore teachers and students' perceptions of inquiry-based learning at the tertiary level of education. The implementation of this approach in teaching EFL has been found to have several benefits including the development of communications skills, collaboration among students, the development of critical thinking, and active learning. These benefits contribute to a more engaging, effective, and enriching educational experience both for teachers and students.

Teachers' responses to the quantitative part of the survey underscored their positive attitude towards inquiry-based learning, with recognition of its benefits for student learning outcomes. However, they also highlighted certain challenges, such as classroom management and assessment, that warrant attention and potential areas for improvement through professional development initiatives. These findings answer the first research questions about teachers' perceptions of inquiry-based learning at the tertiary level.

In response to the second research questions on students' attitudes and experiences with inquiry-based learning in the classroom, the results were also very positive. Students reported that they were familiar that this approach is a student-centred learning process which focuses on solving open-ended questions and makes students engaged in the learning process by establishing real-word connections through exploration. The most useful factors during its' implementation were curiosity and engagement on the students' part as well as independence and autonomy. However, students still needed guidance throughout the learning process. The least useful factors influencing IBL implementation were teacher preparation and prior knowledge, and evaluation of learning activities. Finally, the inquiry-based activities were most

useful for courses in language skills, English for specific purposes, and language methodology.

In response to the third research question on the benefits of implementing inquiry-based learning in the EFL classroom, both groups, i.e. teachers and students, perceived inquiry-based activities as highly beneficial for students, particularly in enhancing communication skills, increasing engagement, enjoyment, and concentration on the tasks to be performed. These positive perceptions reflected the effectiveness of inquiry-based learning in promoting active student involvement and fostering a conducive learning environment.

However, there was a slight variability in how introverted students engaged with inquiry-based activities. While some teachers observed that introverted students willingly participated in such activities, others did not report the same level of participation. This discrepancy highlighted the importance of considering individual student needs and preferences when implementing inquiry-based approaches. It underscored the need for educators to adopt strategies that accommodate diverse learning styles and personalities, thus ensuring that all students can fully engage and benefit from inquiry-based learning experiences.

All in all, this study has contributed valuable insights into the perceptions and experiences of both teachers and students regarding inquiry-based learning at the tertiary level. It has highlighted the positive impact of inquiry-based approaches on student learning outcomes and emphasised the importance of addressing challenges to further enhance the effectiveness of this instructional method.

It is strongly recommended that further research and professional development initiatives be undertaken to address challenges such as classroom management, assessment, and the engagement of introverted students. In addition, the study suggests the need for ongoing support and training for teachers to effectively implement inquiry-based learning strategies and to maximise the benefits of inquiry-based learning in the EFL classroom, not only in North Macedonia, but also beyond.

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Music Activities for Language Learning in the Spanish Classroom

Manuel Vidal & Christine Ericsdotter Nordgren (Stockholm, Sweden)

Abstract (English)

Although it is widely recognised by language teachers that the use of musical activities supports language development in both children and adults, studies show that teachers do not use them as much as they would like. This gap can be disadvantageous to both learners and teachers. The purpose of this study was to collect examples of music activities that actually take place and are regarded as beneficial for language development in Spanish in a Swedish school context, and what conditions are central to them being used. The study is based on a survey and follow-up interviews with Spanish teachers, and the results show that a wide variety of activities are used, both with a focus on communicative and cultural competences, and on providing stimulating settings for learning. This high level of use suggests a smaller gap between teachers' beliefs and practices compared to previous studies, possibly indicating that music has a more prominent place in the Spanish classroom than in other foreign language classrooms. The choice of music for the learning activity emerged as a particularly important factor for the activity to work as intended.

Keywords: Spanish, modern languages, language learning, music, cultural competence, communicative competence

Sammanfattning (Svenska)

Olika typer av musikaktiviteter kan gynna språkutvecklingen för såväl barn som vuxna, men flera studier visar att lärare inte använder dem i den utsträckning de skulle vilja. Detta glapp kan vara till nackdel för både inlärare och lärare. Syftet med denna studie var att samla exempel på musikaktiviteter som faktiskt blir av och bedöms fungera positivt för språkutveckling i spanska i svensk skolkontext, och vilka förutsättningar som är centrala för att detta ska ske. Studien baserar sig på enkätsvar och uppföljande intervjuer med spanskalärare, och resultaten visar att en stor variation av aktiviteter används både med fokus på kommunikativa och kulturella kompetenser, och för att främja förutsättningarna för lärande. Denna höga användning tyder på ett mindre glapp mellan övertygelse och praktik inom just spanskämnet, vilket kan tyda på att musik har en mer given plats i spanskaklassrummet än i andra språkämnen. Musikval framstår som en särskilt viktig faktor för att aktiviteten ska fungera med avsedd effekt.

Nyckelord: Spanska, moderna språk, språkinlärning, musik, kulturell kompetens, kommunikativ kompetens

1 Introduction

Positive correlations between music activities and different areas of language development have been demonstrated in both first and second language learning (Engh 2013, Salcedo 2010), ranging from phonological awareness, pronunciation training, fluency, and word learning to memory functions, cultural understanding, and motivation for language study. The many commonalities between music and language in sound structures (Slevc 2012) and cognitive functions (Patel 2008) are thought to explain many of these effects.

The positive correlations are recognised in language education theory and practice, and studies from several parts of the world show that language teachers generally have confidence in the benefits of music activities (Alisaari & Heikkola 2017, Bokiev & Ismail 2021, Engh 2013, Tegge 2018, Tse 2015). At the same time, the same studies show a discrepancy between teachers' beliefs about the positive effects and their actual classroom practices, in which music elements are often absent. One reason for the discrepancy between teachers' theory and practice is suggested to be a lack of teaching and training during teacher education (Alisaari & Heikkola 2017). Another is that many teachers experience a conflict in that they intuitively feel that the use of music benefits language learners, but lack adequate theoretical arguments and systematic empirical evidence to justify the use of music to policy makers and superiors (Engh 2013). A third reason may be that many teachers lack access to functional learning materials for musical elements (Tse 2015).

In any language classroom, there are both individual and structural factors that influence the conditions for music activities to be realised and for them to work. For example, if language teachers are native speakers of the target language and / or generally enthusiastic about music themselves, they bring important resources that can facilitate and enrich the pedagogical approach. Institutional factors such as management support and cross-curricular infrastructure vary greatly between Swedish schools and can be crucial for the methodological legitimacy of using music in language teaching. Another aspect is that some target languages may be easier than others to relate to in teaching, depending on tradition and on popular culture trends in the respective surrounding society. Easy access to music does not automatically make the use of it effective in the classroom, but it can facilitate teachers' planning and implementation, and increase students' receptivity, exposure and curiosity. Another aspect is that music may have a different status and function in the literacy development, history and general education of a particular language or language area, which may be reflected in the teaching materials and generally influence the role of music in the classroom.

