

*English Language and Applied Linguistics*  
Postgraduate Distance Learning programmes

**ESSAY COVER & DECLARATION SHEET**

**IMPORTANT: Please complete ALL sections of this template and PASTE it into the FIRST PAGE of your essay**

Student ID number	1306114
Module Number (1-6)	6
Title of Degree Programme:	M.A (Taught) Teaching English as a Foreign/Second Language
Title of Module:	Teaching Young Learners
Assessment Task No.	<b>YL/14/01</b>
First or second submission (second submission is used for resubmitted work only)	First
Date Submitted	March 31 <sup>st</sup> 2015
Name of tutor	Bradley Serl
Word Count	3239 <i>(word count excludes footnotes, references, figures, tables and appendices).</i>

***DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP***

I declare:

- a) that this submission is my own work;
- b) that this is written in my own words; and
- b) that all quotations from published or unpublished work are acknowledged with quotation marks and references to the work in question; and

Date: March 31<sup>st</sup>, 2015

Student ID #1306114

**Module 6 Teaching Languages to Young Learners**

**YL/14/01**

In your view, what are the most important ways in which young learners differ from adult learners in the context of EFL teaching? Outline three main ways in which EFL teaching needs to be adapted to the needs of young learners.

3,239 words

Submitted March 31<sup>st</sup>, 2015

## Contents

<b>1.0 Introduction</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>2.0 Literature Review</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>2.1 The Critical Period Hypothesis</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>2.2 The Zone of Proximal Development &amp; Scaffolding</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>3.0 Cognitive Abilities</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>3.1 Motivation</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>3.2 Other Differences</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>4.0 Adaptations</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>4.1 Teacher as Motivator</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>4.2 Games &amp; Activities</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>4.3 L1 Usage</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>4.4 Other Adaptations</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>5.0 Conclusion</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>6.0 References</b>	<b>15</b>

## **1.0 Introduction**

Learners of English as a second language come from all ages, backgrounds, and levels of education. Teachers of adults and young learners (YLs) deal with different issues depending on the average age and level of a classroom and should adjust their lessons accordingly. The following paper will examine how adults and YLs differ in an EFL context. Furthermore, it will provide adaptations for teachers of YLs because they have unique strengths and weaknesses that need to be addressed in order for second language acquisition to be as successful as possible.

## **2.0 Literature Review**

Before adaptations for the YL classroom can be explored, a review of the pertinent literature is necessary. The following section will explore the differences between adults and YLs with respect to second language acquisition.

### **2.1 The Critical Period Hypothesis**

Historically, young learners were thought to be at an advantage with regards to learning English as a foreign language. This idea began in 1959 with the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), which proposed that the brain acquires a second language similarly to how it recovers from trauma and disorders because full recovery is less likely as the brain matures (Hakuta, Bialystok, & Wiley, 2003: 31). The ideas presented by the CPH have influenced educators to encourage students to begin studying second languages as early as possible, and propagated the “myth” that young learners are better at learning languages than adults (Scovel, 2000: 114-136).

Recently, studies have suggested that while YLs have certain advantages over adults, there is no convincing support for a critical period (Bialystok, 1997:133). This is supported by Birdsong and Molis (2001), whose study found that while pronunciation was susceptible to age effects, performance in morphosyntax was not, and there was no evidence for a critical period as a factor in second language acquisition (235-249). Flege, Yeni-Komshian and Liu (1999) in Korea found that variations in education and language use effected morphosyntax rather than age of

acquisition (AOA) and a critical period (100-101). It must be noted that while a critical period may not exist, second language proficiency *does* decline with AOA (Hakuta, Bialystok, & Wiley, 2003:37). Additionally, studies by Weber-Fox and Neville (1996, 1999) and Kim et al. (1997) seem to show that there is in fact a neurological difference between younger and older learners (Pinter, 2011: 53). Consequently, an alternative to the CPH accepts that “second-language learning becomes compromised with age, potentially because of factors that are not specific to language but nevertheless interfere with the individual’s ability to learn a new language” (Hakuta, Bialystok, & Wiley, 2003: 31).

