高等院校英语专业教材

English Teaching Methodology

英语教学法

主　编：张庆宗
副主编：王志茹　徐秋梅　李气纠

湖南人民出版社

English Teaching Methodology

ISBN 7-5438-3757-9

ISBN 7-5438-3757-9

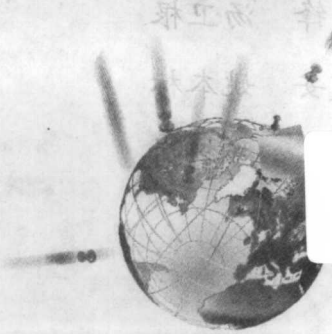
H • 139 定价:18.80元

高等院校英语专业教材

英语教学法

English Teaching Methodology

■ 主　编：张庆宗
■ 副主编：王志茹 徐秋梅 李气纠



湖南人民出版社

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

英语教学法/张庆宗主编.—长沙:湖南人民出版社,2004.9

ISBN 7-5438-3757-9

Ⅰ.英… Ⅱ.张… Ⅲ.英语-教学法-高等学校 Ⅳ.H319.3

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字(2004)第 090720 号

丛书策划:熊治祁
责任编辑:伊文思
装帧设计:卜艳冰

英语教学法

主　编:张庆宗
副主编:王志茹 徐秋梅 李气纠

*

湖南人民出版社出版、发行
(长沙市营盘东路 3 号　邮编:410005)
湖南省新华书店经销　长沙市富洲印刷厂印刷
2004 年 9 月第 1 版第 1 次印刷
开本:850×1168　1/32　印张:10
字数:223,000　印数:1-5,000
ISBN7-5438-3757-9
H·139　定价:18.80元

高等院校英语专业教材编委会名单

（按姓氏拼音顺序排名）

Contents

Chapter *One*

Learning

1. Learning

1. Definition of learning

What is learning? Different researchers define it in different ways. A typical definition (Mayer, 1982a) is: learning is a relatively permanent change in a person's knowledge or behavior due to experience. This definition has three parts: (a) The duration of the change is long-term rather than short-term; (b) The locus of the change is the content and structure of knowledge in memory or the behavior of the learner; (c) The cause of the change is the learner's experience in the environment rather than motivation, fatigue, drugs, physical condition, or physiological intervention.

As you can see from this definition, there is a lack of agreement concerning "what is learned". Behaviorist theories of learning focus on changes in behavior whereas cognitive theories focus on changes in knowledge. Thus, in cognitive theories, the effects of learning

can be determined only indirectly by making inferences based on the learner's behavior.

2. Kinds of learning

(1) Associative learning

One form of learning is associative learning, in which the learner is exposed to pairs of events or stimuli and has the opportunity to learn these pairings—which event or stimulus goes with. The study of associative learning has led to the discovery of numerous learning principles applicable to species as diverse as insects and humans.

(2) Spatial learning

Another form of learning is spatial learning. Spatial learning involves the acquisition of knowledge about the spatial layout of the organism's surrounding—these cognitive maps can include the locations of food sources or of dangers, the boundaries of one's territory, and so on. The acquisition of this spatial knowledge often involves latent learning: The organism derives some knowledge from its experiences, but with no immediate visible change in the organism's behavior.

Spatial learning may be considered as a special case within a broader category of learning, in which an organism gains information about its environment. In humans, this information may be derived directly from firsthand experience, or indirectly, from what one reads or hears from others. This information may then be used later on for some memory-based report, or as a basis for modifying future action. In any of these cases, one encodes the information into memory during the initial exposure, and then retrieves this stored

information later on.

(3) Skill learning

Still another form of learning is skill learning, in which one learns how to perform some action or procedure, often without any ability to describe the acquired skill. In this case, one is said to have acquired "procedural knowledge", as opposed to "declarative knowledge". It should be emphasized, however, that skill learning is not limited to the acquisition of motor skills, such as serving a tennis ball or riding a bicycle. In addition, much of our mental activity can be understood in terms of skill acquisition—we acquire skills for reading, solving problems within a particular domain, recognizing particular patterns, and so on. Thus, for example, chess masters have acquired the skill of recognizing specific configurations of chess pieces, a skill that helps them both in remembering the arrangement of the game pieces and allows them to think about the game in terms of strategy-defined, goal-oriented patterns of pieces, rather than needing to focus on individual pieces.

