

Dr. A. Dzo'ul Milal, M.Pd.

communicative
teaching and learning
of English
as a foreign language

Edufutura Press

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LEARNING OF ENGLISH AS A
FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

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**COMMUNICATIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF
ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

Penulis

Dr. A. Dzo'ul Milal, M.Pd.

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PREFACE

Communicative Teaching and Learning of English as a Foreign Language contains basic concepts of how to conduct communicative activities in the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in the classroom. It is intended to be used by Indonesian students of English Department who are majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) or prospective teachers who want to obtain some insights about what and how to undertake activities in their teaching and learning process of English lessons.

The writing of this book is motivated by the fact that during his teaching of TEFL subject, the writer feels that students need a book which contains simple and understandable materials that are directly implementable later on in their teaching tasks. Based on some references, knowledge, and experiences obtained along his teaching career, the writer encourages himself to put on his ideas more permanently in the form of this piece of writing, partly to comply with the above needs, and partially to satisfy his desire of self-actualization.

The writer acknowledges special owes to Jeanette Lindsey-Clark and Mark Hinde, whose ideas contained in CELTT Modules, are much adopted and adapted in order to comply with the needs of making the materials in this book more comprehensive and practical; and to my beloved

colleagues, ELTISers, for sharing all memorable experiences.
May this simple book be useful for all of its readers.

Surabaya, May 2011

Writer
A. Dzo'ul Milal



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UNIT 1

FOUNDATIONS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

A. Approaches in Language Teaching and Learning

There are basically three approaches in language teaching and learning: behaviorism, cognitivism, and interactionism (Ellis, 1986). The main tenet of behaviorist learning theory is that learning a language is a matter of habit formation. Habit is formed through stimulus, response, reinforcement chain. Ellis (1986:21) says, "If the stimulus occurs sufficiently frequently, the response became practiced and therefore automatic". The learning of a habit could also occur through imitation. In addition to that, in the process of forming a habit, errors should be totally avoided. Otherwise, faulty habit is formed. This view emphasizes on the importance of external factor undermining the learners' inherent capacity.

Cognitivism, in contrast, puts greater significance on the role of internal cognitive capacity, by mentioning what is called Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Learning a language is matter of activating LAD, which contains Universal Grammar. This can be activated by primary linguistic data (Chomsky, 1966). The process of acquisition is done by this capacity, once it is activated. Another feature of mentalist account is the learner's performance of hypothesis testing during the process of acquisition (Ellis, 1986). According to this view, there is a fixed sequence of language development undergone by the

learner. That is described as interlanguage, i.e. language-learner language (Selinker, 1972).

It is natural that when there are two extremes, there must be one to mediate the two opposing forces. This is where interactionist puts itself. Ellis (1986: 129) explicitly asserts,

The behaviorist view emphasizes the importance of the linguistic environment, which is treated in terms of stimuli and feedback. The nativist view minimizes the role of the input and explains language development primarily in terms of the learner's internal processing mechanisms. The interactionist view sees language development as the result of both input factors and of innate mechanisms. Language acquisition derives from the collaborative efforts of the learner and his interlocutors and involves a dynamic interplay between external and internal factors.

The corollary of this idea is that linguistic input plays a prominent role in the process of language acquisition. The input, however, is required to be comprehensible to the learners in order for the internal mechanism to process. It is this comprehensibility that represents the interaction. When there is no comprehensibility, there is no interaction. It is believed that language acquisition will take place, thus language competence improves if the input exposed to the learners is comprehensible and provided in sufficient quantity (Krashen, 1985).

Further implication of this idea in language teaching and learning practice is that teachers are required

to provide sufficient quantity of comprehensible input to the learners. That is fulfilled by using the target language as much as possible, and simplifying or modifying the speech in such a way that the speech is adjusted according to the level of the learners' competence. This speech adjustment strategy, by all means, affects the performance of speech acts.

B. Some Principles of Language Teaching and Learning

An array of factors should be taken into consideration in order to conduct successful or effective language teaching and learning. The pedagogic efforts made by teachers in conducting classroom language teaching and learning process are normally underlain by their intuitions, insights from scientific studies, and/or based on their practical experiences. In support of this issue, Brown (2000) succinctly makes a list of principles on which language instructional endeavors are based. The principles include automaticity, meaningful learning, the anticipation of reward, intrinsic motivation, strategic investment, language ego, self-confidence, risk-taking, the language -culture connection, the native language effect, interlanguage, and communicative competence.

Concerning the principle of automaticity, Brown (2000) says that this principle means that learners acquire language subconsciously without overtly analyzing the forms of language. The implication of this principle is that the classroom activities focus on the learners' use of language rather than on the analysis or the conscious application of forms into sentences. By conducting authentic meaningful communication, learners are

expected to acquire the target language automatically and are able to use it without conscious thinking of its formal rules.

The principle of meaningful learning means that the process of learning is effective and will produce long-term retention when it is meaningful to the learners. This is opposed to rote learning (Ausubel in Brown, 2000:56) which means learners are required to memorize things without understanding, such as memorizing telephone numbers. Meaningful implies that learners understand what they are learning. To meet this principle, Brown (2000:57) explicitly states, “whenever a new topic or concept is introduced, attempt [is made] to anchor it in learners’ existing knowledge and background so that it becomes associated with something they already know.”

The principle of the anticipation of reward refers to the statement that human beings’ behaviors are driven or directed by a sense of purpose or goal, and as quoted by Brown (2000: 58), “according to Skinner, the anticipation of reward is the most powerful factor in directing one’s behavior.” The implication in the classroom is that teacher gives praises to learners for correct responses or good scores or other public recognition. Being rewarded, learners get more confidence and pride of themselves, thus being motivated to pursue further. Therefore, according to this principle, it is important that the teacher frequently gives praises and compliments in order to encourage learners.

The principle of intrinsic motivation implies that internal motivation is one of the crucial factors to induce learning success of the learners. Brown (2000: 59) states

that, “the most powerful rewards are those that are intrinsically motivated within the learner. Because behavior stems from needs, wants, or desires within oneself, the behavior itself is self-rewarding; therefore, no externally administered reward is necessary.” To comply with this principle, what the teacher can do in the classroom is, among others, telling the learners about the importance of and benefits they can gain from the ability of using the target language. Teacher should make learners aware of such importance; hence, they become more motivated driven by themselves. In sum, if the third principle, i.e. the anticipation of reward is the source of external motivation, this fourth principle is internal motivation.

The fifth principle is strategic investment. According to Brown (2000), this principle means that language teaching and learning process should be able to make learners aware of their personal investment of time, effort, and attention to the target language learning. In order to serve this purpose, teacher is required to take into account the variety of learners’ characteristics and attempt to accommodate such a diversity as maximally as possible by designing varied materials and conducting various strategies.

The principle of language ego, according to Brown (2000:61), means that as human beings learn to use a second language, they also develop a new mode of thinking, feeling, and acting – a second identity. The new “language ego,” intertwined with the second language can easily create within the learner a sense of fragility, defensiveness, and inhibitions.

Due to this fragile psychological condition, teacher should treat the learners with affective tender loving care, patience, and empathy. In the classroom, teacher needs to present cognitively enough challenging materials but which does not cause affective tension.

In language teaching and learning process, there is also a principle of self-confidence. As the lesson proceeds, teacher should preserve learners' self-confidence if they already have it and build it when they do not have it. That is done by giving them autonomy and responsibility to conduct tasks and activities, either in group work or pair work. In addition, the materials are gradually sequenced from easy to more difficult so that learners always feel to manage to cope with the task and always feel successful in doing them.

Concerning the principle of risk-taking, Brown (2000:63) claims that learners should be encouraged to venture the use the target language regardless of errors they may make. That can be realized by creating the classroom atmosphere in such a way that learners are encouraged to try out language, teacher gives positive response towards their trials, and does not emphasize too much on their formal errors.

The principle of language-culture connection implies that when one is learning a language, s/he is also learning "a complex system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling, and acting" (Brown, 2000:64). Therefore, teacher should raise this cultural awareness through discussions or the contents of teaching materials.

The tenth principle is the native language effect. Native language can be facilitating or interfering in the second language (Brown, 2000:65). In order to minimize the interference of native language, learners should be encouraged to think directly in the target language. That can be done by teacher's minimum use of the native language and the maximum use of paraphrases, synonyms, and explanations in clarifying meanings rather than by translations.

The eleventh principle is that of interlanguage. Brown (2000:66) states that "second language learners tend to go through a systematic or quasi-systematic developmental process as they progress to full competence in the target language." In order for interlanguage to develop successfully, it is important that learners be given feedback. The feedback should be specific and encouraging so that learners not only know exactly how to correct their errors but also are not de-motivated.

Regarding communicative competence, Brown (2000:69) says that to achieve this goal of a language classroom, teaching and learning process needs to be directed towards the improvement of all its components: organizational, pragmatic, strategic, and psychomotor. "Communicative goals are best achieved by giving attention to language use and not just usage, to fluency and not just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts" (Brown, 2000:69). Further discussion about communicative competence is presented in the following part.

C. Acquisition of Communicative Competence

As is stated earlier, the main objective of language teaching and learning is to enable learners to communicate, i.e. to improve communicative competence. The person who acquires communicative competence, according to Hymes (1972:281), acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to

1. whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
2. whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails.

Communicative competence covers four components, namely grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence (Savignon, 1983; Canale and Swain, 1980). Communicative competence is a sort of composite unity comprising those four elements. One is said to have communicative competence if one acquires those four competences.

Savignon (1983:36-40) claims that grammatical competence refers to the “mastery of linguistic code, the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactic, and phonological features of a language and to manipulate these features to form words and sentences”. Sociolinguistic competence “requires an understanding of

the social context in which language is used," thus, the ability to conduct linguistic behavior appropriately. Discourse competence is "the ability to interpret a series of sentences or utterances in order to form a meaningful whole and to achieve coherent texts that are relevant to a given context". Strategic competence is described as "the verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or due to insufficient competence" (Canale and Swain, 1980: 30). In sum, communicative competence is more than just the knowledge about the linguistic rules and ability to use that knowledge to construct sentences, but more than that it is the ability to conduct communication properly. It may even include the knowledge about when to speak or when to keep silent, understanding the said as well as the unsaid, and conducting linguistically polite behavior.

Concerning the acquisition of communicative competence, Bonvillain (2003:273-4) says that "children acquire communicative behavior through the course of daily experience. ... Children also extrapolate cultural norms from caregivers' responses to them. And they test their understanding when interacting with others". Talking about the acquisition of politeness by Japanese children, she further says that children are given example and direct admonition. Their behavior is commented upon and corrected in order to instill virtues of politeness and attentiveness towards others. From those statements, conclusion can be drawn that in order to acquire communicative competence, learners should be directly involved in the experience of communication, given a

chance to perform hypothesis testing, given examples, sometimes admonition and correction.

Communicative competence also includes the ability to perform communicative acts, either locutionary, illocutionary, or perlocutionary acts. In relation to this, Bates, Camaioni, and Volterra (1998:293) after carrying out a research on the acquisition of communicative acts by children before they are able to speak finally come to a conclusion that the developmental process of acquisition follows the order of perlocutionary, illocutionary, then locutionary acts. By perlocutionary communication, they mean that “children react innately to certain internal psychological states by producing certain behaviors (e.g. smiling, crying) which predictably result in the satisfaction of material needs (e.g. the cry) and/or the maintenance of social interaction (e.g. the smile)” (Bates, et. al., 1998:280-1). By illocutionary stage, they mean that the child intentionally uses non-verbal signals to convey requests and to direct adult attention to objects and events. In locutionary stage, the child constructs propositions and utters speech sounds (Bates, et. al., 1998:276).

This finding is in line with Shuy’s (1988:116) opinion who says that “learning takes place from deep to surface (the exact way babies learn their native language), rather than from surface to deep”. What Shuy means by *deep* is function, comprehension, and meaning; whereas *surface* refers to form, reading/decoding, writing, and speaking. This idea implies that learning a language should proceed from meanings or functions to forms. That also applies to the acquisition of communicative competence.

D. Teacher's Beliefs about Teaching and Learning

The practice of language teaching and learning is often dictated by the teacher's beliefs. For example, when s/he believes that learners will improve their language competence if the teacher uses the target language because s/he believes that by her/his using the target language learners will receive input, imitate, and get accustomed to using it in their interaction, in practice, s/he will always use it in interaction with them. The following section presents some beliefs the teacher may have in the practice of language teaching and learning (Adopted from CELTT Module 1 Materials LAPIS-ELTIS, 2007).

1. Do you believe that what is taught is what is learnt?

Learning a language is not a simple process. Learners do not proceed from mastery of one form to mastery of the next. What most teachers notice is that learners fail to learn and forget a great deal of what is taught. Learners also learn things that have not been taught. For example, a learner may persist in saying 'My job is a lecturer', or 'What you want?' even when their teacher has taught them, 'I'm a lecturer' and 'What would you like?'. What learners produce spontaneously is often very different from when they are 'making' sentences in class in a carefully controlled environment.

Other factors such as intrinsic motivation and outside influences are often of greater importance than what we do in the classroom (Dornyei and Otto, 1998). This doesn't mean we shouldn't teach. There is plenty of evidence that shows classroom instruction can help us learn more efficiently, especially when learners are

given opportunities to experience and explore language (Tomlinson, 2003:18-22).

2. Do you believe that teachers should correct all the students' mistakes both in speaking and in writing?

If we take the elimination of errors as our priority, we are very likely to fail. In fact, it seems to be the case that an intense focus on eliminating errors can inhibit the developmental process. In order to expand our language we need to experiment with language, and as we learn more language, errors can often disappear by themselves without correction, (Spratt, Pulvernees & Williams, 2005:45). We need to think very carefully about when, what, and how to correct.

3. Do you believe that learning the language and learning about the culture are two different things?

Language and culture are very closely related. Positive attitudes and sensitivity towards the target culture are strongly associated with higher levels of motivation for learning the language (Ellis, 1997:75). Differences in human behavior around the world are also an interesting topic in itself. However, we should be careful to emphasize similarities as well as differences between people - so as not to make the native speaker seem an alien breed.

4. Do you believe that students should only do what the teacher sets them to do-otherwise they might learn bad English?

An important factor for many learners is feeling responsible for and in control of their learning. A student who listens to songs in English, reads comics or watches films in English outside class is likely to learn much faster than one who only does what they are asked to do.