## **2.2 The Zone of Proximal Development and Scaffolding**

Another influential theory with regards to how YLs and adults differ is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). The ZPD is the difference between what an individual learning alone and one working with the help of an expert may accomplish (Lantolf, & Al Jaafreh, 1995: 619 citing Vygotsky, 1978: 86). A second language which falls in a YLs’ ZPD will make sense and they will begin to understand it (Cameron, 2001:6). Once achievements beyond what a child can do themselves is reached, *scaffolding* from an instructor may be required. Scaffolding is language which helps a child carry out activities (Cameron, 2001: 8 citing Bruner, 1983, 1990; Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976).

Scaffolding helps children to attend to what is relevant, adopt useful strategies, and remember the whole tasks and goals (Cameron, 2001: 9 citing Wood, 1998). Children progressing from picture books, to being read to by their parents, to reading books with greater difficulty on their own, is an example. Applebee and Langer (1986) present five criteria for effective scaffolding; student ownership of the learning event, appropriateness of the instructional task, a structured learning environment, shared responsibility, and a transfer of control, which provide new ways to think about familiar teaching without abandoning the past (in Foley, 1994: 101).

Although the existence of a critical period and a ZPD may be factors in second language acquisition, it is also important for teachers to focus on factors they can in some way influence. The following section will examine how teachers may encounter cognitive differences and learner motivation issues and the affect they have on the language classroom.

### 3.0 Cognitive abilities

While the previously discussed CPH may not be a relevant issue to most students, YLs and adults do have different cognitive abilities which can influence the way they learn a second language. Unlike adults, YLs are in the beginning stages of their cognitive development (Bourke, 2006: 80). Moon (2005) explains how children, specifically, use language as a way to understand what is happening, while adult learners are generally interested in the language itself because they have greater cognitive abilities and can be more analytical (31). Lightbown & Spada (2006) agree, claiming that YLs have much less “cognitive maturity or metalinguistic awareness” than their adult counterparts (30). Anthony’s (2014: 14) chart below is an example of this:

Table 3 : Comparison of YLs and ALs Definitions (adopted from Cameron, 1994 : 29)

YL Definition	AL Definition
<p style="text-align: center;">daddy ↓ a mommy who is a man</p> <p style="text-align: center;">gasoline ↓ milk for the car</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">parent ↙   ↘ mommy   daddy</p> <p style="text-align: center;">liquids that provide energy ↙   ↘ milk   gasoline</p> <p style="text-align: center;">↙   ↘   ↙   ↘ skim   cream   diesel   unleaded</p> <p style="text-align: center;">↙   ↘ regular   premium</p>

Research on the subject has made some interesting findings. Smith & Strong (2009) reference Robinson (2005) who claims that adults have greater cognitive abilities than children because they are able to discuss their learning styles and strategies and adapt accordingly (2). In concurrence, Gürsoy (2010) found that adults and YLs used different learning strategies due in part to their differences in cognitive abilities (172). While Hakuta, Bialystok, & Wiley (2003) have shown that there is an age-related decline in cognitive abilities which must certainly affect the ability to learn a new language (32), greater cognitive development may also be why mature

learners are capable of making quicker grammatical and lexical improvements than YLs (Harley & Wang, 1997).

### 3.1 Motivation

With regards to ELT, a student's motivation is often an indicator for success when learning a second language (Dörnyei, 1994: 273). Students of all ages derive their motivations from both *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* sources. Intrinsic motivations come from curiosity and desire for a challenge, relative value of the activity, a sense of agency, desire for mastery, ideas of self-worth, various attitudes towards the target language, confidence, age, anxiety and gender. Extrinsic forces are more concrete such as the influence of family, peers, school, societal expectations, the learning environment and future implications. The following table expands on the various intrinsic and extrinsic factors:

#### Motivation in second and foreign language learning

**Table 2. Williams and Burden's (1997) framework of motivation in language learning**

Internal factors	External factors
Intrinsic interest of activity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• arousal of curiosity</li> <li>• optimal degree of challenge</li> </ul>	Significant others <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• parents</li> <li>• teachers</li> <li>• peers</li> </ul>
Perceived value of activity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• personal relevance</li> <li>• anticipated value of outcomes</li> <li>• intrinsic value attributed to the activity</li> </ul>	The nature of interaction with significant others <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• mediated learning experiences</li> <li>• the nature and amount of feedback</li> <li>• rewards</li> <li>• the nature and amount of appropriate praise</li> <li>• punishments, sanctions</li> </ul>
Sense of agency <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• locus of causality</li> <li>• locus of control RE process and outcomes</li> <li>• ability to set appropriate goals</li> </ul>	The learning environment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• comfort</li> <li>• resources</li> <li>• time of day, week, year</li> <li>• size of class and school</li> <li>• class and school ethos</li> </ul>
Mastery <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• feelings of competence</li> <li>• awareness of developing skills and mastery in a chosen area</li> <li>• self-efficacy</li> </ul>	The broader context <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• wider family networks</li> <li>• the local education system</li> <li>• conflicting interests</li> <li>• cultural norms</li> <li>• societal expectations and attitudes</li> </ul>
Self-concept <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required</li> <li>• personal definitions and judgements of success and failure</li> <li>• self-worth concern learned helplessness</li> </ul>	
Attitudes language learning in general <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• to the target language</li> <li>• to the target language community and culture</li> </ul>	
Other affective states <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• confidence</li> <li>• anxiety, fear</li> </ul>	
Developmental age and stage Gender	

(Williams & Burden, 1997 in Dörnyei, 1998: 126).

Adults and YLs exhibit different motivations in the EFL classroom. Adults are likely to come into classrooms with several different types of pre-existing sets of motivations such as extrinsic, intrinsic, integrative and/or instrumental (Anthony, 2014: 15). Unlike YLs, adult learners are focused on goals and learn for specific purposes with a desire for immediate value and relevance for their work (Smith & Strong, 2009: 1). Consequently, motivation in adult learners is less of an obstacle than it is for teachers of YLs.

The strongest source of YL motivation is extrinsic because they often have little to no pragmatic need of a L2, have less pressure with regards to tests and have limited exposure outside of the classroom (Anthony, 2014: 16). Therefore, parents and schools are the initial motivating factor for YLs to learn a second language. However, because YLs tend to learn implicitly (Arikan & Ulaş-Tarah, 2010: 5212 citing Cameron, 2001; Halliwell, 1992; Kedde, 1997; Pinter, 2006; Slatterly & Willis, 2001) they can be motivated intrinsically as well.

Although YLs are often “conscripts” in language classes, they are naturally curious, energetic and good-natured, and an early start can foster self-esteem and positive views of language learning (The University of Cambridge, 2010: 2-3). Finally, YLs tend to be intrinsically motivated by games and activities (Thornton, 2001: 12) rather than learning the language itself (Argondizzo, 1992:6).

### **3.2 Other differences**

Aside from cognitive and motivational differences, adults and YLs have more tangible differences that manifest in the classroom. Unlike adults, YLs are still developing and may have difficulties in controlling their behavior (Moon, 2005: 31 citing Clark, 1990). Furthermore, when children are stressed or bored they may express it through restless behavior while adults are able to control themselves. Consequently, supervision may be necessary for group activities because they may not understand that co-operation is beneficial for language learning and encourages negotiation of meaning (Moon, 2005:31).

The self-awareness of adults can be particularly helpful because they are able to use strategies to monitor their own learning (Smith & Strong, 2009: 3). Since YLs are in the early stages of their development, language strategy use will be different than adults (Gürsoy, 2010: 165). Studies



have found in a bilingual classroom that children with greater English proficiency used a wider range of learning strategies (e.g. code switching, formulaic expressions) than those of their less proficient peers (Chesterfield & Chesterfield, 1985: 56). Examples of how YLs develop as they age can be seen below:

Table 1 : Characteristics of Younger and Older Child Learners (adopted from Pinter, 2006 : 2)

Younger Learners	Older Learners
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· In pre-school or first years of schooling</li> <li>· They understand meaningful messages, but cannot yet analyze language</li> <li>· Lower levels of awareness about themselves as language learners and about the process of learning</li> <li>· Limited L1 reading and writing skills</li> <li>· Generally concerned about themselves more than others</li> <li>· Limited knowledge of the world</li> <li>· Enjoy fantasy, imagination, and movement</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Well established at school and comfortable with school routines</li> <li>· Show a growing interest in analytical approaches, growing interest in language as an abstract system</li> <li>· Growing level of awareness about themselves as language learners</li> <li>· Have developed reading and writing skills</li> <li>· Growing awareness of others and their viewpoints</li> <li>· Begin to show interest in real life issues</li> </ul>

(Anthony, 2014: 11).