Based on the positive effects for learners and teachers' positive attitudes, the purpose of this study is to document which music activities Spanish teachers actually use, how they make their choices, and what factors they believe play a role in making the activities successful for language learning in the Swedish school context.

This study consists of a questionnaire and follow-up interviews with Spanish teachers in Year 6 to upper secondary school. The context for the teachers' choices and experiences is drawn from language education theory and school-governing documents in Sweden. The choice of Spanish teachers is based on the following assumptions in relation to the description of conditions above:

- Spanish is the largest modern language in the Swedish school context, which should facilitate finding informants for the study. Statistics from the Swedish National Agency for Education (2022) for modern languages within the framework of language choice show that in the 2021 / 2022 school year, Span- ish was chosen by 52.8% in Year 6 (followed by German (20.5%) and French (19.4%)) and by 43.2% in Year 9 (followed by German (16.2%) and French (13.8%)).

- Spanish teachers in Sweden may have a higher proportion of first language speakers than other modern languages, which could contribute to greater familiarity and effectiveness in music selection and organisation. It is difficult to find reliable statistics to support this claim, but teacher educators and practising teachers often hold it to be a fact.

- Spanish is the second most common language in the global popular music context, which makes it easy to relate to in the classroom. Statistics from market monitor Luminate show that of the world's top 10,000 streaming songs, 54.9% were in English, 10.1% in Spanish and 7.8 % in Hindi (Stassen 2024).

- A great cultural importance of music has been documented in many Spanish-speaking areas, particularly in Latin America (Olsen & Sheehy 2008). This may contribute to increased pedagogical legitimacy for the use of music activities in the language classroom.

The assumptions underlying the choice of Spanish teachers as a respondent group may have an impact on the results, so an overarching question is also whether teachers see music as having a special place in Spanish as a modern language.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Language Teaching for Communicative and Cultural Competence

Language teachers' practices need to be understood in the light of language education theory, and in relation to school policy documents. Although there is a wide variety of theories and methodological approaches, it is possible to identify a general consensus on the conditions for language learning. These include language exposure to appropriate and varied input, opportunities for interaction and practical use of both receptive and productive skills, learner motivation, and adequate feedback on language development (Whong 2011). The teaching of modern languages in Swedish schools is regulated by the curricula of the Swedish National Agency for Education, which are designed according to the guidelines of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe 2001, 2020). The CEFR focuses on communicative and cultural competence and includes descriptors for levels of reception, production and interaction in the target language and with cultures in which the target language is spoken.

Communicative and cultural competence are seen as interdependent. The language teacher is thus required to teach the four linguistic language skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening as well as cultural awareness, which is sometimes referred to

as ”the fifth language skill” to emphasise its fundamental importance for language learning (Tomalin 2008). However, cultural awareness as a learning object is less clear-cut than the linguistic competence areas are, and has had different names and content in Swedish curricula. In the primary school curricula from 1962 and 1969, and in the language used by many active teachers, the word "realia" is used to refer to knowledge of the geography, history, society and aesthetic expressions of the target language countries or regions. This was replaced in the 1980 curriculum by "cultural and social orientation" (Authors' translation from Swedish 'Kultur- och samhällorientering') In current curricula, this area of competence is described in terms of ”providing students with opportunities to develop knowledge and understanding of different living conditions and social and cultural phenomena in areas and contexts where the language is used” (Swe: ”ge eleverna möjligheter att utveckla kunskaper om och förståelse för olika livsvillkor samt sociala och kulturella företeelser i områden och i sammanhang där språket används”) (Skolverket 2011)[1]. The conceptual change has been influenced by Swedish educational trends, but it is also true that 'culture' in itself is a complex concept, used in different contexts with different meanings (Fornäs 2012).

Teaching target language cultures is thus expected to include space for both individual and collective development, and music activities are one of the ways in which this can be achieved. In Spanish-speaking cultures, music as an aesthetic-cultural expression is considered to be difficult to detach from the overall image of the culture, and its expression through song, dance and a wide variety of instruments is closely intertwined with both language and history (Olsen & Sheehy 2008). In the 20th century alone, music in Latin America was greatly influenced by the many political movements that took place, such as the emergence of the tango in Buenos Aires around World War I, and protest music in Argentina, Uruguay and Chile in the 1960s. In the Caribbean region of Latin America, e.g. in Cuba and the Dominican Republic, musical expression has also had political and social significance serving as a political tool, with some music being authorised and supported by governments, while other music was banned or censored. Spanish language teachers thus face the challenge of conveying a variety of cultural functions of music in historical and current events.

2.2 Aesthetics And Aesthetic Learning Processes In Language Subjects

With regard to the aesthetic meaning of the concept of culture, the CEFR lists "Aesthetic uses of language" as an example of tasks that learners should be enabled to handle in order to meet communicative demands in different domains. The aesthetic uses of language include singing nursery rhymes, folk songs and pop music (Council of Europe, 2001: section 4.3.5). In the Swedish curriculum for modern languages, songs and poems are included as main content within language reception both in primary and secondary schools. It states that an overall goal is that students in Swedish schools should be able to “use and take part in many different forms of expression such as language, art, music, drama and dance, and have developed knowledge of the society's cultural offerings” (Swe: ”använda och ta del av många

[1] The curriculum was updated to LGR22 after the study was carried out, but the wording is the same.

olika uttrycksformer såsom språk, bild, musik, drama och dans samt har utvecklat kännedom om samhällets kulturutbud”) (Skolverket 2011). This indicates that songs should be counted as objects of learning in each language, and that they, along with other aesthetic forms of expression, have intrinsic value in the literacy process and identity building in the target language.

However, studies have shown that aesthetic forms of expression and learning processes are often used instrumentally as a route or tool to other learning goals, rather than as objects of learning in their own right. In a comparison of Danish, Norwegian and Swedish curricula for first language studies and for English studies, Thorgersen (2014) shows that aesthetics have a significantly larger place in the curricula for first languages than those for second languages, whose acquisition is described more mechanistically. In the same text, Thorgersen also argues that students are ill-prepared and thus deprived of opportunities for interpretation and experience of authentic aesthetic expressions, since these are being treated in school as outcome-based and predictable entities. In the subject ‘Swedish as a first language’, Dahlbäck (2016) shows that even if teachers’ views on language and content affect their practices in aesthetic forms of expression, they do not affect their view that the written language is superior to both verbal language and aesthetic forms of expression. This is reflected their statement that the purpose of using aesthetic expressions ”was not primarily to obtain certain knowledge (...) but to create community and enjoyable activities” (Swedish ”inte i första hand för att erhålla och visa kunskap (..) utan för att skapa gemenskap och som lustfyllda aktiviteter”) (Dahlbäck 2016: 15). This approach probably affects teachers’ pedagogical choices and also students’ attitudes towards aesthetic learning activities. Samuelsson et al. (2011) argue that the view of aesthetic subjects and learning processes is negatively affected when these subjects mainly are used as 'facilitators'[2] for high status subjects such as maths and written language development.

