

Language Learning Beyond the Classroom

Negar Tavakoli, Niusha Shakeri, Tayebeh Ghanbarzadeh

IAU, Ayatollah Amoli Branch,

Tavakoli.negartavakoli@gmail.com

Noosha_818@yahoo.com

Tayebehghanbarzadeh@gmail.com

Abstract.

This paper provides an overview of learning within the second language classroom and how the classroom together with teachers, learners and learning resources can paved the ground for learning to occur. In so doing this paper focus on five main aspects, which are as what follow: Involving the Learner in Out-of-class Learning, Using Technology and the Internet , Learning Through Television, Out-of-class Projects, Interacting with Native Speakers. The paper concludes with a number of things emerge from learning beyond the classroom such as providing an opportunity to address some of the limitations of classroom based learning, providing an compass the development of language and communication skills, providing authentic language experience integrating classroom based learning, to name a few.

Keywords: Extensive reading, On-line learning, Extensive viewing, Project-based learning, Study-abroad experiences

1. Introduction.

Today English become the global language and there are two important dimensions to successful second or foreign language learning: what goes on inside the classroom and what goes on outside of the classroom (C. Richards, 2010). But the traditional concept of classroom based language learning were criticized for placing learners exclusively inside its four walls. Language learning shouldn't limited to the classroom, but can take place at any time and in any place, including the home and the community (Hyland, F.2014). Out-of-class learning and activities provide opportunity to address some of the limitations of the classroom-based leaning (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Today, however, the internet, technology and the media and the use of English in face to- face as well as virtual social networks provide greater opportunities for meaningful and authentic language use than are available in the classroom (C. Richards, 2010). As suggested by Nunan (1991), learners' application of their developing skills outside classroom is important in their second language development. They are important because they contribute greatly to ESL learning (Hyland, 2004). This paper provides an overview of learning within the second language classroom and how the classroom together with teachers, learners and learning resources can paved the ground for learning to occur. In so doing this paper focus on five main aspects, which are as what follow: Involving the Learner in Out-of-class Learning, Using Technology and the Internet , Learning Through Television, Out-of-class Projects, Interacting with Native Speakers. This paper reflects some observations of how successful language learning occur, the learners are highly motivated, their look for different opportunities to learn by themselves and also they reflect on their progress. The paper concludes with a number of things emerge from learning beyond the classroom such as providing an opportunity to address some of the limitations of classroom based learning, providing an compass the development of language and communication skills, providing authentic language experience integrating classroom based learning, to name a few.

2. Involving the Learner in Out-of-class Learning.

For language acquisition the context in which learning takes place makes a vital contribution to the success of learning. Most students in non-English speaking countries faced with the lack of an authentic English environment, they are immersed in first-language environment with limited exposure to English out of the classroom. In such countries the only contact with English is in the classroom so Out-of-class learning can play an important role to facilitating learning a foreign language. Out-of-class learning includes any sort of activities that lead to language learning in the contexts outside the classroom (Benson, 2011). Benson (2011) views out-of-class learning as entailing learners' deliberate and "independent interaction" with material social and technological resources available to them to self-direct their own learning (p. 127). This paper intended to say that more effort needs to be made Such as power of extensive reading, vocabulary learning outside the classroom, writing dialogue journals, extensive listening and etc. in language learning beyond the classroom, To increase opportunities for these students to encounter English and proceed out of class learning process, so through these opportunities students are highly motivated; they can set goals for themselves and they reflect and assess on their language learning progress.

Extensive reading in the target language is an excellent vehicle for learning that language. Research has clearly demonstrated that learners who read extensively in the target language become fluent readers, improve their reading comprehension, and thus increase their listening, speaking, and writing skills (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Researchers of extensive reading programmes are very positive about the role such an approach can play in both improving reading skills and developing learner language.

2.1. Extensive reading (ER).

Extensive reading (ER), an approach to reading pedagogy that encourages students to engage in a large amount of reading, is an instructional option that has been steadily gaining support and recognition in the field of second language (L2) reading pedagogy (e.g., Day & Bamford, 1998; Grabe, 2009; Grabe & Stoller, 2011). ER “means reading in quantity and in order to gain a general understanding of what is read. It is intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking for reading” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, pp. 193–194).

An extensive reading approach is the ideal out-of-class learning experience for learners who can read in their first language (Nunan & Richards, 2015). (Day & Bamford, 2002) laid out ten principles of extensive reading for instructional purposes, Nunan & Richards (2015) believe that their first five principles should be followed when engaging in extensive reading in an out-of-class environment. Following these should help learner in learning the target language, let’s take a glance at these five:

1. The reading material is easy.
2. A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available.
3. Learners choose what they want to read.
4. Learners read as much as possible.
5. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower.