YLs also often have significant anxiety with regards to speaking a L2 in front of their peers and teachers. This anxiety is due to students' inability to express themselves, fear of a negative social impression, and being evaluated (Meyer, 2008: 151). While alleviating learner anxiety may be difficult, it is not insurmountable. Use of the L1 in the L2 classroom is one strategy that can help ease learner anxiety, and will be explored in section 4.3.

#### **4.0 Adaptations**

As shown, numerous issues with regards to differences between adults and YLs exist for EFL teachers. Subsequently, EFL classrooms need to be adapted to fit the needs of the students in them. The next section will examine three ways in which adaptations may be necessary. Furthermore, how those adaptations can be applied to the classroom will be presented.

#### 4.1 Teacher as Motivator

As discussed in section 3.1, motivation is a very important factor in ELT, especially with YLs. It is so important, a students' motivation may in fact make up for "considerable deficiencies both in one's language aptitude and learning conditions" (Dörnyei, 1998: 117). In many instances, it is up to the teacher to motivate YLs and instructors must adapt their classrooms accordingly.

Research has shown that the teacher as a motivator in the EFL classroom works well (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007: 171). As an example, Garcia (2007) in Spain found that low immersion YLs who were motivated by their teacher could communicate in the L2, if given a purpose (44).

Culture may play a role in a teacher's ability to motivate students. A study in South Korea found that strategies used to motivate Korean students are hardly ever used because teachers attach very little importance in doing so (Guilloteaux, 2013: 3). Korean teachers instead believe they can help students by analyzing their past performances, and how students process those actions will motivate them in the future because some of their most powerful motivation tools consist of committing to students' progress, projecting enthusiasm, and developing positive relationships (2013: 10).

On the other hand, micro strategies which have shown to be effective in the west, such as helping students create individual study plans, creating an accepting and friendly classroom climate with positive group dynamics, teaching cultural values associated with the L2, making learning stimulating and enjoyable and promoting learning autonomy (2013: 11) all ranked at the bottom of teachers' perceived importance. Similarly, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) found motivating strategies which were effective in Hungary were seen as unimportant in Taiwan (171). These examples make it clear that instructors must be sensitive to any cultural issues when trying to motivate YLs.

Blending strategies of perceived importance may be an effective way for teachers to extrinsically motivate their students while fostering intrinsic motivation which can lead to continued harmony and success. When planning strategies for YLs, teachers may be most effective when taking a traditional approach. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) show that universal strategies such as 'displaying motivating teacher behavior', 'promoting learners' self-confidence', 'creating a pleasant classroom environment' and 'presenting tasks properly' (171) are all useful tools that

can motivate YLs in any context. The following table provides some more useful tips teacher can use to motivate their students:

**Table 4. Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners (Dörnyei & Csizér, in press)**

- 
1. Set a personal example with your own behaviour.
  2. Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.
  3. Present the tasks properly.
  4. Develop a good relationship with the learners.
  5. Increase the learner's linguistic self-confidence.
  6. Make the language classes interesting.
  7. Promote learner autonomy.
  8. Personalise the learning process.
  9. Increase the learners' goal-orientedness.
  10. Familiarise learners with the target language culture.
- 

(Dörnyei, 1998: 131).

While any motivational strategy may be worthwhile, it must also be seen as such by students, and teachers should assess their perceptions before moving forward (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008: 399). Seo (2012) suggests teachers should also create different lesson plans based on appropriate levels and strive to learn students' names and interests while fostering a need for self-motivation because interest in learning a FL decreases with grade level (168). Unlike adults, YLs often need outside encouragement to continue their studies effectively. A positive-minded teacher using motivational strategies would make a useful addition to any YL classroom.

#### **4.2 Games & Activities**

The use of games and activities in the EFL classroom are both adaptations which are crucial for success when teaching YLs. Research has shown that YLs learn better through games than with traditional classroom practices (Rixon, 1991). This is because games in the EFL classroom allow YLs to see that learning English is enjoyable and rewarding in a co-operative way (Phillips, 2001: 79). Games are a "must" for YLs because they are intrinsically motivating and part of students' here-and-now (Thornton, 2012: 12).

Since the language used in games is an example of *sequential scaffolding* (Foley, 1994: 101), instructors should focus on using methods which promote the aforementioned effective scaffolding techniques. With regards to the ZPD, activities should be geared to enhance YLs' current level of development (Rogoff & Wertsh, 1984: 5) and be appropriate for their age. Games and activities allow YLs to feel at ease in the language classroom, and create opportunities for them to learn without explicitly studying.