2.3 Psychological Aspects of Music

Learners’ encounters with, receptivity to, and processing of music as an aesthetic experience are important to consider in their own right. From a music psychology perspective, language teachers who use or would like to use music in their teaching need to be aware of how different learners may react physically, emotionally, intellectually and socially to music, and how these factors may in turn affect the learning situation. Bossius & Lilliestam (2011) argue that people are socialised into a musical habitus consisting of musical tastes and habits, and hence encounter music with certain prior knowledge and expectations. This of course applies to both students and teachers.

Theories about different types of listening are also relevant to language learning. According to Lillienstam (2012), established classifications of listening strategies and types of listening are not particularly well supported empirically, but may still contribute to an understanding of different directions and functions in listening. One example is Wiggen’s description of the difference between listening to music as a

[2] Authors’ choice of translation from Swedish ”hjälpgumma”, literally a word for an ’all-rounder’ who helps out with any kind of work.

soundscape (Swe: ”klangkuliss”) or listening to music as content (Swe: ”innehållslyssnande”) (Wiggen 1971). Soundscape mode refers to a situation where the listener knows that something is being played, but not necessarily what; listening for content refers to a situation where the music speaks directly to the listener and captures their attention. Another example is Green’s description of the difference between *distracted listening* for pleasure and *purposive listening* for imitation when performing a piece of music (Green 2002). One problem with these divisions is that vocabulary such as soundscape and content suggests a ranking of what is the 'right' way to listen, which seems to be to focus solely on the music and do nothing else at the same time. Bergman (2009) instead uses the term *parallel listening*, in which it is not clear or static whether a person is listening to music while doing other things, or doing other things while listening to music. Lilliestam (2012) emphasises that listening is not only different between people, but also within each person, and that approaches that divide people into different listening types or listening strategies can therefore be normative and limiting. A dynamic interplay in people’s listening can affect music activities in the language classroom in several ways. If a teacher chooses to have pupils listen to music in the background while they are engaged in another activity such as reading or writing, listening to music can be a weaker, equal or stronger activity than reading and writing, both experientially and intellectually. The teacher’s instructions on how students are expected to listen – for example whether they should focus on the text, rhythm, free associations or other things – can be of great importance for the listening and learning taking place in the classroom.

2.4 Language Learning and Motivation

Motivation is of crucial importance for learning a foreign language and constitutes a major field of research in language education (Lamb et al. 2019). In Gardner & Lambert’s classic division into integrative and instrumental motivation, *integrative motivation* relates to the language learner’s genuine interest in the group of people who speak the target language and the culture they represent, and *instrumental motivation* relates to the practical value and benefits of learning the target language (Gardner & Lambert 1972). Gardner (1985) showed that a positive attitude towards the target language and target language speakers increases the motivation to learn the language. Mattsson (2017), however, argues that there is a difference between learning a second language and a foreign language. In the latter, which is the context for modern languages in Swedish schools, the ethnolinguistic group does not exist in the environment, and the instrumental motivation factor then becomes more significant.

Obviously, a common division of the concept of motivation is between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and their importance for learning (Bruner 1966, Deci & Ryan 1985, Gärdenfors 2010). *Intrinsic motivation* is largely based on informal learning and is driven by curiosity, interest and achieving goals together with others. *Extrinsic motivation* relates to formal learning and is associated with various forms of reward, such as the ability to forgo a small reward now for a larger reward later, which is important in school. According to Gärdenfors (2010), a central issue for schools is how to promote students’ inner motivation. This is of course not only interesting for language subjects, but as modern languages are elective rather than compulsory in

the Swedish school context, they are more dependent on students' motivation and active choice. Studies show that lack of motivation is a strong reason why modern language learners drop out of language teaching (Cardelús 2015, Francia & Riis 2013, Lärarnas Riksförbund 2013).

3 The Study

This study is based on teachers' own statements about their own teaching practice, and our interpretations of these. Perceptions and judgements about one's own teaching practice can, for personal and structural reasons, differ greatly between teachers. In Borg's description of language teachers' cognition (2003), three influencing factors are listed as crucial to how methodological choices and practices are determined and developed by teachers at an individual level: the teacher's experiences as a pupil in school, the teacher's experiences as a student at the teacher training college, and the teacher's experiences as a teacher in a school and classroom context. These influences are important to bear in mind when interpreting the responses in the study, but although general background questions were asked in our questionnaire, the aim was not to link each response to the teachers' underlying rationale for their teaching practice, but primarily to document their own description of it.

3.1 Method

3.1.1 Data Collection

The data was collected through a survey distributed to an open forum for Spanish teachers working in Swedish primary and secondary schools, and through follow-up interviews with five of the teachers who responded to the survey. The extended time frame since the beginning of the study in 2018 allowed us to conduct a thorough and in-depth investigation, ensuring that the data collected and analysed is comprehensive and includes recent developments.

The survey consisted of both background and thematic questions. It began with multiple-choice questions about the teachers' background, their relationship to the Spanish language, to music in general, and how often (if at all) the teacher used musical activities in the classroom. This was followed by open-ended questions about which activities were used, why teachers chose these activities and what outcomes they could see from the activities. Finally, open questions were asked about whether the teachers felt that they had opportunities to develop their work with music activities, and, if so, how they would like to do so. Quantitative responses were summarised in tables and diagrams, and qualitative responses were coded and sorted thematically.

After an initial analysis of the survey responses, follow-up interview themes were formulated, exploring the context and implementation of the music activities more in depth. The interviews were conducted through video calls. They were semi-structured in order to give space for spontaneous input and to create a conversational

atmosphere. The interviews were transcribed at word level, and qualitative content analysis was used to find meaning units, codes and categories in the material according to the model described by Graneheim & Lundman (2004).