Autonomous learning should be the main goal of teaching but it does not mean we make the student work alone. It involves encouraging learners to make decisions about what and when to learn and to make use of all available resources (Tomlinson, 2003:468)

5. Do you believe that using correct grammar is very important in speaking?

When teaching the skill of speaking there are many factors that contribute to successful communication and grammar is certainly one of them. However, giving too much prominence to grammar can prevent learners from developing fluency, and as discussed earlier, we may *know* how to form the third person singular in theory, but not be able to reproduce it in spontaneous speech.

Other features of speaking include:

- The awareness of the differences between formal and informal spoken language.
- An understanding of how spoken language uses shorter sentences, is less organized, and uses more 'vague' or non-specific language.
- An awareness of interaction strategies. E.g. sounding interested, expressing surprise, asking for

clarification, ways to get your message across when you lack vocabulary.

- Intelligible pronunciation.

Working on grammar alone is unlikely to produce an effective speaker of English. As Leather (2007) puts it,

It's important for elementary students to go beyond simple repetition and manipulation of form. They sometimes need to get away from mere "language practice" and to strive to communicate meaningfully about topics which really concern them. This will inevitably mean mistakes, and sometimes frustration. Both these are part of language learning and shouldn't be avoided. If as teachers we give good quality feedback on content as well as language, we will encourage our students to strive to create their own meanings through English.

6. Do you believe that using authentic listening is too difficult in the classroom? Is it better to listen to people speaking very slowly and clearly?

Learning a second language is more likely to be successful when learners are exposed to genuine samples of speech or discourse in the same way as when they are learning their first language. There are at least two reasons we use authentic listening materials in the class according to Field, (2002:244, in Richard & Renandya, 2002). First, spontaneous dialogues and conversations provide students with the 'rhythm of natural everyday English' which often cannot be found in scripted materials. Another reason is that authentic

passages where the language is beyond the students' level will bring about a listening experience much closer to 'a real-life one'. Thus, it is crucial for learners to be exposed to spoken texts where they understand only parts of what they hear.

7. Do you believe that students cannot assess the quality of their own work? This must be done by the teacher?

There are several reasons why self-assessment remains unpopular in Indonesia:

- traditional school culture does not promote student responsibility, student choice or expect learners to work without supervision;
- assessment is seen as being the *sole* responsibility of the teacher;
- learners have few or inappropriate strategies for self-assessment;
- learners sometimes lack self-esteem, especially female students.

Self-assessment is part of encouraging our learners to be autonomous learners. If we want our learners to take responsibility for their learning, then allowing them to be the judges of their own work is an important part of the process. In most cases it seems that self-assessment is a skill that has to be learned. We need to work out ways to give learners greater responsibility for their own progress; help them diagnose their strong and weak areas; and enable them to develop their own criteria for monitoring their progress.

8. Do you believe that reading aloud is a good way to practice speaking?

We normally speak when there is an information or opinion gap, i.e. when asking for or giving real information or finding out about the opinions of others. Purposeful and meaningful interaction is required for speaking to take place. Reading aloud does not constitute speaking. It is difficult to do well and there is evidence that reading aloud disrupts the reading process because it tends to take the reader's focus away from the meaning of what they are reading.

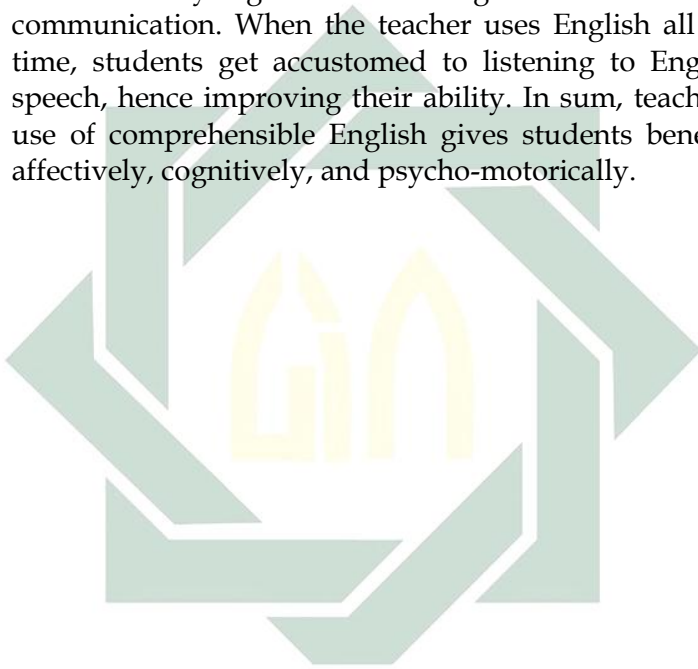
It can be argued that reading aloud has some value in terms of pronunciation; it gives you the opportunity to get your mouth around the words. But note: this is not the same as the kind of intonation and pronunciation we might use for conversation. Thus, we cannot say that we have given our students the opportunity to speak, simply because we ask them to read aloud.

9. Do you believe that teacher should always use English in the classroom?

Most teachers would say that their students do not understand if the teacher uses English all of the time. This is due to the fact that teachers do not simplify or modify their language adjusted according to the level of learners' competence. When the learners' ability is low, teachers should simplify their English by slowing down the speech rate, using simple vocabulary and structure, making clearer articulation, using a lot of repetitions, using gestures and other visual media. That is to make their speech more comprehensible to the learners.

Comprehensible input is effective to improve learners' language ability (Krashen, 1985).

In addition, when students understand teacher's use of English, they will be more motivated to learn English because they get the feeling of success in communication. When the teacher uses English all the time, students get accustomed to listening to English speech, hence improving their ability. In sum, teacher's use of comprehensible English gives students benefits affectively, cognitively, and psycho-motorically.



UNIT 2

TEACHING LISTENING

A. Why Teach Listening

Listening is one of the language skills naturally acquired before that of the other three skills. Babies can listen before they are able to speak. One-or-two--year-old children can speak but they cannot read. Learners of grade one elementary school may be able to read but they are not able to write. The natural order of the acquisition of language skills is listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

In the context of learning English as a foreign language, listening to the target language is supposed to be the most frequently used by learners in comparison to that of the other skills. Learners often listen to English utterances in their surrounding environments. They often listen to English songs on TV, on radios, from their MP-3 players, from their mobile phones, etc. When they are watching films or talk shows, or listening to English news on television, they also hear English sounds. At schools, they may listen to teachers' talk when the teachers use English. At airports, they may hear English announcements. In short, learners still often listen to English although it is in the environment of English as a foreign language.

Unlike the other skills, in such an environment, learners almost never speak English unless they meet foreign tourists. That hardly happens if they are not in tourist resorts, like Bali, for example. The most possible time to speak English is in the classrooms if the teachers

ask them using English. Reading English is little more frequent than speaking, but still less often than listening. Learners, with the exception of some families, almost never read English magazines, newspapers, books at homes. It is possible that they read English text books, but that is only when they do assignments. The least thing to do is writing. Learners of secondary level, generally speaking, never write English articles. They rarely write English letters, diary, emails, or short messages. The most possible is that they write English only when they do school exercises or homework.

Considering that listening is the most frequently done by learners, teaching listening needs to be given priority or more intensified. That is in addition to the fact that teaching listening is prescribed by the curriculum.

Listening is taught to serve several purposes: introducing new language, working on pronunciation, recycling target language, improving listening skills, assessing learners' ability, and providing knowledge of the world. In teaching listening, teachers can introduce new target language including phonological, lexical, grammatical, functional, and rhetorical aspects of the language. Listening activities can also be used to teach or work on pronunciation, e.g. to make learners recognize English sounds, stress, and intonation. Involved in the teaching and learning process of listening, learners recycle vocabulary, grammar, and functional expressions that have already been learned before. The lexical, grammatical, and functional items that have been known are reinforced and practiced, hence becoming more understood and acquired. By monitoring learners' involvement in listening activities,

teachers are also able to assess learners' current perceptive ability of the target language. The purposes of teaching listening are schematized in Figure 1 (in the following page).

The main aim of teaching listening is to improve learners' listening skills, i.e. listening for gist (general ideas) and listening for specific information. These are represented by the tasks and activities done by the learners during the teaching and learning process of listening. Finally, by listening to English texts, learners can improve their knowledge about the world and add experiences. This is especially true when the texts are authentic materials, taken from the real world, not specifically designed for teaching and learning purposes, such as radio or TV news, political speeches, and scientific presentations in seminars or conferences.

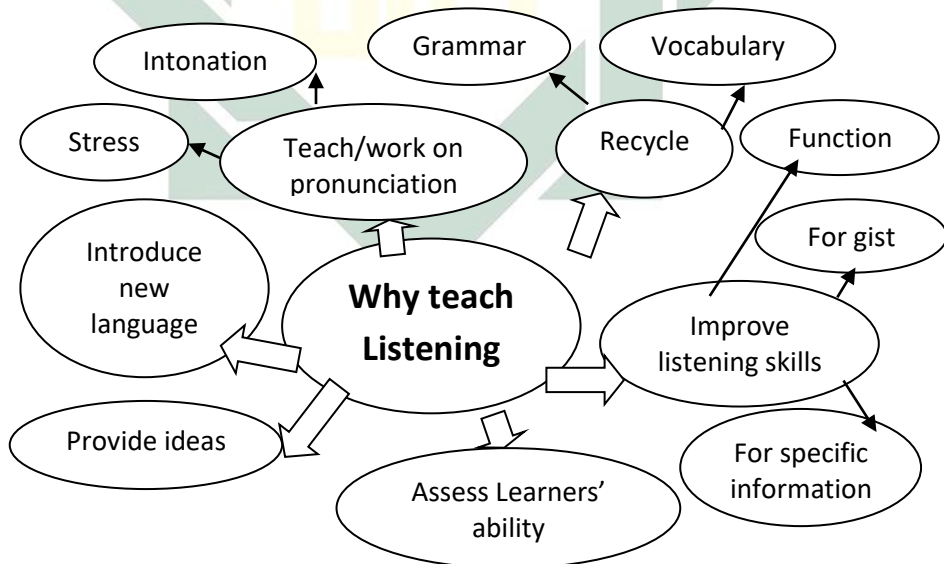


Figure 1 Purposes of Teaching Listening

B. Listening Materials

There are basically two kinds of materials that can be used for teaching and learning purposes: authentic materials and pedagogic materials (Tomlinson, 2004). Authentic materials are those which are taken from real life communication and not designed for language teaching and learning purposes, for example: songs, news, announcements, speeches, films, TV programs, records, conversations, recorded interviews, teacher talk, radio programs, talk shows, presentations, and advertisements.

Although they are not specifically designed for pedagogic purposes, those materials can be brought to class to teach listening. In using authentic materials, however, there are several considerations (Adopted from CELTT Module 2 Materials LAPIS-ELTIS, 2007) that should be taken into account.

- ◆ Are the materials up to date?
- ◆ Are the materials likely to motivate your learners? (Are they inherently interesting?)
- ◆ Do the materials have credibility? (Will the learners feel they come from a believable source?)
- ◆ Are the materials culturally appropriate, or do they provide an interesting view of another culture?
- ◆ Can learners relate to the materials on a personal level?
- ◆ Can the materials be used with classes of various levels of ability?

- ◆ Are the materials quick, easy and cheap to prepare?
- ◆ Do the materials provide a good model of *usable* English?
- ◆ Are the materials flexible? (Can they be used in different ways?)
- ◆ Are the topics appropriate with the level of the learners?
- ◆ Are the contents of the materials appropriate with the curriculum?

Authentic materials are often interesting to learners because they reflect real life phenomena. Among the disadvantages, however, is that they are usually too challenging because they are natural linguistic data which are not modified or simplified. Therefore, in order to make them usable, the tasks need to be adjusted according to the level of the learners, on the one hand, and the teacher should provide the learners with sufficient help prior to using the materials, on the other.

Pedagogic materials are those which are designed for teaching and learning purposes, such as text books, learners' work sheets, supplementary readers, abridged novels, simple English, etc. The main characteristic of pedagogic materials is that they are modified and adjusted according to the level of the learners' ability. There is usually a gradual development from simpler to more complex, in the length of the texts, in the use of lexical and grammatical items, and/or in the familiarity of topics to the learners. In sum, they are strictly controlled in order to be appropriate with the demands of the curriculum.

Pedagogic materials are designed to go in line with the curriculum; and hence, relevant with the learners' level of cognitive development. Among the disadvantages is that they are often too rigid and artificial; thus, less interesting. However, this low level of interest can be compensated by their quality of comprehensibility. Comprehensible materials are supposed to be effective not only to promote acquisition (Krashen, 1985) but also to increase motivation. When learners manage to understand the materials, they will be more motivated to learn further. In contrast, when they fail to understand the materials, learners tend to be frustrated and likely quit making further efforts. The teacher, therefore, should strive hard to exert any strategies to create conditions in such a way that all the materials presented, tasks done, and activities conducted are comprehensible and manageable to the learners.

The wisest way a teacher should do is considering the use of varied materials in teaching listening. The use of variety of materials, both authentic and pedagogic, is beneficial in some ways. Different texts have different generic aspects. They contain different lexico-grammars, diverse textual structures, and various sociolinguistic features. To understand such varied texts requires divergent strategies. When the teacher uses a wide-range of materials, learners not only perceive a lot of input but also practice numerous sub-skills. In addition, that may also eliminate boredom.

C. Strategies of Teaching Listening

After preparing the materials, there are two things that should be taken into account by the teacher: the

procedures of teaching and the selection of activities. There are various procedures that can be implemented by the teacher in teaching listening. All are based on the prevalent teaching and learning conditions. In this part, the writer would like to exemplify some steps or procedures of teaching a listening lesson.

- a) The teacher generates interest in the topic by, for example, asking the class about their experience of or knowledge about the topic.
- b) The teacher presents some key vocabulary in the listening text - for example, by giving or eliciting a definition.
- c) The teacher sets a gist listening task - for example, *Who is talking to whom, about what, and why?* She then plays a short section of the recorded text, and checks the answers,
- d) The teacher sets a task that requires listening for specific details. She plays the complete recording, checks the answers, and replays sections if necessary.
- e) Learners read the transcript of and listen to the recording at the same time.
- f) The teacher focuses on features of grammar or vocabulary that occur in the recording, e.g. by asking learners to do a gap-fill. (Adapted from CELTT Module 3 Materials, LAPIS-ELTIS, 2007)

Those are alternative procedures that can be implemented in the listening classrooms and teachers should feel free to do other steps or procedures as well. What is more important is the logic underlying that order. Steps a) and b) belong to pre-listening activities in which

the teacher provides help to learners before they actually do the listening practice. Step a) logically precedes b) because the former is more general in nature, i.e. preparing learners to have psychological readiness to receive the lesson and cognitive preparedness towards the topic. It activates learners' advance organizer (Brown, 2000) to anticipate the coming topic. The latter, furthermore, is more specific focusing on the vocabulary existent in the text intended to provide learners with some knowledge before they really deal with it. The activation of this prior knowledge is expected to facilitate learners in understanding the recording.