(Day & Bamford, 1998, p. 27)

Extensive reading can develop positive attitudes and a strong motivation to read. This discussion shows the important role that extensive reading can play in extending language proficiency. There are gains to be made in vocabulary, reading and writing proficiency. Extensive listening is another way for enhancing language proficiency in a foreign language learning process. Learning to listen in a new language takes practice and time, often more time than learners have in class so this is another kind of out-of-class learning activity. In order to improve their listening abilities, learners must do more than just listen to interesting programs---they must also think about how they listen and what they could do to improve their listening (Nunan & Richards, 2015).

2.2 Extensive listening (EL).

Extensive listening came after extensive reading as an approach to improve L2 learners’ listening fluency and overall listening skills. EL can be defined as all types of listening activities that allow learners to receive a lot of comprehensible and enjoyable listening input (Renandya and Farrell, 2011). The aim of extensive listening is not the explicit learning of vocabulary and grammar through listening, but as a result of listening to texts, new or repeated, learners will be introduced to grammar and vocabulary many times and may learn implicitly through context and have a greater opportunity to meet the word and grammar structure again and again (Scot MATSUO, Extensive Listening inside and outside the classroom, 2016-03-31). Teachers can facilitate learner’s out-of-class listening by helping them access appropriate materials and teaching them ways to reflect on their listening experiences (Nunan & Richards, 2015).

Waring mentions some guidelines for choosing listening material that is appropriate for extensive listening. Some of the qualities of the content should be:

1. Over 90% of the content should be easily understandable
2. Over 95-98% of the vocabulary and grammar should be understandable
3. Understandable without having to stop or pause the listening text
4. The listener should be enjoying the listening material.

(Waring, 2008)

The aim of extensive listening is not the explicit learning of vocabulary and grammar through listening, but as a result of listening to texts, new or repeated, learners will be introduced to grammar and vocabulary many times and may learn implicitly through context and have a greater opportunity to meet the word and grammar structure again and again (Scot MATSUO, 2016).

The task of learning vocabulary is common to all language learning contexts (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Foreign language learners usually acquire new vocabulary in target language through new words in their text books during the classroom but they may not be able to use that word properly in different contexts or pronounce it correctly. One of effective ways to enhance learning vocabulary is learning new words in real life situation. Language learners almost universally report that learning the vocabulary of the target language is a priority, and many learners use rote learning with vocabulary lists as an independent vocabulary learning strategy (Schmitt, 1997). This tendency to independently study vocabulary in a focused manner suggests that vocabulary notebooks can be used by language learners at all proficiency levels and in virtually all settings (Nunan & Richards, 2015).

Another way for foreign language learners, whose direct, face-to-face contact with native speakers may be limited, to access many new vocabulary is the Internet. This input contains a great deal of useful vocabulary that is meaningful to the learners (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Learners who notice and try to learn that vocabulary will in turn improve their language skills in other areas, such as reading comprehension (Nation, 2001; Walters, 2006).

In the final of this part, this paper intended to describe the use of dialogue journals as an out-of-class activity which takes the form of a written conversation between teachers and students used consistently overtime.

2.3. Dialogue journals.

Journaling in its different shapes is a means for registering individual thoughts, experiences, and to develop gradually insights (RogHiemstra, 2002). Journal writing is systematic way of recording thing as the writer develops ideas on specific topic or event. It encourages students with drawing, song/poetry, maps to make journal writing help students in the field of psychology, literature, teacher education, sociology, etc. (Dyment&O`connek, 2003). Dialogue journal writing is a collaborative activity (Staton, 1988). Dialogue journals are reciprocal, ongoing, written exchanges between teachers and students used overtime (Peyton, 1993). Dialogue journals can be employed at almost proficiency levels and in almost all educational contexts (Mirhosseini, 2009, p. 43). Dialogue journals provide opportunities for teachers to enter students 'various zones of proximal development (ZPD). Central to understanding the ZPD is the idea that through collaboration, language learners have the opportunity to develop target language skills more effectively than do those working alone. Dialogue journals allow teachers to better understand their learner's ZPD, and to provide private, tailored input and modeling to each individual while engaging with their ideas (Chiesa & Bailey, 2013).

For EFL learners writing is a very important skill. One of the methods that we can teach EFL writer is self-monitoring and self-editing. Dialogue journals can provide students with the ability to communicate ideas through collaboration, discussion and presentation. Speaking is almost universal and has a strong innate component; but writing is a skill that has been recently focused pedagogically).The same set of sentences seems to be acceptable in written or spoken language, the mechanism is the same but differs in output. Dialogue writing allows writers to use the full range of available language functions, or "speech actions". Complaints, questions, promises, challenges, directions are all part of dialogue writing(Bagheri & Pourgharib, 2013). In a foreign language context, dialogue journals give students input and let them generate individual output in the target language compared to their English class alone, these comments provided a vehicle for the students to develop their language skills as well as their cognitive skills (Chiesa & Bailey, 2013).