3.1.2 Informants

The survey was completed on a voluntary and unpaid basis by 63 active teachers of Spanish in Swedish primary and secondary schools, years 6 to 12. A summary of their background data is presented in Table 1:

	Primary School (Years 6-9)	Secondary School (Years 10-12)	Primary and Secondary School	Total Numbers	Percentages
Number of informants	24	33	6	63	100%
Teacher qualification					
Teaching qualification from Sweden	20	31	3	54	85.7%
Teaching qualification from another country	2	2	2	6	9.5%
No teaching qualification	2	0	1	3	4.8%
Raised in a Spanish-speaking environment					
Yes	6	16	6	28	44.4%
No	18	17	0	35	55.5%
Teaching subjects other than Spanish					
Other languages	14	19	0	33	52.3%
Practical/aesthetic	2	4	1	7	11.1%
Other subjects	6	10	2	18	28.6%
No other subject	4	2	3	9	(4.3%)
Geographical context for teaching right now					
City or town in Uppland-Sörmland	13	26	4	43	68.3%
Other town or rural area	11	8	2	21	33.3%
How much I enjoy being a Spanish teacher					
Average rate on a scale from 0 to 100	86	83	84	—	—
How important music is to me as a person					
Average rate on a scale from 0 to 100	82	75	88	—	

Table 1. Teachers' Background Data in the Survey.

The majority of the teachers had a teaching degree (95,2%), also taught other subjects (85,7%), enjoyed being a Spanish teacher (average 84 on a scale of 0-100) and valued music as very important to them as individuals (average 82 on a scale of 0-100). Almost half of the teachers surveyed had grown up in a Spanish-speaking culture (44,4%), either in a Spanish-speaking country or not.

If the subset of teachers exceeds the total number of teachers in each category, it is because they fall into several categories, e.g. teaching both practical / aesthetic subjects and other languages.

As a final question in the survey, the teachers could indicate whether they would be willing to answer additional questions. 45 respondents (71,4%) answered this question in the affirmative, all of whom were invited for an interview. Out of these, five teachers agreed to take part in interviews lasting approximately one hour. The representation of teachers in the group was therefore not controlled for background or teaching characteristics, but based on self-selection. As a group, they turned out to represent quite different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, and had different purposes and frequencies of use for music in the language classroom. However, they were more similar in age, all over 50 and all currently teaching Years 6-9. Their features are described in Table 2. Their real names were encoded as Sara, Daniel, Maria, Carolina and Eva, and they were given profile icons throughout the analysis. They were compensated with a cinema ticket and informed that their personal data would be treated according to Swedish research ethics procedures (Hermerén et al. 2011).

Teacher	Background	Swedish Teacher Qualification	Currently in	Joy of Teaching	Importance of Music	Music in Teaching
 Sara 50-59	L1 Portuguese, L2 Spanish; Brazil	No	Year 6	98/100	98/100	Vocabulary, motivation; 1 / lesson
 **Daniel 60-69**	L1 Spanish; Spain	Yes	Year 6-9	80/100	94/100	Vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation; 1 / week

 **Maria 70-79**	L1 Swedish, L2 Spanish; Spain, Ecuador	Yes	Year 6-9	97/100	100/100	Vocabulary, text processing; > 1 / week
 **Carolina 50-59**	L1 Swedish, L2 Spanish	Yes	Year 6-9	100/100	51/100	Cultural understanding, motivation, immersion; 1 / week
 **Eva 60-69**	L1 Spanish; Chile	Yes	Year 6-9	95/100	80/100	Cultural understanding, pronunciation; 1 / term

Table 2: Interviewees

3.2 Survey Results

The data from the survey showed that 95.2% of the respondents (60 out of 63) had used music for language learning (henceforth MLL) in their Spanish classrooms. There was wide variation in how often they used MLL: 37% used it once a week or more, 38.1% once a month and 25.4% once a term or less. The three teachers in the survey who had never used MLL stated that they would like to do so, given the right conditions for it. In the survey, three respondents bypassed the questions related to active use of MLL. Therefore, the results described below are based on 60 teachers' responses.

No correlations or significant differences could be found between the teachers' use of MLL and their personal background data, or the age groups they taught. Therefore, the survey results in Table 3 are combined into one informant group.

3.2.1 Musical Dimensions

Listening and singing were the musical dimensions most frequently used by teachers, often in combination, while dancing and playing an instrument were used only sparingly. The free-text comments showed that many teachers included watching music videos when referring to *listening*, and that *singing* often meant singing along

	Responses	Percentages
Musical dimensions used in MLL		
Listening (with or without a music video)	58	92.1%
Singing (or singing along)	24	38.1%
Dancing	5	7.9%
Playing an instrument	4	6.3%
Learning goals when using MLL		
Goals relating to the object of learning, to develop:		
Pronunciation	18	28.5%
Vocabulary	23	36.5%
Grammar and syntax	6	9.5%
Language comprehension / listening comprehension	10	15.9%
Culture	27	42.8%
Immersion	3	4.7%
Confidence in the language / sense for the language	4	6.3%
Goals relating to favourable learning environment, to provide possibilities for:		
Finding joy for learning	11	17.4%
Stimulate motivation for learning and interest in the language	13	20.6%
Focus, good vibes and well-being in the classroom	8	12.7%
Variation in teaching, activating multiple senses for learning	11	17.5%
Consolidating knowledge, supporting memory	4	6.3%
Observed positive results for language learning connected to MLL		
Yes	47	74.6%
No	13	20.6%

Table 3: Selected Survey Results

to recorded music with vocals rather than singing to instrumental music. As the questionnaire was filled out anonymously, it was not possible to follow up whether a teacher included *watching* in *listening* or differentiated *singing* from *singing along*. The original dimensions were therefore extended to *listening with or without a music video* and *singing or singing along* in the results.

3.2.2 Learning Goals

The MLL activities were motivated through two main types of teacher-defined learning goals:

- focusing on the object of learning, and
- focusing on the classroom settings for learning.

When the object of learning determined the use of MLL, the activity was based on the textual or genre content of the music, in addition to its musical characteristics. Examples of this were practising grammatical tense in song lyrics, treating song lyrics as an authentic source of language use, or getting closer to a certain culture in the Spanish-speaking areas of the world.

When the classroom settings for learning determined the use of MLL, teacher beliefs about cognition and motivation emerged. Within cognition, teachers referred to how music positively affects the brain and body in learning, for example, by strengthening memory and building phonological awareness. Several teachers also described how music relaxed pupils and created a sense of belonging and inclusion, making it easier to participate in group activities. In this context, it was also pointed out that a 'mediocre' singing voice in a teacher was not an obstacle for successful MLL; on the contrary, this tended to have a motivating and prestige-reducing effect, making the students sing along with more ease.

3.2.3 Learning Outcomes

74.6% of the teachers stated that they had observed positive results in their students' language learning which they connected to the use of MLL activities. Their thoughts on why are summarised in the following four points, linked to music as a key to the learning object and to the classroom settings for learning:

- It provides access to the context/cultures of the language;
- It creates joy and / or motivation;
- It promotes concentration and / or captures interest;
- It provides variety, and reinforces and consolidates learning by engaging multiple senses.