Skill learning can also lead to automaticity for the particular skill or procedure. Once automatized, a skill can be run off as a single, integrated action, even though the skill was initially composed of numerous, constituent actions. The skilled tennis player, for example, need not focus on wrist position, the arch of the back, and the position of the shoulders, but instead launches the single (complex) behavior, "backhand swing". This automatization promotes fluency among the constituents of a complex behavior, dramatically decreases the extent to which one must attend to the various elements of the behavior, and thus frees attention for other tasks. On

the other hand, automatic behaviors are often inflexible and difficult to control, leading some to speak of them as "mental reflexes".

(4) Induction

A further form of learning is induction, in which the learner is exposed to a series of stimuli or events and has the opportunity to discover a general rule or pattern that summarizes these experiences. In some cases, induction is produced by the simple forgetting of an episode's details and the consequent blurring together in memory of that episode with other similar episodes. This blurring together is, for example, the source of our knowledge of what a kitchen is likely to contain. Investigators refer to knowledge acquired in this fashion as "genetic" or "schematic knowledge". In other case, induction results from a more deliberate judgment process in which one actively seeks to generalize from one's previous experiences.

Some aspects of induction seem to be governed by highly specialized domain-specific skills. One clear example is provided by language acquisition in the small child. The human infant appears to be well prepared to induce the regularities of language, so that language acquisition is relatively swift and successfully achieved by virtually all children, independent of the child's individual abilities or circumstances.

II. Learning theories

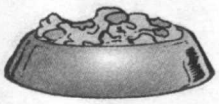
1. Behavioral theories of learning

The systematic study of learning is relatively new, not until the late nineteenth century was learning studied in a scientific manner. Using techniques borrowed from the physical sciences, researchers began conducting experiments to understand how people and animals learn. Two of the most important early researchers were Ivan Pavlov and Edward Thorndike. Among later researchers, Skinner was important for his studies of the relationship between behavior and consequences.

(1) Pavlov: Classical conditioning

In the late 1800s and early 1900s, Pavlov and his colleagues studied the digestive process in dogs. During the research, the scientists noticed changes in the timing and rate of salivation of these animals. Pavlov observed that if meat powder was placed in or near the mouth of a hungry dog, the dog would salivate. Because the meat powder provoked this response automatically, without any prior training or conditioning, the meat powder is referred to as an unconditioned stimulus. Similarly, because salivation occurred automatically in the presence of meat, also without the need for any training or experience, this response of salivating is referred to as an unconditioned response.

Before Conditioning →



Unconditioned stimulus (meat)

Unconditioned response (salivation)

and

Neutral stimulus (bell)