3. On-line learning.

Today, technology plays an important role in human society development and our life is highly affected by the era of information technology. We can use technology in all parts of our lives from communication among friends to shopping, from education to media tools. These days' students want to learn English as a second language so they need to practice and improve their listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills (Ybarra & Green, 2003) .to do this they need different and various tools which can help them to learn the language easily and effectively. One of these ways is on-line learning that it defines as the use of new technology in teaching and learning a second language (Basheer, 2013) . In recent years, a new wave of online resources has recognizes the social nature of autonomous language learning through social media. The term social media is generally understood to refer to a set of online tools and practices with which people share personal information, ideas, and opinions for the purposes of social interaction (Cohen, 2011; Nation, n.d.). Facebook, Twitter, and blogging are all examples of social media. Social media has been adapted to enrich the language learning experience and enfranchise learners without access to the benefits of conversation with a native speaker because they live in a unilingual society or because of prohibitive costs associated with having a target-language teacher (Nunan & Richards 2015).

Each day we are getting involved with technology and it is getting more present in the daily life. Technology have imbued a great many students' lives especially in developing and developed countries witch technology such as mobile phones, interactive videos and games (Moyle, Wijngaards, & Owen, 2012). Although there are differences in the access and the intensity of technology use (Sanchez, Salinas, Contreras, & Meyer, 2011) and their use is generally is not linked to educational purposes, new generations of students are more comfortable with technology though using it in their life for a variety of purposes such as communication with friends, gaming and listening to music. Given that students access to the Internet easily and use it for several purposes, teachers also must be open to join their students to benefit from their being comfortable with technology to infuse into daily activities in classrooms (Barsotti, Martins, 2011; Gray, Andrews, & Schroeder, 2012) and to individualized learning processes more than that in a traditional classrooms (Volume, 2005; Larsen-freeman & Anderson, 2011). Teachers are eager to integrate technology into their classrooms and benefit from CALL-based activities.

There is a question: How can we improve our language skills through on-line learning?

3.1. Listening.

A good listener has the ability to better understand and process information; it is important to understand and comprehend the speakers and it needs to realize the speaker's accent and pronunciation, speaker's grammar and vocabulary, and comprehension of meaning (Saricoban, 1999).listening is very important in the process of second language learning. To improve our listening in on-line learning we can use Computers, Broadcasting, CD-players, and Tap-Recorders

3.1.1 Use of computers.

The use of computers in listening problems provides students with visual and voice inputs which can enhance their information and idea, and develop their listening skills (Hoven, 1999). Computer-based listening tests are very important in reinforcing the understanding skills of the listener. CD-ROM based learning films can also provide significant advantages over the traditional methods. Finally, Internet voice chatting using the second language may also aid the communication capabilities of the student (Nomass, 2013).

3.1.2 Use of CD-Players.

The use of CD-player device is another tool to enhance listening. CD-players are electronic instrument used to run audio CD-ROMS.

3.1.3 Use of Tap-Recorders.

Tape-recorders are one of the oldest technical listening tools, and their use is rapidly decreasing now a days. However, they are still be utilized in certain cases and are attached with some English language learning text-books.

3.2. Reading.

Reading is the process of understanding a written text by the learner. It is an important input skill which depends on the vocabulary background knowledge of the learner in the second language (Constantinescu, 2007). Tim Green explored that we can improve our reading skill through the use of technology. Computers can improve the student's level of interest while keeping the text simple and easy to read. Computer based reading instruction also allows for "increased interaction with texts, attention to individual needs, and increased independence through an ability to read texts they would not otherwise be able to read"(Case & Truscott, 1999). We can use different ways to improve our reading in on-line learning some of them are the use of Computer Reading-Based Programs, Use of Multimedia Software, Browsing the Internet, Use of Electronic Dictionaries and Reading CD-ROM Based Newspaper. Computer software and games provide many fun opportunities for students to practice literacy skills. There are numerous software packages for improving spelling, phonics skills, grammar and sight word vocabulary. When English Language Learners are learning their second language, any and all language experiences are valuable to assist in reading ability (Ybarra, 2003).

3.3 Speaking.

Learning English is not complete without speaking abilities. With the use of new technology, speaking empowering students and professionals with excellent English speaking skills .The people can communicate just when they can understand each other. Inserting technology in learning English language speaking can take several forms for example use of internet chatting and the use of speech synthesis program. Modern computer programs can signals and decode human sound. These types of programs are defined as artificial intelligence computer programs and can be a very useful tool for improving the speaking capability. Practicing with such programs will strengthen vocabulary and pronunciation abilities as well (Nomass, 2013). With easy access to the online world, there is a great opportunity to use this technology for learning English online. With online English courses, you have the opportunity to speak with Native English speaking professors from anywhere in the world. We use a dynamic and interactive curriculum which results in rapid and visible progress. Using Skype, Google, You tube, and many other online resources, help ESL students toward their goal of speaking English with confidence.