80.1% of the teachers in the study stated that they could see potential for using MLL activities more in their classrooms, and 73.1% indicated that they would like to develop this work. The most important factors for MLL activities to work are summarised in the following four points, linked to structural and individual conditions:

- Available technical equipment (e.g. speakers, projector, computer);
- Time for planning and implementation;
- Access to good working materials, such as music lists and teacher's guides;
- Being open and interested as a teacher.

Tech and time depend mainly on structural framework factors, such as the school's financial priorities and pedagogical profile. Access to materials is also structural, but

also dependent on individual factors, as is taking an interest as a teacher. If ready-made materials are missing or inadequate, the teacher has to find and prepare music for use in the classroom. Hence, a teacher who does not have a cultural background or a personal interest in music from Spanish-speaking areas will have to put in more work to use MLL than would a teacher having these qualities. This would be especially true for teachers in the higher grades, where the support for MLL in the teaching materials is reduced.

3.2.4 Teachers' MLL Catalogue

Not all teachers specified their MLL activities in detail, but from the information available, four activity groups were identified:

- Skill-based activities focusing on language form;
- Discussion-based activities focusing on content and cultures;
- Experience-based activities focusing on the music *per se*;
- Setting-based activities focusing on a favourable learning environment.

The data in Table 4 show that the most frequently used MLL activities were focused on song lyrics. For example, 58% of the teachers used listening and singing or reading along to the lyrics with a focus on words, expressions, and grammar; and 32% of the teachers used listening for understanding or analysing content:

Teachers' MLL Catalogue	Responses	Percentages
Skill-based activities focusing on form:		
Listening and singing / listening and reading along with the text		
… and filling in gaps in the text with words / grammar	16	27%
…with a focus on words, expressions, grammar	35	58%
…with a focus on pronunciation and fluency	8	13%
Memorising text and rhythm	1	2%
Discussion-based activities focusing on content and cultures:		
Listening and translating	8	13%
Listening and understanding content / analysing texts	19	32%
Listening and reading about / discussing culture	11	18%
Offering music as a topic within project work	5	8%
Experience-based activities focusing on music per se:		
Listening / listening and watching the music video	14	23%
Singing / singing along	9	15%

Dancing	3	5%
Singing and playing an instrument	3	5%
Write songs together	1	2%
Setting-based activities focusing on favourable framing for learning:		
Playing music to start or end a lesson / session	7	12%
Playing music in the background of other activities	2	3%

Table 4: Overview of Teachers' Music Activities for Language Learning (MLL Activities)

3.3 Interview Results

The above interview themes were focused in the context and implementation of the MLL, addressing the choice of music, the efficiency of MLL for different language skills, and whether MLL activities were used in a similar way across language classrooms and teachers in their schools.

3.3.1 Music choice

The analysis of the interviews showed that teachers returned to their choice of music time and again when describing their practices and teacher beliefs. This trend was also evident in the free text comments from the survey, suggesting that teachers felt that the choice of music for MLL was a key factor in the design of the activity in order for it to be successful, both in terms of student learning and in terms of teachers' willingness and enjoyment of implementing MLL.

To reflect and respect the importance given to music choice, the songs mentioned in the interviews are given space in the following results section, and are listed and commented on in Appendix 1.

3.3.2 MLL for Focus on Form

In lower grades, teachers tended to use songs from Spanish textbooks created for pedagogical purposes. These songs are usually made up of simple melodies with vocabulary related to a specific topic, such as numbers, colours, and days of the week. The teachers felt that this type of pedagogical song was effective for language learning. As an example, Eva said she only had to start humming a song they had sung together in class to "trigger the students' vocabulary" (Swe: "trigga igång vokabulär hos eleverna") She had also experienced that her students started to sing during written tests, in order to remember what they had learnt through songs.

One particular song, "Eso es el amor" by José Angel Iglesias from the 1970s, was mentioned both by Daniel and Maria as a song 'having everything' for beginners' language practice: a simple melody with simple yet poetic lyrics that rhyme; clear gram-

mar content in the form of a list of personal pronouns; delimited vocabulary areas such as seasons, flowers and celestial bodies; and great potential for the students to create illustrations. A quote from the lyrics of this song illustrates this:

> Tu, yo, la luna, el sol
> Ella, el, la rosa, el clavel
> Primavera, la espera, verano, la mano
> Otoño, un retoño, invierno, un infierno
> Eso es el amor, sí señor

In higher grades, teachers felt that textbook songs were sparse and that they changed in character from highlighting linguistic to cultural features. This transition was not appreciated by the teachers, who expressed that there were too few songs in the textbooks for the higher grades and that the songs that were available did not work well in the classroom.

The teachers' music choices for higher grades were mainly motivated by how the lyrics could illustrate and consolidate grammatical structures, fixed expressions and whole phrases. In Maria's experience, famous hit songs were particularly suitable for students to learn words and chunks:

	**Daniel** ”In [the textbook for] year 6, music comes with every new content area, it is very easy, you get a flow (...). In year 8 and 9 the songs are sparse, and more connected to countries.” (Swe: ”i [läromedel] åk 6 kommer musik till varje område, väldigt lätt man flyter nästan (...) i åk 8 och 9 är det mera glest, mer kopplat till länder ”.)
	**Maria** ”You take a phrase from a viral hit … and use it as a template." (Swe: ”man tar en fras i en viral hit till exempel Copa de la vida och använder som MLL.”)
	**Carolina** “Good music stays in the back of their minds and they bring it along when they write.” (Swe: ”Bra musik sätter sig i bakhuvudet och de får med sig det sen när de ska skriva.”)

Table 5: Quotes Connected to Focus on Form

3.3.3 MLL for Content and Culture in Spanish-speaking Areas

The MLL activities used by the teachers for content and culture were connected to music representing cultural and dialectal diversity in the Latin American countries and Spanish regions, and to upcoming events and traditions. For example, songs related to football were used during times of different championships, such as national anthems and the Ricky Martin hit from the 1998 World Cup, “La Copa de la Vida”. In

Daniel's classes, Spanish-language Christmas songs worked so well that students wanted to sing them all year round.

Several teachers talked about how they felt music could convey non-verbal language linked to cultural identity, and how they believed music was an unusually distinctive cultural identity trait in Spanish-speaking areas. The belief that joy and music are culturally linked in Spanish-speaking areas was particularly salient. It was reported that students from other language classes had commented on how much more fun they found learning Spanish after listening to the music played in the Spanish classroom. This revealed that all teachers believed that MLL activities occurred more often in Spanish classrooms than other language classrooms. The teachers' reasoning for this, in addition to the importance of music as a marker of culture and identity, was that many Spanish teachers have Spanish as their first language, which can make it easier to find good and up-to-date music material. They also pointed out that due to the place of Spanish in popular music, it was easier to find up-to-date materials in Spanish than in other modern languages.