When attempting to implement games in the YL classroom, careful attention should be paid to how pedagogically relevant they may seem to the local culture and the participants in the classroom. In Australia, adult migrant students ranked playing games as the least useful way for them to learn in the classroom (Littlewood, 2010: 47-48). Students at the tertiary level in Hong Kong felt a similar way (ibid).

While this section is focused on adaptations for YLs, it is not unreasonable to assume that the sentiment that games have no part in the English classroom for adults would extend to children as well. Many students in East Asia are taught English to pass a test which focuses on grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension (Littlewood, 2007: 245). Classrooms that incorporate western ideas such as games, activities and communicative language teaching (CLT) may not be appropriate when parents want a more exam oriented instruction (Shim & Baik, 2004: 246). Although this scenario may force teachers into teaching YLs through seemingly outdated methods, cultural and parental influence when teaching YLs should not be dismissed.

One way of implementing games and activities for YLs is to make them seem relevant to student coursework. Games and activities should use the vocabulary and subject matter from student workbooks. Their usage should also be indicated on the schedule or syllabus. In doing so, parents can see that teachers are not playing games simply to waste time at the end of a lesson. Full disclosure of their use and why they are being implemented will allow parents to address any concerns with games or activities before the start of a course.

Another way to utilize games would be to embrace the technology and computer games children play on their own. Over the course of three days, Miller and Hegelheimer (2006) played a popular interactive simulation computer game in class with students. They found that the game was appealing, promoted communicative language, and almost all of the students enjoyed it while learning something (323). While more research is necessary, online games that students

play outside of the classroom may function as learning tools as well. Online multiplayer games encourage communication and cooperation (Jones, 2005: 20) and instructors of YLs may be able to use them to foster language learning. Games and activities are important parts of the YL classroom, and neglecting their usage would be detrimental to developing learners. They provide a positive and encouraging way for YLs to interact using English in the L2 classroom.

### **4.3 L1 usage**

YLs in the EFL classroom often deal with anxiety with regards to using the L2. They are concerned with being judged by friends, peers, instructors and family. Finding ways to lower YL is especially important because it “may facilitate language learning and success may improve self-confidence” (Saville-Troike, 2006: 90). To alleviate learner anxiety, teachers can adjust their classroom to allow for the sanctioned use of the L1. Atkinson (1987) explains that using the L1 is a learner-preferred, humanistic strategy that is more efficient when explaining and allowing it in the classroom helps YLs and teachers with eliciting language, checking comprehension, complex instructions at basic levels, co-operating in groups, explaining classroom methodology, using translation to highlight a recently taught language item, checking for sense, testing, and developing circumlocution strategies (242-246). However, use of the L1 should be kept to a minimum, and in context, because overuse can lead to over dependence, crude translation, lazy interactions and unfocused rhetoric (ibid).

Using the L1 in the L2 classroom can make YLs feel comfortable and at ease with their learning environment. Students can use the L1 to communicate meaning to one another which may take a language teacher significantly more time to express. Not only does using the L1 save time, it also allows students to interact genuinely with each other, creating a sense of camaraderie while helping them work through problems together. Supervising YL usage of their L1 is important for teachers to maintain control and keep it on task. It may also be useful for teachers when there is a breakdown in YL behavior or classroom discipline. While it is not necessary for English teachers to be fluent in their students’ native tongues, understanding the basic things they say often can help teachers interact naturally. YLs seeing a teacher experiencing some of the same difficulties with language they may be experiencing as well can break down formal barriers which cause

anxiety. As shown, the L1 is an adaptation that any EFL teacher can adapt to their situation in a meaningful and positive way to help YLs improve.

#### **4.4 Other adaptations**

ELT instructors have many other strategies at their disposal. These include supplementing materials with visuals, realia, and movement; involving students in making visuals and realia; moving quickly between activities; teaching in themes; using stories and contexts familiar to students; establishing classroom routines in English; using helpers from the community; collaborating with other teachers and coworkers; and communicating with other YL professionals (Shin, 2007). Using these ideas in conjunction with the main ideas this paper has presented can benefit teachers by providing more ways to facilitate language learning in the YL classroom.