Steps c) and d) are categorized as whilst activities. They are the main listening activities to improve learners' listening sub-skills, i.e. understanding general ideas and specific information. Again, in these steps, the underlying logic is consistent with the previous. That is the gradation from general to more specific. Understanding more detailed and more specific messages or information is easier when one has acquired the comprehension of more general covering ideas. The analogy is that one can easily identify bits and pieces more easily when one knows the whole object where those bits and pieces are the parts of. We cannot easily know that a tail is a tail if we cannot see that it belongs to a mouse.

Stages e) and f) are post-listening activities. The purpose of these activities is for the learners to reinforce knowledge of and work on pronunciation and to recycle and/or to improve their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. This goes in line with the fact that besides

practicing to improve skills, listening lesson can also be a means to increase knowledge of linguistic components.

The following section presents another alternative procedure, minute-to-minute steps which are more detailed, but still they follow the same principles as above.

- a) do a 'warm up' on the topic
- b) set some 'gist' questions for the learners to answer
- c) play the tape once
- d) check answers to the 'gist' questions
- e) set some 'specific information' questions for the learners to answer
- f) play the tape once or twice again
- g) check the answers to the 'specific information' questions
- h) eyeball the transcript
- i) use the topic or language points from the transcript for an 'extension' activity using other skills such as speaking or writing.

A listening lesson may consist of the following procedures as well. These are even more detailed and complete steps. Despite the fact, however, they are still consistent with the general principles explained previously, a three-phase technique consisting of pre-, whilst- and post-activities. Teachers may find them useful as detailed guide to consider in conducting a listening lesson.

- a) Set the scene. Create interest in the topic. Introduce the background. If possible, try and make it personal to the learners. Use pictures, mime, drawings, real things, music etc. Teach any vocabulary the learners need to know in order to do the next stage successfully.

- b) Give learners an easy task. Something that will check their understanding of the text as a whole and will stop them trying to work out every word. Check that they understand what they have to do.
- c) Play the tape through once, or get the learners to read the text straight through. Set a time limit to discourage learners from wasting time worrying about individual words.
- d) Ask learners to compare their answers in pairs.
- e) Learners tell you their answers.
- f) Hand out a more difficult task.
- g) Play the tape again, stop it occasionally to let learners write if necessary or ask learners to read the text again.
- h) Learners to compare their answers in pairs. Walk round and see if they got most of the answers right. If they are having problems, play the relevant section of the tape again, or get them to reread the relevant section of the text.
- i) Learners tell you their answers.
- j) Do a further activity based on the materials (Writing, discussion, role play, vocabulary, or grammar work) (Adapted from CELTT Module 3 Materials, LAPIS-ELTIS, 2007).

D. Some Listening Activities or Tasks

The activities or tasks which accompany a listening text do not always need to be the same. The more variety a teacher provides for the learners, the more practice s/he is giving them. Some of the activities listed below are ideal for use with lower level learners or with more difficult texts. For example, comprehension questions usually

require learners to have a very good understanding of the meaning of the listening text. However, matching halves of sentences requires less thorough understanding of the meaning. Therefore, when a teacher is preparing her/his own materials, the type of tasks chosen is important. The following are different kinds of listening activities or tasks that can be used:

- Finding and correcting mistakes
- Matching--halves of sentences or words and definitions or words and pictures and so on
- Ordering information
- Un-jumbling or reordering words in sentences
- Completing missing information in a table
- True or False questions
- Gap-fill
- Multiple choice
- Comprehension questions
- Ticking boxes or words in a list
- Completing blanks in sentences
- Answering open and/or closed questions
- Making diagram based on the recording
- Predicting what the text is going to be about
- Jigsaw listening
- Making a sketch
- Filling out a form
- Finding out which picture is being described

There are still other activities or tasks that can be conducted by the teacher in teaching listening as follows (Adapted from CELTT Module 3 Materials, LAPIS-ELTIS, 2007):

Who Said What?

In a conversation between two or more speakers, teacher can write down some of the sentences and ask the learners to identify which speaker said them. This is best suited to listening texts where the voices are easy to distinguish (for example, a man and a woman, or people with different accents). The teacher needs to ensure that the learners know which name belongs to which voice while doing this activity.

What will happen next?

Teacher can often make the listening more interesting for the learners by stopping the tape and asking them to guess what will happen next or what the speaker's answer will be, etc.

Which words do you hear?

This is a good exercise for developing the learners' ability to identify single words in a stream of speech. Teacher prepares a worksheet containing a list of words, some of which are mentioned in the tape and some of which are not, and learners have to tick every time they hear a word on the worksheet. This technique is especially suitable for listening passages which include many examples of the same categories of word.

Jigsaw Listening

In this exercise, learners split into two groups and listen to either two different texts or (more usually) two different parts of the same text. They then get together in

pairs (one student from Group A, one from Group B) and ask each other questions to find out the information they do not have. This kind of activity is very good for practicing question forms. It is also good for giving learners control over the use of the cassette recorder and therefore the speed of the activity.

How many words do you hear?

- Select a suitable recording. The sentences should not be too long. Generally, a series of discrete sentences works best.
- Play the sentences one by one. Play each one twice if you feel it is necessary.
- Leave a long enough gap between playing sentences for learners to write down the words they hear.
- After the learners have heard all the sentences go through the answers with them.
- Play the sentences again as you go thru the answers.
- Hand out the transcript or show it on an OHP.

Repeating

- Select a suitable recording that you have been using for gist/top-down activities.
- Ask the whole class to repeat after the tape
- Play a very short piece of the recording, and the class repeat
- (repeat)
- Nominate an individual learner to repeat
- Play a very short piece of the recording, and the learner repeats
- Nominate another learner to repeat

- Play another very short piece of the recording, and the learner repeats
- Focus not only on words but on intonation and other elements of pronunciation

Transcribing / Dictogloss

- Select a short recording, either a dialogue or monologue
- Ask the class to elect a Tape Captain
- Put Tape Captain in charge of the tape machine
- Divide the class into small groups
- The class instruct the tape captain to play the tape in short chunks
- In groups, the learners transcribe the listening text.
- If they can't catch a word or phrase, they leave a blank
- At the end, they try to fill in any blanks they have

What's the next word?

- Divide the class into groups
- Select a suitable recording that you have been using for gist/top-down activities.
- Play the tape in short chunks
- Stop the tape (without warning) and ask learners to write down the next word
- Elicit their answers
- Resume the tape to see who (if anyone) is correct
- (repeat)
- (repeat)

Shout, 'Stop!' when you hear the word

- Select a suitable recording, perhaps a news story
- Choose a commonly unstressed word (eg, *a, the, 'll, to*)

- Tell the class to yell, 'stop!' when they hear the chosen word
- Play the recording
- When someone yells 'stop!', stop the tape
- Give a point if they were correct
- Handout the transcript and re-play the tape

E. General Suggestions for Using Audio Recordings

This part presents some tips on things that should be taken into account by teachers when they conduct listening activities using audio recordings.

- Provide some contextual information (who is talking, where they are...) as this helps to compensate for lack of visual information.
- Pre-teach some vocabulary
- Set some 'while listening' questions. To begin with they should focus on the gist of the text
- Play the recording right through and let learners check answers to the pre-set task. If necessary, play again.
- Set a more demanding task, requiring more intensive listening, such as listening for detail, or inferring speakers' attitudes, intentions
- Distribute copies of the transcript of the recording and re-play while learners read the transcript. This allows the learners to clear up any remaining problems, and also to match what they hear to what they see. This is also a good opportunity to work on pronunciation!
(Adapted from *An A - Z of ELT* by Scott Thornbury, 2000)

F. Developing Learners' Receptive Skills

The following points are useful for teachers to make some reflections on what they understand about the principles of teaching receptive skills. First, teachers should read each statement. Then, they decide the extent of their agreement to the statement. Finally, they can check if their decision is theoretically reasonable by reading some key explanations following these statements.

1. We listen or read in different ways depending on the text type.
agree _____ disagree
2. Elementary learners cannot cope with authentic texts.
agree _____ disagree
3. It is a good idea to introduce a text with “Okay, just listen to this”, or “Read this.”
agree _____ disagree
4. Multiple choice questions are a good way of checking understanding.
agree _____ disagree
5. Post reading/listening activities can be used to focus on structures or vocabulary you wish to highlight.
agree _____ disagree
6. Learners should be encouraged to understand every word of a text.
agree _____ disagree

7. Extensive reading/listening practice is more important than focusing on sub-skills.

agree

disagree

Explanation of Developing Learners' Receptive Skills

1. We listen or read in different ways depending on the text type.

Teachers will probably agree. Anyway, it's true. Point out that the way you read a novel – page one to the end – is very different from the way you read the yellow pages. The way you read a menu is very different from the way you read an email.

Listening is a bit less obvious but you could illustrate by pointing out the difference between listening to a TV news show (passive) and listening to your learners in class (active--with a purpose).

2. Elementary learners cannot cope with authentic texts.

You may disagree. There are some authentic texts that can easily be understood by learners, such as menus, sales fliers, text messages, announcements, and songs. Listening to teachers' talk, with the assumption of teachers' using simple codes, exerting all strategies to make it comprehensible, e.g. using pictures, gestures, mimics, with slow rate of speech, simple vocabulary and grammar, and repeated, learners of any levels are likely able to understand easily.

3. It is a good idea to introduce a text with “Okay, just listen to this”, or “Read this.”

You absolutely disagree. Generally it is a good idea to get learners to listen or read with a purpose. In the real world, people usually have some kind of purpose when they listen (even if it is just “for pleasure” sometimes). If the teacher directly instructs learners to do the listening or reading activities without prior introductory remark, learners might wonder “What should I read/listen to? Why should I read/listen to it?” There is not point in reading or listening without any purpose. Besides, some preliminary remarks are likely needed to facilitate learners comprehend texts.

4. Multiple choice (MC) questions are a good way of checking understanding.

You may agree or disagree, depending on your view. The main advantage of MC questions is that they are easy to mark. Two difficulties with MCs: a) learners do not necessarily need to understand the text in order to get a right answer, b) they do not require productive use of the language. MCs, with a 1-in-4 chance of guessing correctly, are perhaps better than T/F questions, where there is a 50/50 chance of being right.

5. Post reading/listening activities can be used to focus on structures or vocabulary you wish to highlight.

You agree. This is a common aim of post-reading or post-listening activities. In this way, listening or reading activities serve twofold goals, as an end to improve

language skills and as a means to understand, recycle, and reinforce language components.

6. Learners should be encouraged to understand every word of a text.

You may disagree. Rarely do native speakers understand every word of a spoken text. A written text may also contain words that are unfamiliar to a native speaker. L2 texts will contain many unfamiliar words. Emphasize that language is a means of communicating a message. If you can understand the message, you do not need to get every word.

7. Extensive reading/listening practice is more important than focusing on sub-skills.

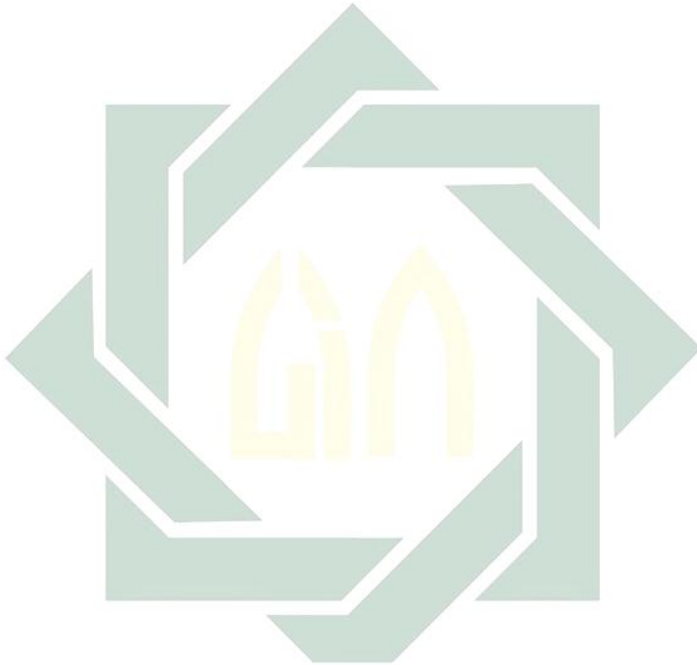
You may agree or disagree, depending on your view. The best answer is both are necessary. Practice should usually be focused. Looking at L1 learning might be interesting. It is obvious that, as children, the way we first learn our L1 is by extensive listening practice. However, it does not seem to work that way for L2. Anyway, reading is a different matter, and most school-kids do some work on sub-skills like word-identification, cohesion, and punctuation.

G. Analysis Sheet - Listening Lesson

The check list below is useful for teachers to consider when they plan and evaluate the implementation of a listening lesson (Adopted from CELTT Module 3 Materials LAPIS-ELTIS, 2007).

1. Activities		
Pre-Listening	Yes	No
Does the pre-listening activity focus the learners' attention on the topic?		
Does the pre-listening activity provide help for learners?		
While-Listening	Yes	No
Is the while-listening task challenging enough?		
Is the while-listening task too challenging?		
Does the while-listening task focus on the main teaching point of the lesson? (vocabulary associated with work)		
Post-Listening	Yes	No
Are the post-listening tasks challenging enough?		
Are the post-listening tasks too challenging?		
Do the activities lead to the achievement of the teaching aims?		
2. The lesson as a whole	Yes	No
Is there a natural progression from one activity to the next?		
Is there any visual help for learners?		
Is there a variety of tasks?		

Are the activities culturally acceptable?		
Is there a variety of interaction patterns?		
Do the learners get opportunities to use (produce) the target language?		



UNIT 3

TEACHING SPEAKING

Speaking is a language skill which might be the least frequently used by learners in the context of EFL (English as a Foreign Language). In their daily life, learners, generally speaking, hardly ever speak English at homes, at schools, or in their surrounding community; except that they live close to tourist resorts, like Bali, for example. So, what is the point of learning to speak English? This cynical question seems to be too practical rather than reasonable.