3.4. Writing.

Computers can help ELL students develop their writing skills. When using a computer, however, the use of graphics can make this much more enjoyable and can make them express thoughts more clearly (Lewis, 1997). Writing paragraphs can be very challenging for the students. The learner can highlight a specific part of the written text through underlining, bolding, italicizing, or changing the font size and color of the text with the aid of these programs which have the capability of automatically checking the spelling and grammar. So, the use of computer as a tool in studying grammar is much more motivating for the student than the process of traditional writing with pencil and a paper (Ybarra &v Green, 2003). Electronic mail is a modern way for writing and transferring messages through the internet. Using e-mail can be a very effective means for improving writing skills. Students can use E-mails to learn how to respond to the incoming messages using some formal statements and meaningful language (Singhal, 1997). Text chatting is another important technical method for developing writing ability. It provides an on-line and quick tool for writing and expressing thoughts, transferring ideas, and responding instantaneously with the other side writer.

Using technology in learning a second language has become a real necessity nowadays. Different methods can be used to improve the four language skills of the learner and new technology help learners to achieve this goal. As technology has developed, the incorporation of this medium into the instruction process

becomes necessary and the computer is being viewed more as an integral part of the learning activity, and as a means by which skills are transferred to learners. Theory and practice in second language learning can be matched together by the use of modern technology and Modern technical ways should be followed for effective learning and teaching of the second language. English language teachers should encourage their students to use technology in developing the language skills and finally, educational institutions should modernize their technical instruction capabilities by using new equipment and laboratories for supporting the teaching process.

4. Learning through Television.

TV is one of the most familiar and popular media technologies. Over 98% of households in the EU and North America have access to television and for many the TV set is the focal point of the household. People of all Educational levels, ages and social classes are already familiar with television and use it comfortably (S.Fallahkhalil, J.Masthoff, L. Pemberton.2004). Since the 1980s, researchers (e.g., Candlin, Charles, & Willis, 1982; Eisenstein, Shuller, & Bodman, 1987) have been exploring the ways in which popular media can be used effectively to enrich the English learning experience (M.S. Lyn & A. Siyanova, 2012). English as a foreign language (EFL) learners are particularly encouraged to watch English movies and television outside the classroom since research shows that they can facilitate the learning of English vocabulary, discourse and culture (Meinhof, 1998; Lin, 2014).Television is therefore *already* a powerful learning environment for language learners, Interactivity adds new facilities for information retrieval and communication (Gawlinski, 2003). Watching television has long been cited by learners as a useful input to out-of-class learning (Nunan & Richards, 2015). Television viewing has been found to support many aspects of language learning, including listening comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, as well as cross-cultural awareness (Danan, 2004; Vanderplank, 1998, 2010). The greatest value of television for language learning might be its potential to provide large amount of L2 spoken input, which can contribute to the development of vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension, as well as other aspects of L2 learning (Webb, 2014). Watching L2 television extensively as a supplement to extensive reading could help to fill the need for greater L2 input. Here we mention two examples to show how connections between television viewing and language learning can be made.

4.1. Extensive viewing.

Webb (2014) describes the use of extensive viewing – an activity that involves regular silent uninterrupted viewing of television both inside and outside of the classroom – as a means of improving vocabulary as well as to improve listening comprehension. One of the positive features of extensive viewing program is that L2 television programs are widely available resource for language learning, it is best for learners to watch in a where they have control of the material (Webb, 2014). Richards (2014) says Television viewing has a number of features that make it a useful out-of-class learning activity:

Accessibility: The ability to watch television on mobile technology means that the learning situations available for the learner are extensive.

Intensity of Exposure: Learners are likely to spend extended periods of time watching television, providing much greater exposure to meaningful input than they can get in the classroom.

Motivational: Watching television constitutes entertainment for many people, and is hence likely to be an activity students enjoy.

Flexibility: Students can choose different ways of watching television, such as showing or hiding subtitles, repeated viewing of scenes.

Multimodal: Television provides input in several forms, orthographically, aural and visual.

Notice Gaps: When students watch television they often see examples of English being used for informal social interaction in everyday situations. If their exposure to English has largely been classroom-based learners may now have the opportunity to observe how English is really used and spoken, to notice gaps in their own knowledge, become more aware of differences between spoken and written language and learn some of the ways in which English is used for casual interaction, including small talk, humor, and for expressing feelings and emotions.

If students watch L2 television regularly over a long period of time, learning gains should be a function of television viewing time; with greater viewing time, comprehension and vocabulary learning should improve to a larger degree (Webb, 2014). Vocabulary learning may be occur through the learning of new words and improving recognition of the spoken forms of word, comprehension can also be supported through the creation of glossaries that list key words (Webb, 2010) and materials designed to increase background knowledge of the characters and storyline. Also some research has shown that multiple reading of the same text can improve comprehension and vocabulary learning (Webb & Chang, 2012).