#### **5.0 Conclusion**

This paper has attempted to show the differences between adults and YLs in an EFL context and how those differences affect how they learn. It explored the possibility of a critical period for YLs to acquire a second language, how YLs work in the ZPD, and how scaffolding can be an effective tool. Differences in motivation and cognition were also examined. Finally, this paper provided three adaptations including helping to motivate students, using games and activities, and using the L1 as a resource when appropriate, which are all necessary adaptations for success when teaching YLs. In summary, adults and YLs are quite different with regards to motivation and learning strategies. YLs require different methods than adults and teachers should adjust their lessons appropriately.

## 6.0 References

- Anthony, G. (2014). Adapting to the Young Learner Context. *Hachinohe University Bulletin*, No. 48. Pg. 9-19. [https://hachinohe-hachitan.repo.nii.ac.jp/index.php?action=pages\\_view\\_main&active\\_action=repository\\_action\\_common\\_download&item\\_id=189&item\\_no=1&attribute\\_id=22&file\\_no=1&page\\_id=45&block\\_id=102](https://hachinohe-hachitan.repo.nii.ac.jp/index.php?action=pages_view_main&active_action=repository_action_common_download&item_id=189&item_no=1&attribute_id=22&file_no=1&page_id=45&block_id=102)
- Argondizzo, C. (1992). *Children in action: a resource book for language teachers of young learners*. Prentice hall.
- Atkinson, D. (1987). The mother tongue in the classroom: a neglected resource? *ELT journal*, 41(4), 241-247.
- Applebee, A. N. and J. A. Langer. (1983) Instructional scaffolding: Reading and writing as natural language activities. *Language Arts*, 60/2
- Arıkan, A., & Ulaş-Tarah, H. (2010). Contextualizing young learners' English lessons with cartoons: Focus on grammar and vocabulary. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(2), 5212-5215, World Conference on Educational Sciences, Istanbul, Turkey.
- Bernaus, M., & Gardner, R. C. (2008). Teacher motivation strategies, student perceptions, student motivation, and English achievement. *The Modern Language Journal*, 92(3), 387-401.
- Bialystok, E. (1997). The structure of age: In search of barriers to second language acquisition. *Second language research*, 13(2), 116-137.
- Birdsong, D., & Molis, M. (2001). On the evidence for maturational constraints in second-language acquisition. *Journal of memory and language*, 44(2), 235-249.
- Bourke, J. M. (2006). Designing a topic-based syllabus for young learners. *ELT Journal*, 60(3), 279-286.
- Bruner, J. S. (1990). *Acts of meaning*. Harvard University Press.
- Bruner, J. S., & Watson, R. (1983). *Child's talk: Learning to use language* (pp. 89-110). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching languages to young learners*. Ernst Klett Sprachen.
- Cheng, H. F., & Dörnyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *International Journal of Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 153-174.
- Chesterfield, R., & Chesterfield, K. B. (1985). Natural Order in Children's Use of Second Language Learning Strategies1. *Applied Linguistics*, 6(1), 45-59.
- Clark, J. (1990) Teaching children is it different? *JET* 1/1: 6-7

- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The modern language journal*, 78(3), 273-284.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language teaching*, 31(03), 117-135.
- Flege, J. E., Yeni-Komshian, G. H., & Liu, S. (1999). Age constraints on second-language acquisition. *Journal of memory and language*, 41(1), 78-104.
- Foley, J. (1994). Key concepts in ELT Scaffolding. *ELT journal*, 48(1), 101-102.
- Garcia, A. L. (2007). Young learners' functional use of the L2 in a low-immersion EFL context. *ELT Journal*, 39-45.
- Guilloteaux, M. J. (2013). Motivational strategies for the language classroom: Perceptions of Korean secondary school English teachers. *System*, 41(1), 3-14.
- Gürsoy, E. (2010). Investigating language learning strategies of EFL children for the development of a taxonomy. *English Language Teaching*, 3(3), p164.
- Halliwell, S. (1992). *Teaching English in the primary classroom*. New York: Longman.
- Hakuta, K., Bialystok, E., & Wiley, E. (2003). Critical evidence a test of the critical-period hypothesis for second-language acquisition. *Psychological Science*, 14(1), 31-38.
- Harley, B. and W. Wang. (1997). 'The critical period hypothesis: where are we now?' in A. M. B. de Groot and J. F. Kroll (eds.). *Tutorials in Bilingualism. Psycholinguistic Perspectives*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Godwin-Jones, R. (2005). Emerging technologies: Messaging, gaming, peer-to-peer sharing: Language learning strategies & tools for the millennial generation. *Language Learning & Technology*, 9(1), 17-22.
- Kedde, J. (1997). The Inbetweens. *Teaching English Spring*, (5), 15-19.
- Kim, K. H. S., Relkin, N. R., Lee, K.-L. and Hirsch, J. (1997) Distinct cortical areas associated with native and second language. *Nature*, 388: 171-4.
- Lantolf, J. P., & Aljaafreh, A. (1995). Second language learning in the zone of proximal development: A revolutionary experience. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 23(7), 619-632.
- Lightbown, P.M. & Spada, N. (2006) *How Languages are Learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Littlewood, W. (2007). Communicative and task-based language teaching in East Asian classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 40(03), 243-249.
- Littlewood, W. (2010). Chinese and Japanese students' conceptions of the 'ideal English lesson'. *RELC journal*, 41(1), 46-58.