It was also highlighted that teachers whose first language was Spanish were able to convey cultural identity through music, and that an authentic identity could make students feel familiar with another cultural identity. However, it was also pointed out that heritage was not enough to make a particular learning activity work, although it could make a positive contribution.

Within the theme of teaching culture and content, the challenges mentioned were how to do this without reinforcing stereotypes and how to approach different aspects of authentic cultural content for young language learners. One such aspect was that teachers felt that many of the lyrics were too banal, with a lot of slang and English elements, and that the accompanying videos were inappropriate in the classroom as they alluded to sex in a macho way. Teachers addressed this either by using the lyrics as a basis for discussion of cultural and social differences, or by simply eliminating certain music that they felt was inappropriate, especially for younger learners. The Luis Fonsi hit "Despacito" was a recurring example in this context. Another aspect of using authentic cultural content was exemplified by Maria, who used the song "La Ojita Verde de la Coca" to initiate discussions on how coca leaves in different Spanish speaking areas are used to keep hunger at bay and to get more energy, while they are strongly associated with drug addiction among Swedes.

	**Sara** "In Sweden you eat and talk, in Spanish speaking countries you sing and dance." (Swe: "i Sverige ska man äta och prata, i spansktalande länder ska man sjunga och dansa.")
	**Daniel** "Despacito you know, was a plague, because everyone asked me what 'despacito' means." (Swe: "Despacito du vet, var en pest, för alla frågade mig vad despacito betyder.")

	**Sara** “In Sweden you eat and talk, in Spanish speaking countries you sing and dance." (Swe: ”i Sverige ska man äta och prata, i spansktalande länder ska man sjunga och dansa.”)
	**Carolina** ”Just listen to the radio, you rarely hear a German or French song, those teachers probably need to dig deeper" Swedish ”det är ju bara att lyssna på radion, man hör ju sällan en tysk eller fransk låt, de lärarna får nog gräva lite mer”
	**Eva** ”They say ‘oh, you’re having so much fun, I want to study Spanish too!’" (Swe: ”de säger ’ni har så roligt jag vill också läsa spanska!’”)

Table 6: Quotes Connected to Content and Culture

3.3.4 MLL Activities for the Creation of a Favourable Learning Environment

When the choice of MLL activities was based on motivational factors, teachers referred to genre-specific qualities in the music they chose. The genres that seemed to be particularly useful in increasing students' enjoyment of a given lesson were those from different parts of Latin America and the Caribbean, whose musical content consists of catchy rhythms and singable melodies, such as salsa, cumbia, merengue and reggaeton. These were found to produce emotional reactions of cheerfulness and excitement, along with physical reactions of a spontaneous desire to move. Teachers expressed that this music acted as a boost of joy and that it was difficult to sit still when hearing salsa, giving examples of how students wanted, and were allowed, to dance when working with this type of music. However, there were also examples of other types of songs, from other times and other musical styles, which worked very well as motivators. Here, the teacher’s own positive relationship with particular music was evident, which can spill over into the classroom.

When teachers wanted to increase student activity and participation, the choice of music was often left to the students themselves. In almost all cases, this music was popular music from Latin America that they listened to in their free time, which presented both opportunities and problems regarding linguistic content and levels. When students were motivated in terms of music selection, there were several examples where they learnt a text without understanding or caring what it meant. In addition to personal value, this had positive effects on pronunciation quality and automatisation:

	**Eva** ”For example, last year they could sing ‘El Perdón’ without understanding, if you were to ask what that meant? No idea, but they could sing the whole thing.” ”Most people choose songs radiating joy, happy rhythms, few ballads.” (Swe: ”till exempel El perdón förra året, de kunde sjunga utan att förstå, om man skulle fråga vad betyder det där? Ingen aning, men de kunde sjunga hela den där biten.” ”de flesta väljer glädjespridare, glada rytmer, få ballader”.)
	**Sara** ”The music has to be fun." (Swe: “det måste vara rolig musik.”)

Table 6: Quotes Connected to Learning Environments

3.4 Discussion

3.4.1 The Role of Music in the Spanish Classroom

Out of the 63 teachers who participated in the study, 95.2% responded that they used music in some way in their Spanish classrooms. The remaining 4.8% responded that they do not use music, but would like to, given the right conditions.

There are some methodological considerations to be made when reflecting on this data:

- The respondents were self-selected, i.e. they signed up voluntarily to an open call for participants. This method has a built-in risk that people who are interested in a particular area will be exposed to and actively choose to participate in studies of the area, creating a potential bias in the data.
- The study was based on teachers’ *descriptions* of their practice, not on *observations* of their practice. It is well known that as human beings we tend to describe what we think we are doing or would like to do, which does not always correspond to what we are actually doing, thus potentially introducing bias into the data.
- Only Spanish teachers were asked to participate in the study. This might have communicated an image of Spanish teachers being particularly interesting or resourceful with respect to using music in their classrooms, possibly making the respondents feel the need or wish to live up to that image, which would also create a bias in the data.

Nevertheless, the results have some descriptive value for the practices of interest to us.

We made four assumptions when selecting Spanish teachers for our study:

1. It would be easy to find participants;
2. There would be a high proportion of L1 speakers in the teacher group;
3. It would be easy for teachers to relate to Spanish language music in the classroom given its presence on the global music market, and
4. There would be use of music in the classroom to reflect its importance within Spanish speaking cultures. All these assumptions were confirmed to some extent.

As for finding participants, the fact that as many as 63 teachers, representing a professional group with a very heavy workload, chose to respond to the survey without compensation, can be considered an adequate response rate (1).

It makes the results interesting from a quantitative perspective, even if the sample is too small for sophisticated statistical analysis. The assumption of linguistic background in (2) also turned out to be true, as almost half of the participants had grown up in Spanish-speaking cultures and were therefore native speakers of the language they were teaching.

We did not find differences between the type of activities that teachers with and without a Spanish-speaking background chose to use in their classrooms, but several of the teachers interviewed considered their linguistic and cultural background to be an advantage in conveying cultural identity and belonging. Regarding the assumption of the availability and presence of Spanish-language music in streaming media (3), teachers confirmed this and were generally very positive about it, both in terms of selecting music for the classroom and motivating students to listen during and outside school hours. Music is a natural and important part of many (young) people's lives, and the teachers interviewed believed it would be harder for teachers of German or French to find and connect with music through the popular culture channels that reach Swedish school children. It also emerged that music often attracted students to study Spanish, and that students in other modern languages commented on how fun it seemed to study Spanish because of the music in the Spanish classrooms.