It quite makes sense that when one is said to have ability in a certain language, the ability must refer to that of speaking. Hardly does it refer to that of listening, or reading, or writing. Although one is able to understand someone's speaking English (having listening ability), or to comprehend a text (having reading comprehension ability), if one is not able to speak English, people will normally say that one does not have English ability. In other words, language competence is often reduced to the ability to speak. Therefore, it is theoretically reasonable that speaking is important to learn.

A. Overcoming Speaking Problems

Speaking is a complicated matter. These are some problems that may exist in a speaking class and suggested

solutions (Adopted from CELTT Module 4, LAPIS-ELTIS, 2007).

1) My students don't know what to say. Students have to have something to say, i.e. they need to know about and have an interest in the topic.

- Use familiar topics e.g. personal experiences, interests (e.g. hobbies etc)
- Let students suggest the topics.
- Find out about the students' interests through questionnaires learning diaries etc.
- Consider age appropriacy – don't expect teenagers to have opinions about everything. (Role-play can be useful in that they can present the opinions of others)
- Introduce the topic *first* with reading or listening texts so that they have some ideas. Drawing, visualization and drama activities are also very effective ways of preparing learners to talk.

2) My students don't know how to organize what to say. Students need to know how to structure what they want to say (e.g. how to tell a story, give a presentation, participate in a conversation).

- Provide a model of the type of talk they are to do through listening.
- Analyze the structure of the type of talk and give them a framework.
- Help them plan what they want to say.

3) My students lack the grammar and vocabulary for speaking activities.

Students need the language to express what they want to say. They need to use English

- Provide language input before the activity e.g. via a reading or listening
- Monitor as the students are preparing and feed in language they ask for.
- Encourage peer support at the planning stage – they can ask other students how to say things.
- Focus on useful language after listening to a model
- Let them try the speaking activity, note language problem areas, feed in the language, and have them repeat the activity
- Establish clear rules that English must be used and explain why. Have an ‘observer student’ who checks that this is the case.

4) My students won't speak English in class. Students need to feel comfortable with expressing themselves in front of others.

- Make speaking in English the norm in your classes.
- Pay attention to creating good group dynamics
- Use pair and group work so that students can build confidence speaking in front of their peers
- Give preparation and rehearsal time
- Give praise for what has been done well.
- Don't interrupt students to correct them, but provide support if necessary

5) My students don't see the point of speaking activities. Students should perceive the purpose of the activity. It should be fun, interesting and motivating to participate in.

- Focus on developing the skill rather than just practicing it e.g. through focusing on discourse features such as 'backchannels.' Backchannels are the brief verbal responses that a listener uses while another individual is talking, such as mm-hmm, ok, yeah, and oh wow. Listener's response can also be non-verbal, for instance head nods.
- Give feedback on performance – a correction stage after the activity.
- Ensure that speaking counts in your assessment of the students.
- Use a variety of speaking task types. Make sure each task has a purpose/goal e.g. guessing if something is true or false, an information gap, the need to share information to solve a problem, a need to listen (a task for listeners).

The most important thing in teaching Speaking is how to make learners speak. That requires that teacher always give encouragement, create conducive, secure, unthreatening situation, and provide tasks which stimulate learners to practice using the target language orally.

B. Speaking Games

1. '**The Noisy Angkot**' (adapted from CELTT Module 4, LAPIS, ELTIS 2007). *Angkot* is a public transport in which passengers sit in two rows facing each other.

1. Arrange the participants in two rows of chairs facing each other (*angkot* style). If there are 12 participants in the class, there will be two rows of 6. If there are 14 participants in the class, there will be two rows of 7 facing each other, etc. If there are more than 14 participants it may be necessary to use two classrooms.
2. Tell the participants they are going to argue with the person facing them. They have to agree or disagree with a statement.
3. One side of the '*angkot*' have to agree with the statement. The other side of the '*angkot*' have to disagree with the statement.
4. Place the statements (on cut ups) on the floor of the '*angkot*' between each pair of participants. Ask them to look at their statement and make sure they understand it. If they don't, explain what it means.

agree	agree	agree	agree	agree	agree	agree
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

statement statement statement statement statement
statement statement

dis- agree	dis- agree	dis- agree	dis- agree	dis- agree	dis- agree	dis- agree
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5. Tell them they will have three minutes to argue with their partner about the statement. Those on the

agree side have to agree with it. Those on the disagree side have to disagree. The agreeers start. The disagreeers counter.

6. For the next three minutes there should be a lot of noise. After three minutes ring a bell to stop the arguments.
7. Next, ask all the participants to move clockwise (left) and sit in the next chair. Those at the end of the row will change over to the other side. The statements stay in the same place on the floor.
8. Now they will be facing a different partner, and discussing a different statement. Repeat steps 5 and 6.
9. Keep repeating the three-minute arguments and shifting clockwise each time. If all goes well, they should get to argue all the statements and with all different classmates.

Alternative topics of statements to discuss

It is better to be smart than beautiful.

It is better to be the eldest child than a younger child.

Everyone should do sport at school.

Teachers should not punish their students.

Television has a negative influence on children.

Teenagers should be allowed to vote.

It is better to live in the countryside than in a big city.

It is better to live near the sea than in the mountains.

Foreign tourists have a negative influence on Indonesia.

Primary school children should not have homework.

The rainy season is the best time of year.

2. The Most Important Thing in a Job

Work in groups of four. Here are ten things to think about when choosing a job. Choose five that you think are the most important, then rank them 1 - 5 with the most important one first. Giving oral argument is the main aim of this task.

- _____ Friendly colleagues
- _____ Chances for promotion
- _____ Salary
- _____ Interesting work
- _____ Getting a pension
- _____ The work environment (clean, good facilities, etc)
- _____ Learning new skills
- _____ Being close to where you live
- _____ Social status
- _____ Security

When you have finished, compare your choices with another group. Were they different?

Useful language:

"I think A is more important than B, because ..."

"A is less important than B, because ..."

"C is the most important thing ..."

Alternative language games which can be used as speaking activities (From Ted Power: <http://www.btinternet.com/~ted.power/games.htm>)

1. Word Prompts

Put students in two face-to-face rows called A and B. Each student in row A should have a partner in B. Distribute the list A to each student in row A, and B to those in row B.

Team A	Team B
Students from Team (B) have to guess the words on your LIST. Before each guess, say a word which will help Team (B) to guess correctly. But DO NOT SAY THE WORD ON YOUR LIST.	Students from Team (A) have to guess the words on your LIST. Before each guess, say a word which will help Team (A) to guess correctly. But DO NOT SAY THE WORD ON YOUR LIST.
YOUR LIST (Team B must guess)	YOUR LIST (Team A must guess)
A1 horse	B1 car
A2 window	B2 Big Ben
A3 elephant	B3 cup
A4 England	B4 floor
A5 teacher	B5 kangaroo

A6 London	B6 lemon
A7 river	B7 Russia
A8 book	B8 ice cream
A9 Margaret Thatcher	B9 Micky Mouse
A10 karate	B10 bath

2. Guessing Nouns via "Is it + adjective" Questions

Students are put in 4 groups: A, B, C, and D. Each member of the groups is given a card correspondingly. Each group asks the opposing groups yes/no questions in order to guess the words in their cards. The team being asked should answer using only yes, no, or maybe; no further information is given.

Guessing Games: Vocabulary. Questions with ADJECTIVES	
Group A	Questions to ask opposing team(s)
1. chair	<i>Ask YES/NO questions:</i> Is it big / round / square / rectangular? Is there one in this room?
2. bus	

3. head	<p>Can we eat it? Is it made of wood / plastic / metal?</p> <p><i>Ask your own questions</i></p>
4. bicycle	
5. computer	
6. chocolate	
Group B	Questions to ask opposing team(s)
1. tree	<p><i>Ask YES/NO questions:</i> Is it small/yellow/light/dark/circular? Have you one in your house / country? Do you like it? Is it used every day?</p> <p><i>Ask your own questions</i></p>
2. shoe	
3. tea	
4. knife	
5. finger	
6. button	
Group C	Questions to ask opposing team(s)

1. bra	<p><i>Ask YES/NO questions:</i> Is it larger than a chair? Can I see one now? Do you find it indoors or outdoors? Are there a lot of them in this school?</p> <p><i>Ask your own questions:</i></p>
2. pen	
3. mouse	
4. coffee	
5.jumbo jet	
6.mobile phone	
Group D	Questions to ask opposing team(s)
1. cat	<p><i>Ask YES/NO questions:</i> Is it hard / soft / high / tall / low? Is it liquid or solid? Do I see one every day? Have you got one in your house / with you?</p> <p><i>Ask your own questions:</i></p>
2. house	
3. gate	
4. guitar	
5. sugar	
6. washing machine	

3. Market trader: guess the categories (I can sell + LIST)

Each student has a turn of saying "I'm a market trader and I can sell...." The person who knows the categories of objects (Teacher or Student) gives feedback (*Yes, you can* or *No, you can't*). The students must guess the category, either call it out or write it down after a reasonable number of examples have been given. E.g.

Ss: I'm a market trader and I can sell (camcorders) (compact disks) (televisions).

T: That's right. You can.

Ss: I'm a market trader and I can sell (steam engines) (saucepans) (guitars)

T: No you can't.

Other possible restrictions

1. objects must belong to the same category (lexical sets)
2. must be in the room
3. must be made of special material/must include wood or metal
4. must be objects you can grow, etc.

4. Comparisons: How is XXX like YYY?

Students are put in 4 groups: A, B, C, and D. Each member of the groups is given a card correspondingly. Each group asks the opposing groups "How is X like Y?" "How does X differ from Y?" The other group answers.

Group A			
X	Y	X	Y

1. milk	cheese	3. café	restaurant
2. computer	television	4. umbrella	sunshade
Group B			
X	Y	X	Y
1. kettle	teapot	3. doctor	dentist
2. moustache	beard	4. cooker	fridge
Group C			
X	Y	X	Y
1. horse	dog	3. beer	whisky
2. sock	stocking	4. wristwatch	egg-timer
Group D			
X	Y	X	Y

1. ice	snow	3. dictionary	encyclo p aedia
2. chemist	pharmacist	4. record	compact disk

5. The verb BLIP. Guess the verb

Each student is given a VERB. (See that it is suitable for the level of the class). In pairs or as a whole class, discover the VERB through QUESTIONS. The nonsense word "BLIP" should be substituted for the target VERB.

Write sample QUESTIONS on the board

When / Where / Why / How do you blip?

Can you blip someone / something / somewhere?

Do you often blip?

Did you blip yesterday?

Are you blipping now?

Are you going to blip this weekend?

Have you blipped since you arrived in England?

Do you like blipping?

Do you blip with your hands?

If I saw you blipping, would you be embarrassed?

The aim of the game is not to guess the meaning of the word "Blip" straight away. When you think you know the meaning of the word "Blip", you could ask further questions which make the meaning of the word "Blip" clear

to the rest of the class or which amuse the student who is answering the questions.

Sample Verbs

cook	live	cry	love	dance
read	draw	run	dream	shout
drink	sing	drive	sleep	eat
swim	fight	talk	fish	think
fly	undress	jump	worry	kiss
argue	paint	bathe	plan	complain
rest	diet	scream	explore	sew
fidget	smile	translate	hesitate	understand
iron	vacuum	joke	whisper	knit
win	move	yell	write	zigzag

6. Guess the ADVERB

One student goes out of the room. The rest of the class think of an adverb or the teacher selects one and writes it on the board for everybody to see. It is rubbed off

the board before the student outside returns. The returned student asks a variety of questions to different students. They all answer in the manner suggested by the adverb. Alternatively, the returned student can ask members of the class to do things. They then have to perform the actions in the manner suggested by the adverb. After hearing a sample of answers or observing a sample of actions performed by different students, the student who originally left the classroom is then asked to guess the adverb.

quickly	slowly	noisily	quietly	angrily
politely	sadly	happily	sleepily	shyly
loudly	rudely	politely	nervously	bravely
briefly	anxiously	hesitantly	calmly	lovingly
wisely	ungram- matically	warmly	coldly	timidly

7. The Preposition Game

The teacher thinks of a room of a house and a hiding-place in which to hide an object.

(1) I've hidden YOUR BIRTHDAY PRESENT and today is YOUR BIRTHDAY!

Ss: Have you put it _____?

(2) I hid my mother's **Christmas present** LAST CHRISTMAS!

Ss: Did you put it _____?

(3) I'm going to hide my brother's **Christmas present** NEXT CHRISTMAS!

Ss: Are you going to put it _____?

(4) EVERY CHRISTMAS, my uncle hides my present!

Ss: Does he put it _____?

Practice different tenses. A student can choose a hiding-place and the rest of the class can ask the questions. Alternatively, students can work in pairs.

8. Classroom observation

Seat TWO students at the front of the class facing the white/black board with the other students looking on. The two students are both given a chance to answer each question and they are awarded points for correct answers.

Sample Questions

1. How many windows / tables / chairs / students are there?
2. What are their names?
3. Who is sitting next to Z / between X and Y / opposite X / on the left / on the right?
4. What is (s)he wearing? / What color is Z's shirt.

Alternatively, seat students in pairs back to back and issue them with a checklist of vocabulary for describing physical appearance and clothing:

Height tall/short	Build well-built	Age middle-aged	Hair style curly
Hair length long	Eyes large-eyed	Shape of head oval	Complexion fresh
Article of clothing	Material	Pattern	Color
shirt / skirt etc	dark green	plain /checked	light blue

Ask them to describe each other using suitable words from each category. "I spy with my little eye - something beginning with + letter ABC"

The objects sighted must be in view of all the students in the classroom.

9. Simon says (Action verbs + Parts of the body)

Students should only obey the commands if you preface each one with *Simon says*. If you omit the preface *Simon says* any student who obeys the command can no longer participate in the game. The last student to remain in the game is the winner.

Simon says: "hands up", "hands down", "thumbs up", "thumbs down", "fingers up", "fingers down".

Simon says: "touch your eyes / ears / nose / mouth with the forefinger / middle finger / ring finger / little finger / of your (right)(left) hand.

Simon says: "put your right hand / left hand / both hands on your right / left knee."

Simon says: "shut / open your eyes", "stand up / sit down", "stand on your right / left leg".

Simon says: "bend your knees / body", "straighten your knees / body".

Simon says: "fold your arms", "put your arms by your side".

Simon says: "wave your right hand", "STOP", "jump up and down", "STOP".