No response

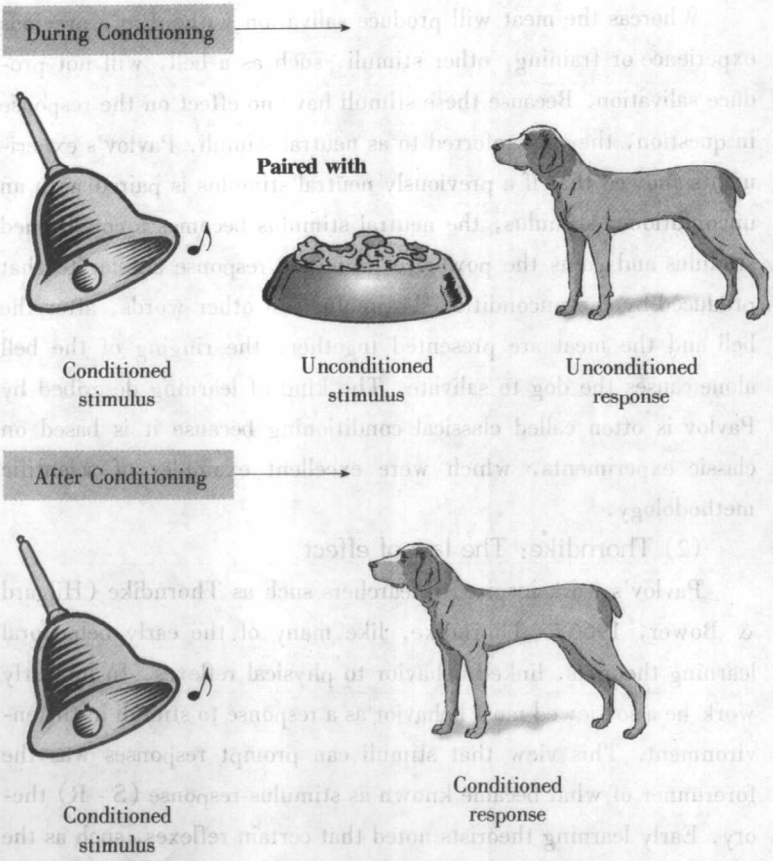


Figure 1 Classical Conditioning

In classical conditioning, a neutral stimulus (such as a bell) that at first prompts no response becomes paired with an unconditioned stimulus (such as meat) and gains the power of that stimulus to cause a response (such as salivation).

Whereas the meat will produce salivation without any previous experience or training, other stimuli, such as a bell, will not produce salivation. Because these stimuli have no effect on the response in question, they are referred to as neutral stimuli. Pavlov's experiments showed that if a previously neutral stimulus is paired with an unconditioned stimulus, the neutral stimulus becomes a conditioned stimulus and gains the power to prompt a response similar to that produced by the unconditioned stimulus. In other words, after the bell and the meat are presented together, the ringing of the bell alone causes the dog to salivate. The kind of learning described by Pavlov is often called classical conditioning because it is based on classic experiments, which were excellent examples of scientific methodology.

(2) Thorndike: The law of effect

Pavlov's work inspired researchers such as Thorndike (Hilgard & Bower, 1966). Thorndike, like many of the early behavioral learning theorists, linked behavior to physical reflexes. In his early work he also viewed most behavior as a response to stimuli in the environment. This view that stimuli can prompt responses was the forerunner of what became known as stimulus-response (S - R) theory. Early learning theorists noted that certain reflexes, such as the knee jerking upward when it is tapped, occur without being processed by the brain. They hypothesized that other behavior was also determined in a reflexive way by stimuli that are present in the environment rather than by conscious or unconscious thoughts.

Thorndike went beyond Pavlov by showing that stimuli that occurred after a behavior had an influence on future behaviors. In

many of his experiments, Thorndike placed cats in boxes from which they had to escape to get food. He observed that over time, the cats learned how to get out of the box more and more quickly by repeating the behaviors that led to escape and not repeating the behaviors that were ineffective. The change in the cat's performance suggests that the cat has learned something. According to Thorndike, the cat learned to form a strong association between the stimulus—being in the box—and a response—pulling the string on the door. From these experiments, Thorndike developed his Law of Effect.

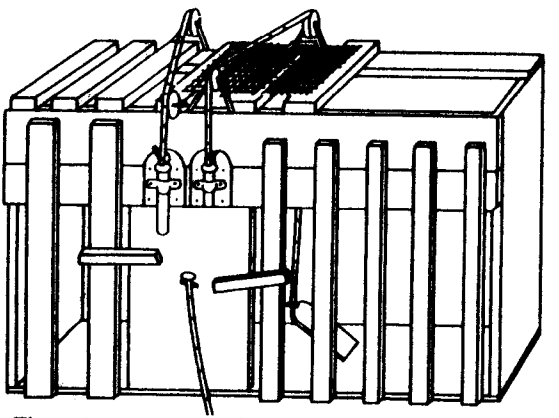


Figure 2 A Puzzle Box (From Thorndike 1898, p.13)

"When put into the box the cat would show evident signs of discomfort and of impulse to escape from confinement. It tries to squeeze through any opening; it claws and bites at the wire; it thrusts its paws out through any opening and claws at everything it reaches... It does not pay very much attention to the food outside