As for (4) and for the general comparison with other language classrooms, the fact that 95.2% of respondents used music when teaching Spanish might confirm that the Spanish language teaching tradition relies on and actively conveys the importance of music for guiding learners into Spanish-speaking cultures. Other self-selection studies have reported high levels of teacher interest in MLL activities without strong links to their own classroom practice, and our data do not suggest that teachers over-reported the frequency of MLL use. This means that the gap documented in other studies between teachers' beliefs about the positive impact of music on language learning and their own use of music in the classroom (Alisaari & Heikkola 2017, Engh 2013) was smaller in our study. In our results, it was in the end not a question of *if* music was used in the classroom, but rather a question of *how often*, for *what purpose* and *with what songs* it was used. It cannot be excluded that this result is language-specific to Spanish.

To continue on this point, the participant teachers gave a wide variety of examples of musical expression and how these contribute to illustrating and understanding the contemporary and historical diversity of Spanish-speaking areas. Kramsch (1995)

argues that cultural understanding includes a subjective activity in which language and culture merge, and that teachers therefore should teach language as culture, and not language and culture separately. Many of the teachers in our study seem to have this kind of cultural understanding as a criterion of choice for music, especially for conveying joy in and with music. This also highlights how such meaning-making activities can provide conditions for the identity-building aspect of learning a new language. From this point of view, it might be interesting to conduct a comparative study with other major modern languages in Swedish schools.

3.4.2 Listen, Sing, Dance and Play

By far the most common use of music in the Spanish classroom was listening, followed by singing. This is consistent with, for example, Bokiev & Ismail's study with English as the target language (2021). Listening was also most common in Alisaari & Heikkola's (2017) study with Finnish as the target language, but singing was not among the most common uses, despite the fact that teachers had very high confidence in the benefits of singing. This difference can perhaps be understood in terms of the cultural significance of singing and how comfortable the teachers themselves were with singing in the classroom. Teachers in Alisaari & Heikkola's study stated that they were reluctant to use their own voices, while several teachers in our study believed that their own self-perceived mediocre singing ability contributed to the students' lack of self-consciousness, and hence made them more relaxed in singing when the teachers sang. Our study also revealed that many teachers used *singing* to mean *singing along*. Singing along to music recordings can be a way for both teachers and students to avoid exposing their singing voices and still benefit from the positive effects of singing.

On this point, another interesting fact that emerged was that many teachers treated *listening* as synonymous with *listening to and watching* music videos on streaming media channels. The difference between *listening alone* and *listening with video* may be small from the perspective of contemporary music consumption, but it has implications for the type of language exercises that are possible and appropriate to include in the activity. Within the dimensions of aesthetics and identity development, there may be a loss of quality in the music experience when sound input is presented in combination with visual input. Sight has dominance over other senses, including hearing (Colavita 1974, Koppen & Spence 2007, Sinnett et al. 2007), which can enhance, diminish or distort aspects of the music content for the listener. The internal images that monomodal listening to music often gives rise to may be absent or strongly influenced by incoming external images. For example, an upbeat song mixed with macho video images could create conflict for the student.

A parallel can be drawn here to *reading* and *reading aloud*, where the ability to enter other people's thoughts and create inner images is considered to be of great importance for the development of language and identity (Stensson 2006), an ability that has long been speculated to be affected by increasingly intensive image consumption through the media (Calvino 1988). Reduced reading among children and young people, particularly in the Nordic countries, is the subject of political and scientific discussion (SOU 2018), but the very use of images in digital communication in the contemporary Swedish context brings other major benefits for identity de-

velopment, for example, through the visibility of previously marginalised groups (Ehlin 2015). The potential positive effects of using music videos are also strong. A short video can be the start of important classroom work, it can be an engaging listening exercise and / or a basis for practising grammatical patterns (Cenoz & Gorter 2006, Marone 2018). Students are also often enthusiastic about working with streaming media, searching for text, and creating and sharing their own activities around music videos (Trier 2006). As a cultural artefact, music videos are examples of so-called authentic materials for language learning, i.e. materials created for a purpose other than language learning, and thus have many benefits for language teaching (Benitez-Galbraith & Galbraith 2021).

However, authentic materials also present pedagogical challenges. As the teachers in this study confirmed, there may be moral concerns and conflicting opinions about what is appropriate to show in the classroom in terms of sexist, racist, violent or destructive content such as some music videos contain. Here it is up to the teacher to guide students to develop cultural sensitivity and critical thinking, and to counteract the reinforcement of stereotypes. One possibility is to show other short videos alongside the music video that relate to the environments, music and artists in the videos. We argue that the visual communication of music videos can contribute to both communicative and cultural language development, but also reinforce certain perspectives and stereotypes and create a constraining framework for identity formation. Awareness of the differences in listening with or without video or other images can create a balanced variation in use.

After listening and singing, there was some dancing and instrumental playing in the classroom. Here it has been difficult to find comparable results in other studies. The fact that there is still dancing and music-making here may also be a linguistic effect specific to Spain and Latin America, which have an unusually rich culture of dance and instrumental music, with different rhythms played on special (rhythm) instruments in close harmony with specific dances. Of the teachers who mentioned playing instruments in the classroom, this involved students playing rhythm instruments or the teacher playing an instrument and the students singing. When it came to dancing, the number of teachers mentioning this was small, but based on the above discussion on music videos, it is reasonable to assume that the presence of dancing in the classroom is greater than the few dance MLL activities shown, as many videos contain elements of dancing. The discussions on how students spontaneously wanted to move and dance when listening to certain types of music also increased the presence of dancing in the classroom. There is evidence that music played at a certain tempo makes it hard for people not to move to it, which has been linked to the human ability to empathise (Zelechowska et al. 2020). In the scientific field of dance and neurological processes and plasticity, positive links have been found with memory functions and a stronger sense of body sensations coming from within (*interoception*) (Christensen & Chang 2018), which is of great importance for the development of pronunciation in new languages (Catford 2001). From an evolutionary perspective, it has been found that humans have a unique connection between the ear and the leg (Grahn & Brett 2007), and are thus ‘hard-coded’ to move synchronously with sound (Christensen et al. 2017). This means that the urge to move observed by our teachers is likely to occur in many more classrooms, given the right music conditions. This could be an important finding to be promoted in view of its potential for language learning.

4 Conclusions

There were two main groups of MLL activities: those that focused on the learning outcome, i.e. communicative and cultural competence in Spanish, and those that focused on the settings and frameworks for learning, such as increasing motivation or strengthening memory.