Simon says: "point at the ceiling / floor with the forefinger/ middle finger / ring finger / little finger / of your right / left hand.

10. Telegrams / Messages / Anagrams

Telegrams / Messages

Each student tries to write a telegram (or short e-mail message!) using the letters of their name as the initial letters of the words e.g. TED = Treasure Every Day.

Place-names can also be used:

LONDON: Living On Nothing Drives One Nuts.

ENGLAND: Every Nice Girl Loves A Non-alcoholic Drink.

TOKYO: Thinking Of Kissing Yoko Ono.

JAPAN: Jokes About Politicians Are Normal.

STOCKHOLM: Sexy Toyoto Owners Can Kiss Happily On London Motorways

SWEDEN: Sociable Women Eat Doughnuts Every Night

Anagrams

Reorder these letters to make English words

Professions: Rotdoc, Motspan, Rengienc, Ramfer, Chinamec

Rooms of the house: Raggae, Tacit, Volingimor, Chitnek, Roathbom

11. Hangman

This is a popular game. It is very useful at low levels and the words which students have to guess can be restricted to areas of vocabulary (i.e. themes or semantic sets) or new words introduced in a particular lesson.

- Write some dashes on board (according to the number of letters of the word to guess)
- Ask learners to say letters
- If the letters are used in the word, they are put on the dashes; if they are not, draw a hangman line by line

12. Find your partner (Stick self adhesive labels to Ss' backs)

The teacher prepares SELF-ADHESIVE TYPEWRITER ADDRESS LABELS (which can be purchased in rolls to stick on the backs of all the students in the class). Each label contains a real person's name or the name of a character from fiction or television cartoons. Each named person should have a natural partner, for example if you write a label with the name ROMEO, there should also be a label with the name JULIET stuck on somebody's back. If you have an odd number of students

in your class, stick a label on your own back, but let the students do the questioning.

Questions must be of the type that can either be answered with YES or No. E.g.

Am I man or a woman? Alive or dead? European or American? Real or fictitious?

Am I a character from a cartoon or a book? Am I rich? Am I famous?

Have I been in the news recently? Am I someone from your country? Britain?

Do I work in sport / music / entertainment / the cinema / the theatre?

ROMEO	JULIET	TOM the cat	JERRY the mouse
POPEYE	OLIVE OIL	Prince Philip	Queen Elizabeth II
Micky Mouse	Minnie Mouse	Stan Laurel	Oliver Hardy
King Juan Carlos	Queen Sofia	André Agassi	Steffi Graff
Nelson Mandella	Winnie Mandella	John Lennon	Yoko Ono
Richard	Elizabeth	Bonnie	Clyde

Burton	Taylor	(gangster)	(gangster)
Tarzan	Jane (jungle girl)	The Lone Ranger	Tonto (cowboy)
Prince Charles	Princess Diana	Cindarella	Prince Charming

13. What's my nationality? Who am I?

Student (A) thinks of a **nationality**

Student (B) asks:

"Do you wear _____?"

"Do you drink / eat _____?"

"Do you play (sport) or (game)?"

"Do you play the (musical instrument)?"

"Does it rain / snow a lot there?"

"Is it very hot / very cold there?"

"Do the people like _____ there?"

"Are the people there tall / short / romantic / hard-working / rich / poor?"

Student (A) thinks of a **famous person, fictitious character or cartoon character?**

Student (B) asks YES/NO questions as in 12. **Find Your Partner.**

14. What's my job? (from open lists) Guessing games (closed lists)

Questions for the guessing

Do you work indoors or outdoors? / in a trade or profession? / in a factory or an office?

Do you work with your hands? Do you wear a uniform?

Do you work long hours?

Do you work from 9-5? Do you work regular hours? Do you work at weekends?

Do you work with people or machines? Are you in a service industry?

Do you sell something? Do you earn a lot of money? Must you have good qualifications to do your job?

Jobs

GROUP 1			
1. police officer	2. nurse	3. farmer	4. shopkeeper
5. scientist	6. artist	7. princess	8. dressmaker
9. civil engineer	10. bricklayer	11. caretaker	12. accountant
GROUP 2			
1. singer	2. cook	3. secretary	4. student
5. driver	6. engineer	7. president	8. painter
9.	10.	11.	12.

chiropracist	fishmonger	receptionist	mathematician
GROUP 3			
1. actor	2. teacher	3. manager	4. soldier
5. gardener	6. musician	7. writer	8. chemist
9. social worker	10. surgeon	11. bee-keeper	12. newsagent
GROUP 4			
1. doctor	2. housewife	3. baker	4. pilot
5. factory worker	6. cowboy	7. builder	8. dentist
9. solicitor	10. secret agent	11. dustman	12. air-hostess

Miming lists of jobs: A & B teams

Student A chooses ONE of the jobs in **Groups 1 and 2** above.

Student B chooses ONE of the jobs in **Groups 3 and 4** above.

The students have to mime their jobs so their partners can guess what they are.

15. The Airline HELP desk - miming

Write a role card for each student in the class giving them a problem which could occur in an airport. Each student has to mime their problem. The class try to guess the problem by asking questions, but the student with the problem is not permitted to speak. They can only signal YES or NO.

This is a good game for teaching vocabulary in a memorable context. The stranger the problem, the more probable it is that the words will become part of the class's active vocabulary.

Example of a problem:

*My wife's gone through **passport control** with my **boarding card**. She is wearing a long red coat and is carrying a **rolling pin**. Can you find her?*

*A **pigeon** has flown into the Food Hall and is eating the fruit cake.*

The game is especially good for supplying the right formulae in difficult situations where languages may be a problem:

The Airline HELP desk can be moved to another environment e.g. a language school, a hospital, or a hotel.

16. The Yes/No Game (from Michael Miles: "Take Your Pick")

Different students volunteer to be asked questions. They must avoid saying the words "YES" or "NO" for a

given period of time e.g. 1 - 2 minutes. This is done by using expressions like: "I do", "I am", "that's true", "that isn't true", "that's not correct", "exactly", "precisely", "that's right", "that's correct", "I think so", "probably", "possibly", "usually".

The questioners can try to trap them through deliberate misunderstanding and *echo questions*: "Did you say *usually*? So you said you live in Stuttgart? Perhaps?"

Questions

Do you come from Australia? Are you sure you don't?

Are you single or married? So you're divorced. You're not interested in marriage?

Do you like English food? So you LOVE English food. You think it's the best in the world?

Have you been to Florence? So you haven't been to Italy?

Which is more important - health or money? You said "health"?

How many brothers and sisters do you have? Fifteen?

Would you like a million pounds? So you're not interested in money?

Are you more intelligent than your parents? So you're less intelligent?

Did you say you were stupid?

Do you like your teacher? Is he / she the best teacher you've ever had?

The best in the world?

What are your hobbies? So you like listening to folk music?

Can you use a computer / play the piano? You can?

17. 20 Questions: Animal, Vegetable or Mineral

A student thinks of any object, substance, animal, person or abstract noun and declares whether it is animal, vegetable, mineral or abstract ("**love**" would be declared as *abstract with animal connections*) (**People** count as animal!). Phrases which identify a well-known object such as *uncle Tom's cabin* are permitted.

The other students are limited to 20 questions. If they cannot guess the word(s) within the allotted number of questions, then they lose the game. This is a competitive game. The class can compete against the teacher, taking equal numbers of turns at selecting the object or asking the questions, and the TEACHER and STUDENT scores can be recorded on the board. Teachers should adjust the level of difficulty when it is their turn to select objects to make a fairly equal contest.

Check List to Analyze a Speaking Lesson (Adopted from CELTT Module 4, LAPIS, ELTIS, 2007).

Setting up the activity	Yes	No
Did the activity have a clear aim that was made explicit to the 'students' beforehand?		
Was the target language of the speaking activity reviewed beforehand?		
Were the instructions clear?		
Were the 'students' told how long they would spend doing the activity?		
The activity	Yes	No
Did the Main Activity (The board game) provide opportunities to practice fluency?		

Did the Main Activity (The board game) give every group member a chance to speak?		
Was the communication 'real'? Was there an exchange of information from one member to the others?		
Monitoring and Feedback	Yes	No
Was there monitoring of the students' performance during the speaking activity?		
Did the 'students' get feedback (in the form of correction of errors) after the speaking activity?		
Was the feedback / error correction clear?		



UNIT 4

TEACHING READING

A. Why Teach Reading

It is undeniable that in the context of English as a foreign language, learners of secondary school level, generally speaking, rarely read English texts in their real life activities. They almost never read English magazines, newspapers, journals. They may do it only if they are instructed by their teachers to do so. At least, it is less frequently done compared to reading to the target language. However, as one of the language skills, reading plays a vital role especially for the future professional or academic career.

There are several purposes in teaching reading: introducing new language, introducing genre, recycling target language, improving reading skills, assessing learners' ability, and providing knowledge of the world. In teaching reading, teachers can introduce new target language including lexical, grammatical, functional, and rhetorical aspects of the language. Reading activities can also be used to introduce genre. Involved in the teaching and learning process of reading, learners recycle vocabulary, grammar, and knowledge of discourse markers that has already been learned before. The lexical, grammatical, and discourse features that have been known are reinforced and practiced, hence becoming more understood and acquired. The purposes of teaching reading are schematized in the following Figure 2.

By monitoring learners' involvement in reading activities, teachers are also able to assess learners' current perceptive ability of the target language.

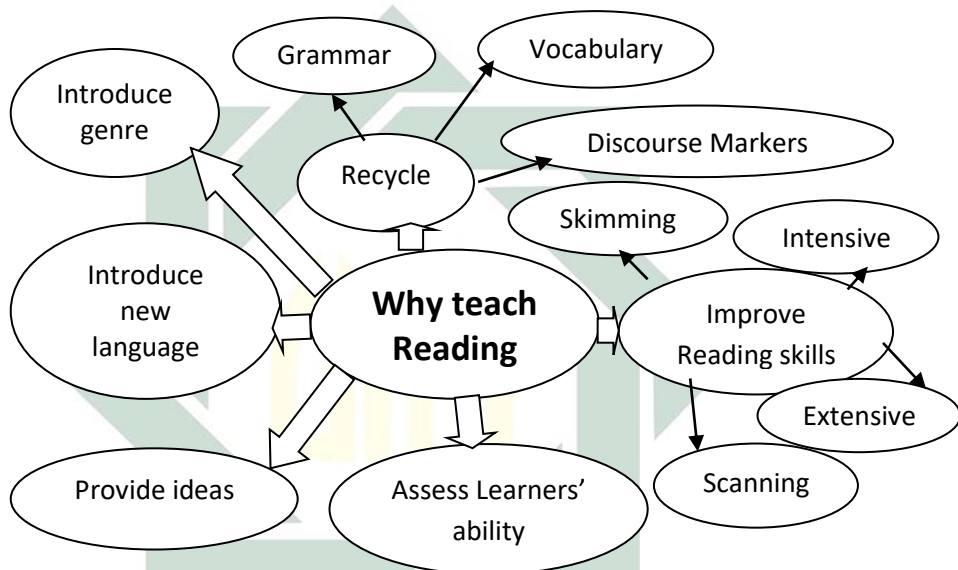


Figure 2 Purposes of Teaching Reading

The main aim of teaching reading is to improve learners' reading skills, i.e. reading for gist (general ideas) and reading for specific information. These are represented by the tasks and activities done by the learners during the teaching and learning process of reading. Finally, by reading English texts, learners can improve their knowledge about the world and add experiences. This is especially true when the texts are authentic materials,

taken from the real world, not specifically designed for teaching and learning purposes, such as news, articles, scientific papers, and research reports, etc.

B. Overview to Listening and Reading Skills

Listening and reading are two of the four language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. Reading and listening are receptive skills, as they involve responding to language, rather than producing it. They both involve making sense of the meaningful sounds and words of language. We do this by using our knowledge of language and the world.

Written Language in English (Reading Skills)	Spoken Language in English (Listening Skills)
Stays on the page and doesn't disappear	Disappears as soon as it is spoken. Sometimes it is spoken fast, sometimes slowly, with or without pauses.
Uses punctuation and capital letters to show sentences	Shows sentences and meaningful groups of words through stress and intonation.
Consists of letters, words, sentences and punctuation joined together into a text.	Consists of connected speech, sentences, incomplete sentences or single words.
Has no visual support - except photos or pictures sometimes.	The speaker uses body language to support his/her communication, for example, gestures and facial expressions. This helps the listener to

	understand what the speaker is saying.
It is usually quite well-organized: sentences follow one another in logical sequences and are joined to previous or following sentences.	Is not so well-organized. For example, it contains interruptions, hesitations, false starts and frequent changes of topic.
Usually uses exact vocabulary and more complex grammar.	Often uses rather general vocabulary and simple grammar.

Listening and reading are receptive skills in the sense that listeners and readers perceive insights, messages, or meanings out of language forms. It does not necessarily mean, however, that perceiving is equal to passive action. It cannot be said to be passive at all because while listening or reading, the minds of the doers are not passively stagnant and do nothing. When listening or reading, the brain is actively processing the linguistic input in order to solve the puzzles of meaning making. In relation to this, there are two approaches in reading activity: bottom-up and top-down processing.

C. Bottom-up and Top-down Processing

Bottom-up processing refers to the process of extracting meanings or messages out of the written formal signs, symbols, and devices of the written texts by the readers. So, it is simply believed that in this processing, meanings come out of the texts. The reader is put entirely in a receptive state in the sense that his/her brain is

regarded vacuum of prior information. All information is given by the the text. The process might look like this:

- Recognizing a lot of linguistic signals (letters, morphemes, syllables, words, phrases, grammatical cues, discourse markers)
- Using linguistic data-processing mechanisms to impose some sort of order on these signals
- From all the perceived data, the reader selects the signals that make some sense, that cohere, that “mean”.

Top-down processing, on the other hand, regards that the reader’s schemata has been activated prior to reading the text. Using his/her experiences, the reader creates meanings as s/he is reading the text. So, the process is that the reader

- Draws on his/her intelligence and experience to understand a text

In the past, the popular way to teach was bottom-up processing. Recent researches show that a combination of the two (interactive reading) is a way out.

D. Interactive Reading Process

Reading is supposed to be an interactive process between the text and the readers’ mind. Before the reader is really involved in the activity of reading the text, his/her background knowledge has been activated, thus s/he has been psychologically prepared with the anticipation of meanings. When s/he is in the process of reading the text, s/he is going back and forth, creating meanings, checking whether the meanings go in line with the contents of the text, revising and creating new meanings, then rechecking

them to the text, and so forth. The illustration of this phenomenon might look like this.