4.2. Internet Television.

Lin and Siyanova-Chanturia (2014) point out many young people like to watch TV dramas, soap operas and comedies as a source of input of authentic, everyday English but that until recently, accessing them has been problematic in many situations. With advent of Internet television (television delivered on any internet-enabled devices such as smartphones, tablets, personal computers using video streaming), ubiquitous foreign language learning can finally become reality (Chang, Tseng, & Tseng, 2011). So the learner can take internet television

with them wherever they go, accessing their favorite programme with just a few clicks on the internet-enabled smartphone (Richards, 2014). This convenience in access means that any EFL learner can receive authentic input, even if they have only ten minutes on the train (Lin & Siyanova-Chanturia 2014). With Internet television readily available, learners are no longer limited to watching movies in a self-access Centre and can spend 'dead time' on the subway, bus, or bus stop, watching television programs in English (Richards, 2014).

5. Project –based learning.

The context in which learning takes place makes a vital contribution to the success of learning; this is true in particular for language acquisition. Countries in which English is not a primary language often lack an authentic English environment. In such countries, in-class instruction may be the only contact students have with English. Once students leave the classroom, they are totally immersed in their own first-language environment, which seems to offer little exposure to English materials and few chances to see or use English in real settings. Because sole reliance on classroom instruction is far from sufficient for EFL learners to practice the target language (Xiao & Luo, 2009), more effort needs to be made to increase opportunities for these students to encounter English. Collaborative learning offers an environment to liven up and supplement the learning practices. Establishing interactive classmates into an educational system creates more practical social contexts, thereby increasing the effectiveness of the language teaching. Such an environment would uphold the language learners' interests and provide more natural learning surroundings (Vivekanandan, 1996). In language learning classrooms, collaborative learning can be a supporting means for the instructors in order to create a rich and meaningful learning process. Collaborative learning has a major role in constructive cognitive development (Piaget1928, Piaget1932). This theory is reliable with other well-known learning theories (Vygotsky, 1978, Fox & Karen, Thomas & Funaro, 1990) in highlighting the significance of collaboration.

Textbooks often fail to achieve a meaningful level of involvement on the part of the learners; learning need not be confined to the classroom with set textbooks and practice (Griffiths & Keohane, 2000). Students need to develop the ability to acquire information that is available both inside and outside the classroom context (Field, 2007). In school learning tends to be symbol-based, while out-of-school learning is more directly connected to events and objects in the physical worlds, with the result that learning well in schools is not sufficient preparation for functioning well outside of school (Resnick, 1987). Hyland agrees: "[Language learning] can take place at any time and in any place, including the home and the community" (2004, p. 180). In a study by Nunan (1989), a majority of students found classroom instruction itself to be insufficient for the development of English competence; on the other hand, engagement in outside classroom learning enhanced their language development, demonstrating the need to incorporate activities outside the classroom for greater learning success.

According to Wan (1990), the term 'Communicative activities' refers to the techniques which are employed in the communicative method in language teaching. Activities such as games, exercises, practices and projects are teaching devices in which English language becomes the vehicle throughout the activities. In addition to that, the learners involve in completing their tasks with the use of English language help from the instructors. The language-using activities for communication are not restricted to conversation and may involve listening, speaking, reading, writing or an integration of two or more skills (Wan, 1990). There are several principles that language instructors should know in establishing collaborative learning atmosphere. According to Whipple, (1987), firstly, both facilitators and learners become active participants in the educational process. Secondly, the hierarchy between facilitators and learners is eliminated. Next, a sense of community is created. Finally, knowledge is created, not transferred. These principles are the guidelines for the instructors to adapt collaborative learning approach in their language classes. In fact, the learners will start assessing themselves with one another the group and this encourages reflective learning which really helps them build their characters, knowledge and values. In a collaborative learning setting, learners have the chance to converse with peers, express and support ideas, exchange diverse beliefs, question other conceptual frameworks, and be actively engaged (Cooper and Robinson, 1997). Collaborative learning assumes that knowledge is socially, rather than individually, constructed by communities of individuals and that the shaping and testing of ideas is a process in which anyone can participate (MacGregor 1990; Novotny, Seifert, and Werner 1991). Furthermore, it stresses the importance of common inquiry in learning, a process through which learners begin to experience knowledge as something that is created rather than something that is transmitted from the facilitator or teacher to the learner (Sheridan 1989). We can have a collaborative learning atmosphere through PBL. Stoller (2006) defines PBI as: (1) having a process and product; (2) giving students (partial) ownership of the project; (3) extending over a period of time (several days, weeks, or months); (4) integrating skills; (5) developing students' understanding of a topic through the integration of language and content; (6) collaborating with other students and working on their own; (7) holding students responsible for their own learning through the gathering, processing, and reporting of information from target language resources; (8) as signing new roles and responsibilities to students and teacher; (9) providing a tangible final product; and (10) reflecting on both the process and the product. Stoller also maintains, however, that PBI is more than merely engaging students in projects; PBI takes on a variety of forms, depending