- Meyer, H. (2008). The pedagogical implications of L1 use in the L2 classroom. *Maebashi Kyoai Gakuen College Ronsyu*, 8, 147-159.
- Miller, M., & Hegelheimer, V. (2006). The SIMs meet ESL Incorporating authentic computer simulation games into the language classroom. *Interactive Technology and Smart Education*, 3(4), 311-328.
- Moon, J. (2005). Teaching English to young learners: the challenges and the benefits. *British Council Worldwide Survey of Primary ELT*.
- Phillips, S. (2001) *Young Learners*. Hong Kong. Oxford University Press
- Pinter, A. (2006). *Teaching young language learners*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Pinter, A. (2011). *Children learning second languages*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Rixon, S. (1991), "The Role of Fun and Games Activities in Teaching Young Learners." In Brumfit, C., Moon J., and Tongue R., (eds.) *Teaching English to Children*. London: Collins. pp. 33-48.
- Robinson, P. (2005). Aptitude and second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 25, 46-73.
- Rogoff, B. & Wertsch, J.V. (1984) *Children's learning in the zone of proximal development*. Jossey-Bass: San Francisco.
- Saville-Troike, M. (2012). *Introducing second language acquisition*. Cambridge University Press.
- Seo, H. S. (2012). Elementary school students' foreign language learning demotivation: A mixed methods study of Korean EFL context. *The Asia Pacific Education Researcher*, 21(1), 160-171.
- Scovel, T. (2000). The younger, the better" myth and bilingual education. *Language ideologies: Critical perspectives on the official English movement*, 1, 114-136.
- Shim, R. & Baik, M. (2004). English Language Teaching in East Asia Today: Changing Policies and Practices. In H. Kam & Wong R. (Ed.), *English Education in South Korea* (pp. 241- 261). Singapore: Eastern Universities Press.
- Shin, J. K. (2007). Ten helpful ideas for teaching English to young learners. In *English Teaching Forum* (Vol. 44, No. 2, pp. 2-13).
- Slatterly, M., & Willis, J. (2001). *English for primary teachers*. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.
- Smith, A. F., & Strong, G. (2009). *Adult Language Learners: Context and Innovation*. Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. 1925 Ballenger Avenue Suite 550, Alexandria, VA 22314.
- Thornton, M. (2001). *Young Learner's Tool Kit*. Turkey, British Council.

The University of Cambridge (2010). Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) Young Learners (YL) Handbook for Teachers. University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations. 1 Hills Road. Cambridge CB1 2EU United Kingdom. <http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/images/tkt-young-learners-handbook.pdf>

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Weber-Fox, C. M. and Neville, H. J. (1996) Maturational constraints on functional specializations for language processing: ERP and behavioural evidence in bilingual speakers. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 8 (3): 231–56.

Weber-Fox, C. and Neville, H. (1999) Functional neural subsystems are differentially affected by delays in second language immersion: ERP and behavioural evidence in bilinguals. In D. Birdsong (ed.), *Second Language Acquisition and the Critical Period Hypothesis*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, pp. 23–38.

Williams, M. & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wood, D. (1998). *How children think and learn: The social contexts of cognitive development*. Blackwell Publishing.

Wood, D., Bruner, J. S., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of child psychology and psychiatry*, 17(2), 89-100.