Text to read: *John goes to school every morning. Yesterday, he handled a Mathematics examination. He substituted the teacher who could not supervise the examination room that day. In fact, before supervising the class, he had been asked by the principal to open the gate earlier.*

1. Text: *John goes to school every morning.*
2. Reader's mind: The reader thinks that John must be a student.
3. Text: *Yesterday, he handled a Mathematics examination.*
4. Reader's mind: The reader revises his/her conclusion and thinks that John turns out not to be a student. He must be a teacher.
5. Text: *He substituted the teacher who could not supervise the examination room that day.*
6. Reader's mind: The reader revises his/her second conclusion and thinks that John turns out not to be a student, nor a teacher either. This time he must be an administration staff.
7. Text: *In fact, before supervising the class, he had been asked by the principal to open the gate earlier.*
8. Reader's mind: The reader again revises his/her third conclusion and thinks that John turns out not to be a student, nor a teacher, nor an administration staff. He is a janitor.

The above illustration clearly presents the interactive relationship between the text and the reader's brain. The text contains linguistic signs and the brain creates conclusive points of meanings based not only on the signals sent by the text but also on the experiences and

background knowledge owned by the reader about the world (schemata).

The importance of knowledge of the world in making meanings is apparent in the above illustration. First, the reader thinks that John is a student based on his/her knowledge of the world that someone who goes to school everyday is usually a student. Second, s/he concludes that John is a teacher based on the text which says *"he handled a Mathematics examination."* According to his/her knowledge of the world someone who handles examination is a teacher. Third, now that his/her conclusion is rejected by the following sentence, *"he substituted the teacher..."*, based on the knowledge of the world, someone who substitutes a teacher is normally an administration staff. Therefore, the reader thinks so. Unfortunately, this conclusion is also rejected by the sentence, *"... asked to open the gate earlier..."* Opening the gate, according to knowledge of the world, is normally a janitor's job. In conclusion, skill in reading depends on the efficient interaction between linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world.

E. Reading Materials

There are two kinds of materials that can be used for teaching Reading: authentic materials and pedagogic materials. Authentic materials are those which are taken from real life communication and not designed for language teaching and learning purposes. For example:

1. Newspapers	15. Dramas	29. Abstracts
2. Advertisements	16. Diaries	30. Books
3. Wrappings	17. Puzzles	31. Recipes
4. Train schedules	18. Magazines	32. Maps
5. Song Lyrics	19. Flyers	33. SMS
6. Announcement	20. Brochures	34. Greeting cards
7. Graphics	21. Stories	35. Dictionaries
8. Novels	22. Menu	36. Invitation cards
9. Yellow pages	23. Poems	37. Questionnaires
10. Reports	24. e-mails	38. Identity cards
11. Editorials	25. Letters	39. Short stories
12. Essays	26. Manuals	40. Encyclopedias
13. Articles	27. Job Contracts	41. Jokes
14. News	28. Biography	42. Leaflets

Pedagogic materials are those which are designed for language teaching and learning purposes. Their main characteristics are topical and/or linguistic simplification, modification, and adjustments according to the level and experience of the target learners. For example:

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Text books | 4. Students' work sheets |
| 2. Supplementary readers | 5. Abridged Novels |
| 3. Graded materials | 6. Teacher-made texts |

Among the advantages of authentic materials are their naturalness and relevance with the real life experienced by the learners, thus making them more interesting to the learners. The disadvantage is that they are usually too challenging, causing some difficulty to deal with, especially for learners of low level language ability. The pedagogic materials, on the other hand, although they are usually too rigidly modified, thus making them boring

and non-lively, they are usually manageable and can easily be followed by the learners.

The point desirably taken into account by teachers is the use of variety of materials, both authentic and pedagogic, so that learners with their divergent learning styles and preferences are maximally accommodated by the benefits of diversity of materials. Another solution is that the teacher can make materials taking authentic forms but containing modified language, appropriated with the level of the learners' ability.

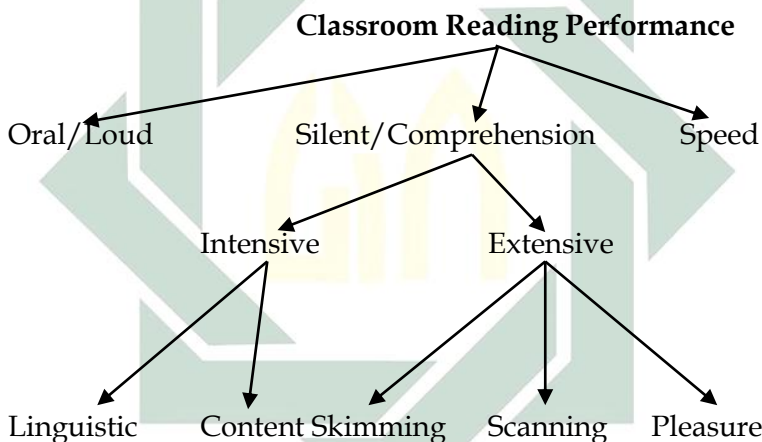
Authenticity of forms is important to maintain because different text types may require different reading strategies. The way we read an advertisement, for example, is different from the way read an instruction manual. While we just need to scan specific information in reading an advertisement, in reading a manual we should read all procedural sentences in details so as not to misoperate the equipment. By using a variety of text-type materials, it is possible for teachers to give learners alternatives to practice different sub-skills. In sum, the duty of the teacher is to enlighten our students on features of these genres and to help them develop strategies for extracting necessary meaning from each.

F. Strategies for Reading Comprehension

1. Identify the purpose in reading.
2. Use graphic rules and patterns to aid in bottom-up decoding.
3. Use efficient silent reading techniques for relatively rapid comprehension.
4. Skim the text for main ideas.

5. Scan the text for specific information.
6. Use semantic mapping and clustering.
7. Guess when you are not certain.
8. Analyze vocabulary.
9. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.
10. Capitalize on discourse markers to process relationships.

Types of Classroom Reading Performance



Reading aloud is normally used to practice pronunciation rather than for comprehension. Although the ability to read aloud properly with correct intonation may reflect comprehension, its practice in the classroom is more beneficial to practice pronunciation than to improve comprehension. In real life, reading aloud may be done when a mother reads a story to accompany her child to go to bed, or someone finds an interesting news to read for a

friend, or a boss when dictating a letter to a secretary to type.

Most reading is done silently for comprehension. Most of real life reading is extensive. Extensive reading is defined as reading a large amount of materials of which purpose is to gain knowledge or pleasure, such as reading reference books, novels, journals, research reports, etc. The main focus is on perceiving ideas irrespective of understanding all linguistic signs of the text.

Renandya and Jacobs (2007) list some characteristics of extensive reading:

1. Students read large amounts of material
2. Students usually choose what they want to read
3. Reading materials in terms of vary in topic and genre
4. The material students read is within their level of comprehension
5. Students usually take parts in post-reading activitiy
6. Teachers read with their students, thus modelling enthusiasm for reading
7. Teachers and students keep tract on student progress

There are also several benefits in extensive reading:

1. Enhanced language learning insuch areas as spelling, vocabulary, grammar, and text structure
2. Increased knowledge of the world
3. Improved reading and writing skills
4. Greater enjoyment of reading
5. More positive attitude toward reading
6. Higher possibility of developing a reading habit (Renandya and Jacobs, 2007:298)

Here lies the main difference between extensive and intensive readings. Whereas extensive is aimed at attaining knowledge or pleasure putting aside all linguistic analyses, intensive reading is intended to scrutinize the text thoroughly in detail. In reading intensively, all written symbols within the text must be understood, including that of words, referential expressions, punctuations, capitalizations, font features, and soon. All are viewed within textual framework. The reader, for instance, must understand what a pronoun "she" (in a paragraph) refer to, why the word "*queer*" is italicized, what is contrasted between paragraph one and two which starts with "however," and why the author closes the text by saying, "unless you are asleep," and so forth. Intensive reading is likely given by teachers to students in a Reading comprehension class in order to improve students' reading comprehension ability.

Speed reading, on the other hand, is usually related to comprehension level. How fast a reader can read within a certain limit of time in proportion to how much s/he can understand what s/he has just read. If s/he can finish reading a 250-word text within one minute but does not know anything about the content of the text, the speed reading is useless. Ideally, comprehension can still be attained despite the speed of reading. It is also not ideal if comprehension is got only with a slow reading pace. In sum, a reading class should be intended to increase not only the extent of comprehension but also the level of its speed.

Principles for Designing Interactive Reading Techniques

1. In an interactive curriculum, make sure that you don't overlook the importance of specific instruction in reading skills
2. Use techniques that are intrinsically motivating.
3. Balance authenticity and readability in choosing texts.
4. Encourage the development of reading strategies.
5. Include both bottom-up and top-down techniques.
6. Follow the SQ3R sequence: survey, question, read, recite, review
7. Subdivide your techniques into pre-reading, whilst-reading and post-reading phases.
8. Build in some evaluative aspect to your techniques.

Reading Strategies (Adopted from CELTT Module 3, LAPIS, ELTIS 2007).

- a) Skimming: Reading to find out the main idea
- b) Extensive Reading: Reading for pleasure, e.g. a novel, or for information, e.g. newspapers, books
- c) Scanning : Reading to find out a single fact
- d) Intensive Reading: Reading every word carefully

	Pleasure	Information	Extensive	Intensive	Skimming	Scanning
The manual for operating a mobile phone		√		√		

A text message (SMS)		√				√
The TV schedule in the newspaper		√				√
A news report of a football game	√	√			√	√
A short story	√		√			
The contract for a job		√		√		
The yellow pages		√				√
A magazine article		√			√	√
Advertisement		√				√
A poem	√			√		

G. Procedures of Reading Lessons

There are various activities that can be done in a reading lesson. The basic principle is that the procedures

are logical in the sense that there are some phases: pre-, whilst- and post-reading activities. Pre-activities are activities conducted to prepare students before they are engaged in the reading activity. They are to energize them, to focus their attention to the topic, to activate their schemata, to introduce the topic, to generate students' interest in the topic, etc. The main purpose of this activity is to provide sufficient help to the students so that they are ready and able to do the following steps. This step may be manifested in terms of students' predicting the content of the text, teacher's showing pictures, asking students' experiences related to the topic, talking about the title of the text, introducing and discussing difficult vocabulary that might be found in the text, etc.

Whilst-activities contain the main activity of reading. In this phase, students are really engaged in the reading process and do some tasks related to their comprehension of the text, such as understanding main ideas, finding specific information, and knowing the detailed messages contained in the texts. The main purpose of this stage is to improve students' reading sub-skills. This phase can be in the forms of students' answering comprehension questions, implied and explicit ideas, factual information, referential questions, evaluative questions, etc.

Post-reading activities are follow-up activities done after students are involved in the reading activity. This can be in the forms of discussing the topic of the text, summarizing, retelling, discussing the grammatical points, enriching vocabulary relevant with the topic, and relating the topic with the students' life experiences by asking them

for their opinions and comments about the topic. This stage is basically intended not only to reinforce and develop the linguistic knowledge, but also develop and practice other skills and components, such as speaking, writing, listening, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.

The following is an example of procedures of a reading lesson (Adapted from CELTT Module 3, LAPIS, ELTIS, 2007).

- a) Use a picture to generate interest in the topic.
- b) Use the title of the text to encourage learners to predict the content of the text.
- c) Teach essential vocabulary that learners may be unfamiliar with.
- d) Ask learners to read the text quickly in order to answer gist questions, such as: *What is it about? Who wrote it? Why?*
- e) Check detailed understanding by asking multiple choice questions.
- f) Focus on vocabulary in the text by asking learners to find words that mean...
- g) Focus on grammar structure in the text.
- h) Ask learners to talk about their personal response to the text and its topic.

H. Activities for Improving Reading Skills

These are the activities that can be conducted in a reading lesson. They are intended to improve both micro (bottom-up) and macro (to-down) skills. Micro skills are the skills to understand the linguistic signals sent by the text, whereas macro skills are those which exert knowledge of the world in order to understand ideas contained in the

text. The following is adopted from CELTT Module 3 Materials, LAPIS, ELTIS, 2007.

1. Activities Designed to Develop Micro-Skills (Bottom-Up):

1. Underlining unfamiliar words and guessing meaning
2. Circling discourse markers
3. Identifying pronouns and reference words
4. Underlining topic-related words
5. Using a dictionary to understand the meaning of unfamiliar words
6. Underlining unfamiliar words and identifying the part of speech
7. Understanding the meaning of individual words.
8. Understanding punctuation.
9. Understanding discourse markers and other cohesive devices.
10. Recognizing grammatical features such as word endings.
11. Recognizing word chunks and understanding their meaning.
12. Understanding text organization.
13. Contrasting different text types

2. Activities Designed to Develop Macro-Skills (Top-Down):

1. Brainstorming background knowledge in advance of reading
2. Using contextual and extra-linguistic information (such as pictures, layout, headlines) to make predictions regarding what the text is about

3. Identifying and understanding the gist (the main idea).
4. Putting a set of pictures in order
5. Following the sequence of a narrative.
6. Identifying the topic of the text and recognizing topic changes
7. Deciding what information is important and what is less important.
8. Inferring the writer's attitude.
9. Predicting what the writer is going to say next.
10. Identifying the text type (genre).
11. Identifying the purpose of the text
12. Choosing the best summary of the text
13. Writing a summary of the text

3. Tasks/Activities Usually Done in Each of the Phases (Pre-, Whilst-, and Post-)

The activities usually done in pre-reading stage, among others, are:

1. Hangman
2. Spider-gram
3. Anagram
4. Board race
5. Corner race
6. Change places
7. Guessing game: describing
8. Guessing game: yes/no questions
9. Chained words
10. Matching
11. Showing pictures
12. Predicting
13. Introducing difficult words

14. Listing vocabulary from the letters of a word
15. Telling a story

The activities usually done in whilst-reading phase, among others, are:

1. Multiple Choice (MC)
2. True or false (T/F)
3. Completing
4. Answering
5. Making a diagram based on text
6. Predicting what the writer is to say next
7. Jigsaw
8. Making a sketch
9. Filling out a form
10. Ordering information
11. Ticking boxes or words in a list
12. Completing missing information in a table
13. Finding out which picture is being described
14. Matching (halves of sentences/words and definitions/words and pictures)

The activities usually done in post-reading step, among others, are:

1. Summarizing
2. Discussing
3. Retelling
4. Mingling and interviewing
5. Discussing grammar
6. Enriching vocabulary
7. Working on pronunciation

I. Analysis Sheet - Reading Lesson

Below is a checking list to see whether a reading lesson complies with the three phase technique (Adopted from CELTT Module 3, LAPIS, ELTIS, 2007).