On the teacher, the students, and the situation. In addition to the projects themselves, students engage in many types of learning, including experiential and negotiated learning, problem solving, and research. Projects often elicit collaboration among students; they can be simple assignments or very intricate, multiphase tasks that take weeks or even months to complete. Although models of what projects might look like abound (see, e.g., Blumenfeld et al. 1991; Boss and Krauss 2007; Katz and Chard 2000; Mitchell et al. 2009).

By bringing real-life context and technology to the curriculum through a PBL approach, students are encouraged to become independent workers, critical thinkers, and lifelong learners. Teachers can communicate with administrators, exchange ideas with other teachers and subject-area experts, and communicate with parents, all the while breaking down invisible barriers such as isolation of the classroom, fear of embarking on an unfamiliar process, and lack of assurances of success. PBL is not just a way of learning; it's a way of working together. If students learn to take responsibility for their own learning, they will form the basis for the way they will work with others in their adult lives. So we conclude that team project and PBL can facilitate communicative ability, enhance self-confidence and teamwork, incorporate language learning strategies and promotes the frequent use of English language. The team project activity is derived from socioaffective aspect in language learning strategies and adapting a project-based approach as a vehicle to encourage communicative ability throughout the process of completing it. According to Chou (2004) socioaffective strategies can be considered as an effective approach to accelerate Asian learners' speaking competence as well as their learning motivation. Moreover, socioaffective strategies should be fully integrated into classroom contexts and everyday learning (Chou 2004).

6. Interacting with native speakers.

Language learning has been defined as “a deeply social event that requires the incorporation of a wide range of elements of the L2 culture” (Dornye, 2001, p.195). In a foreign language learning, interacting with native speakers or advanced language users is one of the essentials to facilitate the process of learning. This is a kind of out-of-class learning based on contact with native speakers which provides opportunities for developing communicative competence outside the classroom. Davies (1991) claims that “The first language a human being learns to speak is his *native language*; he is a *native speaker* of this language” (Bloomfield, 1933, p. 43). *Native speaker* here is a monolingual person who still speaks the language learnt in childhood. There are many ways which provide contacts with native speakers, here we intended to introduce some of them, such as study-abroad experiences and immersion experiences such as language villages, these experiences provide extended interaction and authentic language contact with native speakers also enhance the cross-cultural and language skills.

(Arnold, J. & Fonseca-Mora. 2015) Describe that Study-abroad programs are designed in general for university students to have the opportunity to study languages and get credits for their degree in their home university but in a country where the language is spoken. Many language learners, educators and students believe that living in the target language country effectively increase language competence and cultural understanding of a foreign language. Isabelli-García (“Study Abroad”) suggested that “contact with the host culture outside of the classroom and attitudes towards the host culture can be related to the development of oral communication skills and accuracy” (Tina Badstübner & Peter Ecke). Within natural interaction, learners can practice listening comprehension, retaining information and connecting it with what comes next so speakers tend to adapt to their listener’s competence and modify their speech to facilitate understanding (Arnold, J. & Fonseca-Mora. 2015).

Language learning, according to Norton and McKinney (2011), “engages the identities of learners because language itself is not only a linguistic system of signs and symbols, but also a complex social practice through which relationships are defined, negotiated, and resisted” (p. 77). Language immersion also known as immersion program is another kind of experience for students to learn a foreign or second language through professional context and negotiate with native or skilled speakers. Language immersion is an approach to foreign language instruction in which the usual curricular activities are conducted in a foreign language, This means that the new language is the medium of instruction as well as the object of instruction, Bostwick (2011).

Immersion represents the most intensive form of content-based foreign language instruction (Snow, 1986). In immersion programmes learners are fully immersed in the target language for a certain period of time, both in and outside the class, one of the out of class model of immersion program is “Language Villages”, which provides an opportunity for authentic language contact and develop communicative competence and cultural awareness of the learners. Language villages offer learners a very important advantage, they do not have to travel abroad in order to have close and intensive contact with the native speaker. Language villages prepares learners to involve in more real contact with the foreign language in a week rather than in several months of classes and as much actual use of the language to communicate as some stay abroad, which are over a longer period of time but do not provide the direct, structured communicative work with the language that is found in the language villages (Arnold, J. & Fonseca-Mora. 2015). In an intensive village experience, learners have an opportunity to improve their language skills as well as their understanding of different cultures, and they do so in a setting that is stress free and social in nature (Richards, 2014).