The most frequently occurring MLL activities represented skill-based activities in linguistic competence areas, particularly combining music with written exercises in grammar, vocabulary and translation. This is not surprising data from language classrooms and these activities can be very useful for language learning. Current research with English as a target language shows that song lyrics represent a variety of grammatical constructions and genres that make learners aware of the complexity of language, contrary to previous perceptions that song lyrics are based on simple language and risk entrenching 'wrong' grammatical patterns (Werner 2019). However, it may be worth reflecting on the space of music in different exercises. If, in a 20-minute Spanish lesson, a teacher plays a song for three minutes and then has students translate or fill in a gap for 17 minutes, how much of the music's potential for learning has been used? When planning activities, it might be warranted to think separately about the musical part and the text-based part in order to create a good balance and variation between them. Otherwise, as Dahlbäck (2016) points out, there is a risk that the written language elements will dominate the aesthetic expressions and learning processes, even if the teacher's intention was a fruitful combination. Reducing music to written text can also give language learners an overconfidence in their written language skills. In a way, this would contradict the teacher's beliefs on how music in itself has a motivating, memory-strengthening and rewarding function for both students and teachers. Thus, in the school context, where external motivation and reward systems often drive instruction (Gärdenfors 2010), and given that many dropouts from Spanish classes in Swedish schools are due to lack of motivation (Cardelús 2015), it may be worth noting that music activities with more space for their actual sound component can be both rewarding and promote internal motivation among learners. In Cardelús' study, students clearly voiced that the most important factors for motivation are "having good teachers and a functional and communication-oriented teaching", and that, conversely, "an overly form-oriented and grammar-based teaching" inhibits motivation (Cardelús 2015: 156).

It should be emphasised that the survey results show how teachers used a particular activity, but not which activities they preferred. It is reasonable to assume that teachers listed the activities that they felt were best for learning, but it may also be the case that teachers used activities because they were feasible given time and resource constraints. Our results from both interviews and surveys show how teachers designed their MLL activities in a proficient and professional way, but also how they were limited by individual and structural conditions. Of the teachers who used music in their language teaching, 78.3% responded that they could link positive results in their students' language learning to the activities and 76.7% responded that they would like to develop the use of music further. This suggests that something is holding them back. Based on the teachers' responses about conditions for MLL activities, the lack of time for planning may be a major factor.

The purpose of this study was to catalogue which, how and why music for language learning (MLL) activities were used by Spanish teachers in a Swedish school context. We have compiled a teacher's MLL catalogue and analysed teacher beliefs about their practice. One of the most striking findings for us is how important the choice of music is for MLL activities to actually take place and have the intended language development effect. Not surprisingly, the music itself is important to the activity. Music is not a neutral pedagogical tool, but a form of communication with intrinsic characteristics. What is remarkable about this study, however, is the great practical knowledge and perspectives that teachers have when selecting music for different learning goals or learning frameworks, and by extension, how this knowledge might be transferred to teachers who would like to use MLL activities but lack experience. Having access to a catalogue of suggestions for relevant and effective songs can facilitate entry into the use of MLL activities and develop teachers' ability to make their own choices in dialogue with students in their own unique classrooms. Other studies express the need for greater knowledge of and access to appropriate songs, preferably with methodological guidance. (Bokiev & Ismail 2021, Tegge 2018). This justifies us in sharing the appendix of the music list.(Appendix) compiled from the survey and interviews with teachers of this study. It is not intended to be a comprehensive list of educational materials, and music is certainly trend and time sensitive, but we hope it could be useful as a resource for other teachers in the field, making the positive effects of MLL activities available to more language learners.

Appendix

Annotated List of Songs from the Teachers in the Study

Artist	Song	Teacher's Comment
Ricky Martin	*María*	”Then everybody goes un, dos, tres… they start learning how to count”, ”Everyone likes to sing the chorus to that one.”
Ricky Martin	*La Copa de la Vida*	”Football theme, good for a class with athlete boys.”
Enrique Iglesias	*Sube la Radio*	”I picked the words; subiendo, luna, sol, luna llena, silencio… those were the words they got to practice, and listen to, and recognize.”
Marc Anthony	*La Gozadera*	”It is very nice and they mention lots of Latin American countries.”
Luis Fonsi et al.	*Despacito*	”To light a spark it has to be music the students like”, ”Yes, and this song 'Despacito' was a plague I because everyone kept asking – what does 'despacito' mean?”
Nicky Jam and others	*El Perdón*	”Good for gerundio.”
E.g. Los Lobos	*La Bamba*	”Everybody knows it, I brought the guitar and they sang.”

Traditional	*La Cucaracha*	”They thought it was very funny, it’s on You Tube, disgusting pictures of cockroaches, and they say – no I don’t wanna see! But then they do.”
Sebastián de Iradier y Salaverri	*La Paloma*	”Music’s retroactive effect, some lines get stuck.”
Shakira	*La Tortura*	”Popular music e.g. Shakira, Enrique Iglesias, Ricky Martin, then it gets fun.”
Manu Chao	*Me Gustas tu*	”When we talk about the clock, and when we talk about *me gusta*, I usually use it, it also has a fun video.”
E.g. Buena Vista Social Club	*Quizás Quizás*	”An old song originally from Mexico I believe, and it fits perfectly when we talk about adverbs.”
Traditional	*La Pajara Pinta*	”Songs that my grandmother probably sang, and we remember them.”
Violeta Parra	*Grácias a la Vida*	”I don’t know all 28 verses, but anyway, at least I know some.”
Carlos Gardel	*Mi Buenos Aires Querido*	”Carlos Gardel, tango you know, they liked it, they’re old songs, the beginning of the 20th century, but they appreciate them.”
Los Brincos	*Tu me Dijiste Adiós*	”Good example of pretérito, they sound a bit like The Beatles, they were really popular internationally in Latin America.”
Traditional	*La Marimorena*	”Easy songs we sang for Christmas, and I noticed that some sang the chorus in the schoolyard, yes, and not just them, but their friends too, who don’t know Spanish.”
The Chackachas	*Eso es el Amor*	”The text is so good you may learn it by heart”, ”Very practical, those seasons, and you learn tú, yo, ella, él”
Las Ketchup	*Aserejé*	”Then they watch this on You Tube, and they also try to dance, they think it’s fun.”
Paradisio	*Bailando*	”Gerundio”
Juanes	*La Camisa Negra*	”It’s very sad, you know, the text itself, but they like it anyway, how the sad part is brought up despite the fact that the rhythm says something else.”
Sergio Ramos, Niña Pastori, Redone	*La Roja Baila*	”It’s so sweet because those guys are so happy and sing along.”
E.g. Compay Segundo	*Guantanamera*	”There is so much they get from these lyrics actually, unbeatable I think!”
Traditional	*Hoja Verde de la coca*	”I learned it when I lived in Ecuador, yes it’s cocaine sure, but it’s also a leaf that you use to keep hunger away.”

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