1. Materials		
Pre-Reading	Yes	No
Does the pre-reading activity focus the learners' attention on the topic?		
Does the pre-reading activity provide enough help for learners?		
While-Reading	Yes	No
Is the while-reading task challenging enough?		
Is the while-reading task too challenging?		
Does the while-reading task focus on the main teaching point of the lesson?		
Post-Reading	Yes	No
Are the post-reading tasks challenging enough?		
Are the post-reading tasks too challenging?		
Do the activities lead to the achievement of the teaching aims?		
2. The lesson as a whole	Yes	No
Is there a natural progression from one activity to the next?		

Is there any visual help for learners?		
Is there a variety of tasks?		
Are the activities culturally acceptable?		
Is there a variety of interaction patterns?		
Do the learners get opportunities to use (produce) the target language?		

J. Using Authentic Materials

In most English language classrooms learners follow some kind of text book. This may be supplemented by handouts or other learning materials especially designed for language learning. There are good reasons for using such **non-authentic (pedagogic) materials**, they often focus on discrete learning points, they have a natural progression, etc. However, **authentic materials** may have some advantages over non-authentic. For instance, they may be more up to date.

Here are some criteria for evaluating authentic materials (Adopted from CELTT Module 3, LAPIS, ELTIS, 2007).

- ◆ Are the materials up to date?
- ◆ Are the materials likely to motivate your learners? (Are they inherently interesting?)
- ◆ Do the materials have credibility? (Will the learners feel they come from a believable source?)
- ◆ Are the materials culturally appropriate, or do they provide an interesting view of another culture?
- ◆ Can learners relate to the materials on a personal level?

- ◆ Can the materials be used with classes of various levels of ability?
- ◆ Are the materials quick, easy and cheap to prepare?
- ◆ Do the materials provide a good model of *usable* English?
- ◆ Are the materials flexible? (Can they be used in different ways?)

1. Newspapers

- Use the advice column to work on modals. Have students write answers to the questions asked in the advice column. They also make great discussion points.
- Have students use the first paragraphs of a story to complete who, what, where, when (sometimes why) grids. Then give them a headline and have them write their own stories.
- Use graphs and charts
- Read a book or movie review aloud and have students do global reading to determine if the reviewer liked it or not.
- Ask students to choose a job or an ad from a paper- they then interview each other.

2. Magazines

- Pictures can be used for description, comparison, or for writing mysteries or movie plots
- Use the recipes – great for sequencing. Students can then write their own. Can also just use the pictures of well known food and students write the recipe

- Have students analyse ads for audience, slogan, product being sold, logo and sales technique. Then have them create their own ads and explain them to the class.

3. Sales fliers from supermarkets, department stores, electronic stores

- Great for scan reading - prices, products, sizes, dimensions and available colors
- Give students a list with specific qualities of certain items to buy and then have them calculate how much money they have spent. Have other students ask - wh questions to find out about what they bought and how much it cost.
- Give students a specific sum of money (imaginary) and ask them to 'go shopping'. They tell the class the things they would like to buy and why.

4. Song

- Cut up the lyrics and get them to put them in order as they listen
- Make a gap-fill exercise from the lyrics
- Play the song and ask learners to say whether the singer is happy, sad, jealous, angry, etc
- Play the song and ask learners to work in groups to act out a promotional video for it, lip-synching if they want
- Write a review of the song

UNIT 5

TEACHING WRITING

Writing is a productive skill. It is assumed that writing is correlated with speaking in the sense that both are productive skills. Both require active mastery of grammar and vocabulary. If students are able to speak English adequately, then obviously they will be able to write it. In fact, there are differences between speaking and writing.

A. Differences between Speaking and Writing

Speaking	Writing
1. Speech is universal – everyone learns to speak.	1. Not everyone learns to write because not all languages are written languages.
2. Deviation of rules, there is sometimes no need to use standard forms.	2. Written language generally demands standard forms. Structure of writing and Grammar
3. Speakers use their voices (pitch, stress, rhythm etc) and bodies (gesture, facial expressions) to help convey ideas.	3. Writers use choice of words, and style of sentences or structure.
4. Speakers convey meaning through intonation, stress, and	4. Writers use punctuation.

pronunciation.	
5. Speakers pronounce.	5. Writers write.
6. Mostly spoken – real communication, unplanned/ planned/self-correction/ repetition.	6. Most writing is planned. We can go back and change things we have written.
7. Speakers generally get instant feedback and can modify output accordingly.	7. Delayed feedback (can be a week or so).
8. Informal – repetition is acceptable	8. Writing is usually formal and avoids repetition.
9. Speakers usually use simple sentences connected by a lot of <i>ands</i> and <i>buts</i> .	9. Transitional signals – sentence connectors (wide range of connectors).
10. Variable contexts.	10. Writing has to create its own context.
11. A speaker usually addresses a specific person or people.	11. A wide variety of readers & specific readers, e.g. lecturers/ teachers – school/ university assignments.
12. Speaking is not permanent and cannot be re-spoken.	12. Writing is permanent and can be re-read whenever and at the reader's preferred speed.

In order to be able to write, students need to know not only what but also how to write. The former refers to ideas, opinions, messages, contents, topics, or meanings; the latter to mechanics, language, rhetoric, generic structures, textual features, lexico-grammars, or forms. This implicates the complexity of teaching and learning tasks. To enable students to write, teacher should provide them with ideas by exposing them to reading texts, using pictures, giving example texts, asking leading questions, conducting discussion or interview prior to writing, telling stories, or giving guiding pointers, etc. In short, guides need to be given sufficiently to help learners obtain ideas, then reproduce them in written forms.

In addition, teacher should also give learners sufficient opportunity to practice doing writing activities in order to reinforce their knowledge about how to use proper language in expressing ideas in written forms. That can be done by asking learners to imitate the existing examples or substitute or modify some items in the example texts. The genres of written texts among others are: descriptive, narrative, expository, procedural, and argumentative.

B. Sample Writing Lesson

A writing lesson, especially for beginners, basically should consist of at least three steps, namely teacher's presentation of sample text, students' writing practice, and teacher or peer feedback. This is an example of complete and logical order of steps in a writing lesson (Adapted from CELTT Module 4, LAPIS-ELTIS, 2007). In practice,

some stages can be skipped. The topic is descriptive writing about a friend.

1. A Friend

Think of a good friend. How would you describe them to someone who has never met them?

2. Identification and Description

Describe a friend, what kind of information would you expect under these two headings: identification and description?

3. Model Text Jumble

Your teacher will give you some cards. They go together to make a descriptive text. Put them in the order you think is best.

4. Analyzing Model text

- Which parts of the text deal with identification?
- Which parts of the text deal with description?
- What is mentioned in the identification part?
- What is mentioned in the description part?

5. Organizing Ideas

Prepare to write about a friend. Make notes on under the basic headings: Identification and Description. Once you have finished your notes, compare them with the notes of one of your class mates.

6. First Draft

Your teacher will give you some paper. Write about your friend. This is only the first draft so don't worry too much about perfection at this stage.

7. Peer Evaluation

Exchange your first draft with one of your class mates. When you are evaluating your mate's writing consider

the following things: grammar, vocabulary, textual organization and content.

- Grammar (check verb forms, agreement, articles, etc)
- Vocabulary (check prepositions, spelling, etc)
- Textual organization (is it logical and well-paragraphed?)
- Content (is anything missing or irrelevant?)

8. Analyzing Feedback

Receive the feedback from your classmates. Discuss with them, what changes you should make.

9. Second Draft

Write a second draft. Give it to your teacher when complete.

C. Correcting Written Work

There are three stages in correcting written work.

Stage 1: Reading

Look at the written assignments provided. It is a short piece of writing done in class as an individual summary of a group discussion, and given in to the teacher at the end of the lesson.

Stage 2: Giving feedback

Imagine your own student does this assignment and write in your corrections and other feedback either on the page itself or on a copy. Do this on your own rather than collaboratively.

Stage 3: Reflection

Come together with other participants in your group to compare your responses. Work in pairs, read each other's

corrections and discuss the differences. Use the following questions to help you reflect on your answer.

D. Issues in Giving Feedback in Writing

1. What should feedback be mainly on: language? Content? Organization?

The main aim is to correct language mistakes – the problem is how to do so without conveying that this is the only basis for evaluation for a piece of writing. One possibility is to note corrections within the body of the text, devote comments at the end to matters of content and organization followed by evaluation. Alternatively, evaluation can also be done on the rewritten version (final draft).

2. Should all mistakes be corrected?

It is a difficult question because it involves two important issues regarding our role as a teacher – language instruction vs. support and encouragement of learning. In principle, language mistakes should be ignored if there is danger that to correct them would hinder learning more than help it. We might correct only mistakes that actually affect meaning, and/or those that are very basic, or vary our response according to individual needs.

3. Should learners rewrite, incorporating corrections?

Rewriting is very important, but this can be tedious and most of the time students don't like doing it. It makes sense to see the first version as provisional and to regard the rewritten, final version as the assignment, the one that is submitted for formal assessment.

4. Should we let students correct or give feedback on each other's written work?

Correcting written work is very time consuming, especially if we have large class. One solution is for students to correct and edit each other's writing but the problem is: will students feel comfortable correcting or being corrected by their peers? Will they accept criticism from each other? In this case, peer correction can be seen as a substitute for first draft reading. Students can work together on their first drafts, giving each other feedback on content, language and organization before handing the final version to the teacher. It follows that general classroom climate is very important to do this technique. (Adapted from: *A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory* – by Penny Ur, 1998)

E. Simplified Correction

Individual correction is very time-consuming for the teacher, and often has little long-term effect. As much as possible, especially with lower levels, choose activities that can be gone over in class, e.g. matching halves, reordering, gap-filling etc.

To correct these kinds of activities you can:

- have the students go over them in pairs or groups and then give their answers orally or write them on the board.
- go over them around the class orally (unless the spelling is a focus).
- give Ss a key and ask them to correct their own and/or each other's work while you go round and monitor, making notes of the most common errors.

F. Individual Marking

With more advanced classes, and sometimes with lower levels, you will want to mark the writing yourself. Again, try to be positive and encouraging.

- Where students are expressing their own ideas, views etc., reacting to content is often more important than correcting linguistic accuracy.
- Avoid simply marking what is wrong – drawing students' attention to what is good is often more useful than focusing on mistakes. Try using a highlighter to mark areas of text where the Ss have used language particularly well.
- For classes where you often mark written texts, use a code to identify problems and get Ss to correct themselves as much as possible and submit a corrected draft. (Restrict this to what you expect them to be able to do by themselves – when it involves language you haven't covered yet, it's not fair to use this system)
- To make the corrections clear, ask students to double-space their writing or else write corrections in the margin so they don't clutter the page. Red ink can look angry and demoralizing – try marking with pencil or blue/green ink instead.
- When using writing to reinforce particular language input, focus on that particular structure/function or lexical area you wish them to practice and let other errors alone unless they impede communication.
- Make a note of common errors across the class and then go over these with the whole class, re-teaching

if necessary. This can be made into a quiz, team game. etc.

These are criteria for check list to evaluate a writing lesson (Adopted from CELTT Module 4, LAPIS, ELTIS, 2007).

No.	Criterion
1	Is the activity relevant to my students' daily lives?
2	Is the activity fun?
3	Does the activity have a clear aim (that my students can recognize)?
4	Is the activity challenging but not too tough?
5	Is there a clear structure for the writing task?
6	Does the activity provide opportunities to write?
7	What language would my students need help to do with this activity?
8	What else could a teacher do to prepare students for this activity?
9	Is there sufficient feedback given by the teacher or peers?
10	Is the feedback effective and/or efficient?

G. Examples of Elementary Writing Lesson

These are some examples of activities that can be conducted in an elementary writing lesson. Adapted from the following link: (<http://k6educators.about.com/sitesearch.htm?q=+writing+elementary+materials&SUName=k6educators>)

Written introductions: information about yourself

A Profile of: _____ **from:** _____

Introduce yourself

1. Age
2. National background
3. Town / City
4. Occupation
5. Interests

Reasons for coming to this town & this school:

Impressions of the town and the school:

1. What the UK, the town and the school offer
2. British people
3. Other students

The kinds of things you do at school:

1. The course & the teachers
2. Your progress
3. Social relationships

Life in your English family:

1. The people
2. Their home
3. Their food
4. Their standard/way of living

Out of school activities in & around town

1. What you do during weekdays
2. Weekends in town

Trips and excursions in the UK:

1. Places visited
2. Your activities
3. Your impressions

Example paragraphs:

A Profile of Simona from Switzerland

I'm nineteen years old and I come from Switzerland. I live in Lugano, a small city in the south, near Italy. I finished school two years ago and spent last year studying German in Germany. I like reading, listening to music, going to discos and meeting friends. In winter, I like skiing or ice skating and in summer playing tennis.

I chose to come to the English Language Centre in Brighton because my cousin was here six years ago and liked the place. I think Brighton offers students of all ages many things to see and do. For example, there are amusements for young people while there isn't the confusion of London - it's quieter. The ELC offers the opportunity to study well and make quick progress, but also to visit other places in the UK. In addition to the social program, you can also get to know Brighton better yourself.

In general, I like British people, but not the young people. They are unfriendly and not very sociable. However, it is very interesting meeting students from all over the world so that you can learn about other cultures and customs.

The course is good and it is possible to learn the grammatical system quite fast. The teachers are kind and always accessible. Since I've been here I have made some progress--I can speak better and I have been studying new grammar.

I really like the English family where I live. They are nice and kind. Their home is clean and spacious. The

food is different to that of my own country, but I like it too. Each member of the family is fairly independent; the husband sometimes helps the wife - they are a modern family.

During the weekdays, after school, I sometimes go to the Lanes, the old part of Brighton, or I sometimes go to play ten pin bowling. In the weekends, I like going to Brighton Marina to see a movie at the cinema there or just walking on the beach or looking around the shops. I have also visited London, and Cambridge and have been with the school to Chichester and Canterbury, including a visit to Leeds Castle - the most beautiful place of all.

Speaking and writing about home towns

Interview a friend about their town. Note the answers and then write a composition on your friend's town.