7. Conclusions.

In summary, out of class learning provides authentic language opportunities and improve learners' both linguistic and communicative skills. Out-of-class language learning raises issues for second language acquisition theory, and as Benson (2011: 15) suggests, challenges us to develop 'a theory of second language learning beyond the classroom similar to the theory of instructed second language acquisition proposed by Ellis (1999)'. Language learning can be observed as changes situated in social interaction. As reasons, purposes, norms and expectations of communication change according to the context in which language is used, language learning is conceptualized as a multidirectional change (or adjustment) in language that fulfills a socio-communicative goal (Jenks, 2010: 148). Learning beyond the classroom has many benefits for both learners and teachers, learners can learn depending on their interests and needs, they can have social interaction with others, and manage their own learning so this interaction and management can improve their confidence and motivation, and cause intercultural awareness. This kind of learning can provide a pleasurable and positive language use experience. However Bailly (2011: 128) points out that the success of out-of class learning may vary for individual learners: ...successful out-of-class learning depends on learners fulfilling at least three necessary conditions, or success factors: motivation, learning resources and learning skills. Some students can easily find or develop these ingredients in their environment but others cannot. If one element is lacking then the learning process is likely be interrupted. Teachers' benefits may include; through out of class activities teachers can provide some opportunities that are too difficult to create in the classroom and also they can provide some links between classroom and out of class learning environment. Teachers need to become familiar with the range of activities learners make use of and the potential such experiences have for making connections with classroom-based teaching. Teachers may also need to acquire the skills needed to guide their learners in effective ways of using out-of-class learning to support their in-class learning (Richards, 2010).

References:

- Day, R.R., Bamford, J. (1998). *Extensive reading in the second language classroom*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan D, Richards JC (eds) *Language Learning Beyond the Classroom*. New York: Routledge.
- Bagheri, S, Pourgharib, B. (2013). An Investigation of the Effect of Journal Writing on EFL Learners' Oral Production. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences*
- Ghahremani-Ghajar S, Mirhosseini S. (2005). English Class or Speaking About Everything Class: Dialogue Journal Writing as a Critical Literacy Practice in an Iranian High School. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 18(3): 286–299
- Stanton J, Shuy RW, Peyton JK, Reed L. 1988. *Dialogue Journal Communication: Classroom, Linguistic, Social and Cognitive Views*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Nunan, D. (1989). *Understanding language classrooms*. New York, NY: Prentice Hall.
- Davies, A. (2006). What do learners really want from their EFL courses? *ELT Journal*, 60(1), 3-12. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/cci076>
- Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. L. (2011). *Teaching and researching reading*. (2nd Ed.) Harlow, England: Pearson Education.
- Grabe, W. (2004). Research on teaching reading. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 44–69.
- Hyland, F. (2004). Learning Autonomously: Contextualizing Out-of-Class English Language Learning; *Language Awareness*, 2004, v. 13 n. 3, p. 180-202
- Arnold, J., & Brown, H. D. (1999). A map of the terrain. In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in language learning* (pp. 1–24). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Day, R. R., & Bamford, J. (1998). *Extensive reading in the second language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Day, R. R., & Bamford, J. (2002). Top ten principles for teaching extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 14, 136–141.
- Grabe, W. (2009). *Reading in a second language: Moving from theory to practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. L. (1997). Reading and vocabulary development in a second language: A case study. In J. Coady, & T. Huckin. (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition: A rationale for pedagogy*. (pp. 98–122). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Yamashita, J. (2004). Reading attitudes in L1 and L2, and their influence on L2 extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 16, 1–19.
- Bailly S (2011) Teenagers learning languages out of school: what, why and how do they learn? In: Benson P, Reinders H (eds) *Beyond the Language Classroom*. London: Palgrave Macmillan, 119–31.
- Benson P (2011) *Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning (2nd Edition)*. London: Longman.
- Benson P, Reinders H (eds) (2011) *Beyond the Language Classroom*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Richards JC (2014) *The Changing Face of Language Learning: Learning Beyond the Classroom*; RELC Journal. SAGE.
- Chik A (2014) 'I don't know how to talk basketball before playing NBA 2K10': using digital games for out-of-class language learning. In: Nunan D, Richards JC (eds) *Language Learning Beyond the Classroom*. New York: Routledge, 75–84.
- Siyanova-Chanturia A, Lin P (2014) Internet television for second language vocabulary learning. In: Nunan D, Richards JC (eds) *Language Learning Beyond the Classroom*. New York: Routledge.
- Webb S (2014) Extensive viewing: language learning through watching television. In: Nunan D, Richards JC (eds) *Language Learning Beyond the Classroom*. New York: Routledge.
- Bailey, K. (1990) the use of diary studies in teacher education programs. In J.C. Richards and D. Nunan (eds) *Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 215–26). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Benson, P. (2001) *Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning*. London: Longman.
- Nuttall, C. (1996). *Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Ahearn L (2001) Language and agency. *Annual Review of Anthropology* 30: 109–37.
- Arnold J, Carmen Fonseca-Mora C (2014) Language and cultural encounters: opportunities for interaction with native speakers. In: Nunan D, Richards JC (eds) *Language Learning Beyond the Classroom*. New York: Routledge, 225–33.
- Schmitt, N.(1997). Vocabulary learning strategies. In N.Schmitt & M.Mcarthy (Eds.), *vocabulary: Description, Acquisition and pedagogy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chiesa, D., Damerow, R., & Bailey, K. M. (2013). The use of dialogue journals with university EFL students: A Bonny Norton & Carolyn McKinney (2011) An Identity Approach to Second Language Acquisition in Dwight Atkinson sociocultural perspective. *The Journal of English Language and Pedagogy*, 6, 1-16.
- Ellis, R. (1999). Learning a second language through interaction. Amsterdam: John Benjamin. Ellis, R. (1999). Making the classroom acquisition-rich. In R. Ellis (Ed.), *Learning a second language through interaction* (pp. 211-229). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Barsotti, C., & Martins, C. (2011). The use of ICTs in Foreign language teaching: The challenges of a teachers' education program. In M. Levy, F. Blin, C. B. Siskin, & O. Takeuchi, (Eds.), *WORLDCALL: International perspectives on computer-assisted language learning*, (pp. 241-256). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, M. (2011). *Techniques & principles in language teaching* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Moyle, K., Wijngaards, & Owen, S. (2012) .K. Moyle & G. Wijngaards (Eds.), *Student reactions to learning to learning with technologies: Perceptions and outcomes*, (pp.1-21). Hershey, PA: Information Science Reference
- Sanchez, J., Salinas, A., Contreras, D., & Meyer. E. (2011). Does the new digital generation of learners exist? A qualitative study. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 42(4), 543-556.
- Constantinescu, A. I. (2007). Using technology to assist in vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 13(2). Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Constantinescu-Vocabulary.html>
- Hoven, D. (1999). A model for listening and viewing comprehension in multimedia environments. *Language Learning & Technology*, 3(1), 88-103. Retrieved from <http://llt.msu.edu/vol3num1/hoven/index.html>
- Saricoban, A. (1999). The teaching of listening. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 5(12). Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Saricoban-Listening.html>
- Singhal, M. (1997). The internet and foreign language education: Benefits and challenges. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 3(6). Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Singhal-Internet.html>
- Ybarra, R., & Green T. (2003). Using technology to help ESL/EFL students develop language skills. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 9(3). Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Ybarra-Technology.html>
- Case, C. & Truscott, D. (1999). The lure of bells and whistles: Choosing the best software to support reading instruction. *Reading and Writing Quarterly: Oversoming Learning Difficulties*, 15 (4), 361-369.
- Lewis, P. (1997). Using productivity software for beginning language learning—Part 1. The word processor. *Learning and Leading with Technology*, 24 (8), 14-17.
- Cooper, J., and Robinson, P. (1998). *Small group instruction in science, mathematics, engineering, and technology*. *Journal of College Science Teaching* 27:383. MacGregor, J. *Collaborative Learning: Shared Inquiry as a Process of Reform*. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning* no. 42 (Summer 1990): 19-30.
- Piaget, J. (1928). *Judgement and Reasoning in the Child*. Harcourt Brace, New York. Sheridan, J. *Rethinking Andragogy: The Case for Collaborative Learning in Continuing Higher Education*. *Journal of Continuing Higher Education* 37, no. 2 (Spring 1989): 2-6.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Harvard University Press. 52-91.

Whipple, W. R. *Collaborative Learning: Recognizing It When We See It*. AAHE Bulletin (1987): 4-6. (ED 289 396).

Field, J. (2007). Looking outwards, not inwards. *ELT Journal*, 61(1), 30-38. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/cc1042>

Griffiths, G., & Keohane, K. (2000). *Personalizing language learning*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press. Resnick, L. (1987). The 1987 presidential address: Learning in school and out. *Educational Researcher*, 16(9), 13-20. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/1175725>

Xiao, L., & Luo, M. (2009). English co-curricular activities: A gateway to developing autonomous learners. *CamTESOL Selected Papers*, 5, 239-251. http://www.camtesol.org/Download/Earlier_Publications/Selected_Papers_Vol.5_2009.Pdf

Blumenfeld, P. C., E. Soloway, R. Marx, J. Krajcik, M. Guzdial, M., and A. Palincsar. (1991). Motivating project-based learning: Sustaining the doing, supporting the learning. *Educational Psychologist* 26: 369–98.

Stoller, F. (2006). Establishing a theoretical foundation for projectbased learning in second and foreign language contexts. In *Projectbased second and foreign language education: Past, present, and future*, ed. G.H. Beckett and P.C. Miller, 19–40. Greenwich, CT: Information Age