Example questions and answers

Type of town or city and population

- 1) How big is your town? It is smaller than Brighton.
- 2) How many people are there? There are 200,000 people.
- 3) What are the people like? They are hard-working and friendly.

Geographical location

- 4) Where is your town situated? It is in South East Spain just north of
Alicante.

Climate

- 5) What's the weather like? It is very hot in the summer and quite mild in

the winter.

Main attractions, sports facilities and night life

- 6) What are the main attractions? My town is very popular for the beauty of the landscape and the sea.
- 7) Are there any sports facilities? There are water sports and tennis courts.
- 8) What is the night life like? There are bars and discos.

Shopping facilities, transport and communication

- 9) Are there many shops? There are hypermarkets and small boutiques.
- 10) Are there buses and trains? No, there aren't many but there are good roads.
- 11) Is your town easy to get to? Yes, if you have a car.

Main areas of work / Job opportunities

- 12) What are the main areas of employment? There are many jobs in the service industries.
- 13) Is it easy to find work? There is more work in the summer than in the other parts of the year.

Your own thoughts and feelings

- 14) Do you like your town? I quite like it.
- 15) Is your town a good place (a) to live (b) to spend a holiday? It's OK as a place to grow up in, but it is not a tourist resort.

Britain

The land area of Britain is 244,820 square kilometres and there are about 57 million people. Most of the people live in the south of the country. Britain is in Western

Europe. It is bounded by the English Channel, the North Sea, the Irish Sea and the Atlantic Ocean.

In Britain, there are many hills, rivers and urban areas. There are some lakes and a few mountains. There is also a lot of farm-land and woodland, but there isn't any jungle or desert.

Britain has got a large manufacturing and service sector economy. There is also some tourism and a little agriculture. Britain grows a lot of cereals and vegetables. It produces oil and natural gas. It also produces beef, pork, lamb and dairy products. It manufactures high tech machines and motor vehicles. It exports industrial oil and chemicals and imports TVs, videos and computers. British people are of Latin, Viking, Germanic and French origin. The country has a monarchy and a parliamentary democracy.

Now, write about your own country like the example above.

UNIT 6

TEACHING VOCABULARY

Although vocabulary is one of the language components besides grammar and pronunciation, a vocabulary lesson can be classified as a skill subject, not a content subject, because its main objective is to enable learners to use it rather than just to make them know it. Therefore, a vocabulary lesson should contain a lot of practice by which learners are able to acquire the skill of using the learned words.

A. What do we Need to Know about a New Word?

When we encounter a new word, there are several things we usually try to find out about it.

- a) What does it mean? What is the basic meaning?
- b) How do you spell it?
- c) How do you pronounce it?
- d) What kind of word is it? (What is the part of speech? Is it a noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb? etc.)
- e) What is its translation in our native language?
- f) Are there any synonyms?
- g) Are there any antonyms?
- h) Does it belong to a lexical set?
- i) Are there any affixes or compound words based on it?
- j) Does it collocate with any other words?
- k) Are there any special points that learners need to pay attention to?

l) Is it formal or informal?

m) Does it have any negative or positive connotations?

Knowing a word may mean knowing all or some of the points in the above questions. As teachers, we will have to consider which of the above are essential and which are useful but non-essential for our students to learn. It depends on the level of our learners as well as on the aim of the teaching and learning process.

B. How Words are Memorized

There are several ways of how words are memorized (Thornbury, 2002):

- **Repetition:** the more frequently the word is repeated in use, the better memorized it becomes.
- **Retrieval:** retrieving the word from memory makes it likely that the learner will be able to recall it again later.
- **Spacing:** when teaching students, it is best to present the first two or three items, then go back and test these, then present some more, then backtrack again, and so on; rather than presenting many new words all at once.
- **Pacing:** teacher allows some time for learners to pace their own rehearsal activities depending on their different learning rates.
- **Use:** putting words to use in some interesting ways ensures that they are added to a long-term memory.
- **Cognitive depth:** the more cognitively demanding learners deal with the word, e.g. to use it to complete a sentence rather than just to match its sound, the better the word is remembered.

- **Personal organizing:** it will be more effective if the word is used in a personalized way.
- **Imaging:** the task of visualizing a mental picture to go with a new word makes it more memorable.
- **Mnemonics:** these are “tricks’ to help retrieve items stored in memory.
- **Motivation:** it is the motivation that drives the learners to do more rehearsal and practice that makes the word stored better in memory.
- **Attention/arousal:** a very high degree of attention (arousal), such as that to a word which triggers strong emotional response, will make it better memorized.
- **Affective depth:** a word which stimulates learners’ affective engagement will be memorized better.

C. Ways of Presenting New Vocabulary

There are many ways of presenting new vocabulary. As teachers, we need to learn a variety of techniques because some methods are more suitable for some words than for others. For example, if we want to present the word *sneeze*, we might choose to do the action. However, if we want to present the word *strange*, we might choose to give the Indonesian translation.

Here are some examples of vocabulary presentation in the classroom (Adapted from CELTT Module 5, LAPIS-ELTIS, 2007).

1. **Pictures:** The teacher shows the class pictures of different types of transport. For each picture the teacher asks the students if they know what it is. If they don’t, the teacher says the word and the

learners repeat. There are six pictures in all. Afterwards the teacher goes through the words again, the students say the word and the teacher writes it on the blackboard.

2. **Definition/explanation:** The teacher elicits words from the class by giving definitions. For example, "What is the English word for a person who cooks in a restaurant?" If nobody knows the answer, the teacher can give clues, like, "It begins with 'ch'" If nobody knows it, the teacher tells the class. The new word is then written on the blackboard.
3. **Translation:** The class are reading a text in English. A student asks what a particular word means. The teacher gives her the corresponding Indonesian word.
4. **Examples:** The teacher is presenting the word *fruit*. She illustrates it by saying, "Mangos, bananas, apples and oranges are all types of fruit."
5. **Real things:** The teacher wants to present the word *finger nail*. He points to his finger nail and says, "This is a finger nail."
6. **Context:** The teacher wants to illustrate the meaning of the word *swerve*. She says, "A dog ran into the road and the driver had to *swerve* to miss it." Then the teacher asks follow-up questions to check that learners have understood the meaning of the word.
T: "Did the driver stop?" S: "No."
T: "Did the driver change direction?" S: "Yes."
7. **Matching activity:** The teacher gives the learners a list of words all related to money. – *invest, earn, owe,*

save, waste, etc. The teacher also gives a list of definitions. The learners try to match the words to the definitions.

8. **Gestures/actions:** The teacher wants to present the word *itchy*. She does an action, scratching her arm, and says, "My arm is *itchy*."

In presenting a new word or a vocabulary item, there are some considerations that a teacher should take into account. Some of them are as follows:

1. **Context. Are new words introduced in a clear context?**

The context can be created by means of texts, pictures, spider-gram, lexical sets, word categories, etc.

2. **How is meaning illustrated?**

This can be done by using reading texts to provide a context, or using translation in conjunction with a text, pictures, definitions, gestures, examples, real objects, etc.

3. **Are new words introduced in meaningful groups? If so, how are they grouped?**

Words are introduced in meaningful groups, according to topic (e.g. words of accident, sports, clothing, places, etc.). It can also be according to grammatical functions (e.g. adverbs, verbs, linkers, adjectives, nouns, etc.)

4. **Are the students given a chance to produce the new language? How is it practiced?**

Teacher may set activities by giving controlled practice (e.g. students speculating about the injuries

to the people in the picture, students rewriting available sentences and linking them with suitable conjunctions, etc.). It may also be done by giving free practice (e.g. students telling their partner about an accident they had). As a post-activity, it is possible that learners practice using the new language in both speaking and writing.

5. **Would this target language be useful to students?**

This usefulness principle should be taken into consideration. This all depends on the level of the learners and the topics discussed. The linking words (*when, while*), for instance, are essential. Some words (*trod, bleeding*) are less likely to be used by students at junior secondary level, but they are pretty useful all the same.

D. Choosing what Vocabulary to Teach

As teachers, we make decisions about what to teach. Even if we are following a clearly-defined syllabus or course book, we make decisions about what to prioritize. How do we decide what vocabulary to teach? Look at this list of possible strategies for selecting vocabulary. Put a tick next to the ones that you think are most useful for your learners. Be prepared to say why you think each would be useful.

Teach words that are easy to teach and can be explained easily.

At low levels this can be a productive strategy. Words to do with the classroom are useful and can be presented

easily. Using lots of pictures of things can make it easy to present and interesting for learners.

- Teach words that the learners may need for an activity they are going to do, for example, some important new words in a reading text.

This kind of pre-teaching can be useful for learners. However, the teacher should be careful not to pre-teach too much or the listening/reading skills will not be challenged. Also, guessing vocabulary from context is an important skill in itself.

- Teach words that the learners ask about and want to know.

This is generally good advice. Learners often remember words better if they have asked for them specially. However, teachers should be careful not to let the lesson become just a stream of unrelated words on the blackboard.

- Teach words that you think learners will find useful in their daily lives.

This is good because it provides motivation to learn. The new words will appear meaningful if they relate to the learners' lives.

- Teach words that are very frequent in spoken English.

This would seem good advice. It is not always easy, however, to know which words are high-frequency. It also depends on the learners' needs. Are they studying to be able to speak, or are they studying in order to be able to go to university?

- Teach words that appear in the course book.

Most course books have been carefully planned and recycle important vocabulary. Therefore it is good advice to follow the course book. However, teachers should remember that it is not enough just to follow the course book. Additional vocabulary work is essential.

□ Teach words that learners will find useful in their academic careers.

For MTs students this can be very good advice. They should be thinking of further study at university level, where English reading and writing ability may be very important.

E. Presenting and Practising New Vocabulary

There are several ways of how to present and practice vocabulary, one of which is using lexical sets. There are some reasons why we should present the vocabulary as lexical sets.

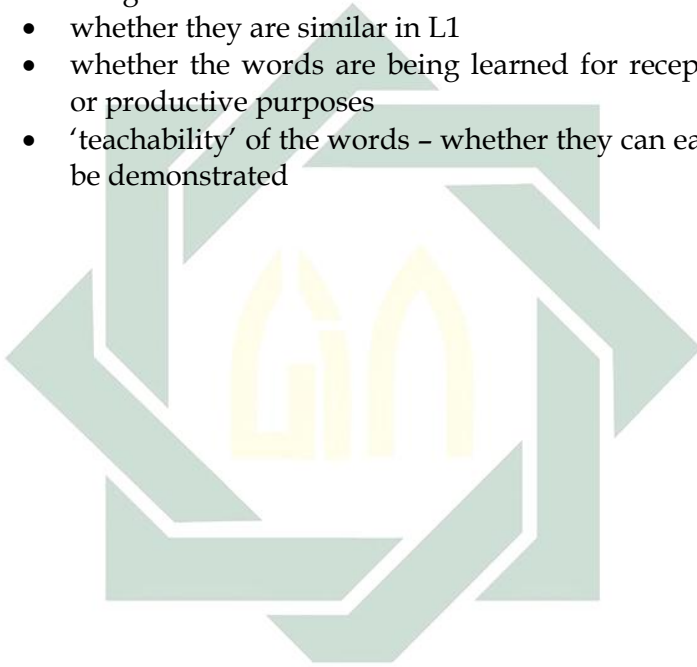
- Learning Context. In real life we encounter related words in the same context.
- Using Context. In real life we use related words in the same context.
- Memorizing. Evidence suggests we 'store' words in groups.
- Course-books. Text books need to arrange lessons according to topics.

F. How Many Words Should we Present at One Time?

This point is debatable. According to Scott Thornbury (2006), memorizing twelve words once is a good rule of thumb. However, in a psycholinguistic research, it is likely to memorize seven words or seven

groups of words in one time. It depends on many things, such as:

- level of learner
- whether they are abstract concepts or concrete things
- whether they are similar in L1
- whether the words are being learned for receptive or productive purposes
- 'teachability' of the words - whether they can easily be demonstrated



UNIT 7

TEACHING GRAMMAR

A. Why teach grammar

There are some possible reasons why it is important to teach grammar (Adapted from CELTT Module 5, LAPIS, ELTIS, 2007).

1. The sentence making machine

Grammar is a kind of sentence making machine. We need to learn some patterns and rules in order to generate new sentences. Without grammar we would only be learning items of vocabulary and endless 'phrases'

2. Clarity

Meaning can be unclear if grammar is faulty. Especially written language which has to create its own context and, therefore, needs to be more explicit than spoken language

3. To Prevent Fossilization

Research suggests that second language learners who learn without any formal instruction are more likely to reach a point where they do not improve and become 'stuck' with certain errors. Especially those caused by L1 Transfer. (Note: you can study the grammar yourself, it needn't be in a classroom to classify as formal study).

4. Noticing

Analyzing grammar can help you better notice what native speakers are saying. For example, if you study the 'past continuous' you are more likely to notice people using it in speech. Research suggests this process

of 'noticing' it in the real world, makes it more likely to 'stick' in your mind. (*Make sure you mention "noticing"*)

5. Rules Rule.

In some institutions the learning rules, order & obedience is highly valued (especially in a situations where you have large classes of undisciplined teenagers.) Grammar offers a structured body of knowledge that teachers can 'transfer' to the learners.

6. It's tidy

It's a tidy way of organizing language into parts. E.g. the present continuous (you feel you have 'learnt' something) even if you are unable to use it. It can make it appear that you are learning and of course in many ways you are.

7. Learner expectations

Learners (especially adults) often expect to learn grammar. Especially, as they go to a class to make learning 'more efficient' and to many this means learning grammar.

However, there are also some opposing reasons against teaching grammar, why it is not important to teach grammar. Some possible reasons are:

1. Learning by doing

Learning by doing is more successful than learning by theory. E.g. we can learn how to ride a bicycle by reading or by trying it out. Which is more likely to result in success? Learners can fail to translate rules into skills.

2. Communication

Purists argue that we learn by understanding the communicative function of an utterance. E.g. We need to understand that 'Do you drink?' means 'do you drink alcohol?' Knowing the grammar will not help you use this utterance in a socially appropriate way. Over time, through communicating, you will acquire the grammar unconsciously.

3. Acquisition.

We all learn our first language easily without learning any rules. So why shouldn't it work for a second language? Krashen (1985) based a lot of his ideas on research related to this: learning grammar is of limited value for real communication. When the learner is exposed to the right ingredients in a stress-free environment, Krashen says learning can happen.

4. Natural order

The work of Chomsky suggested that there is a natural order to the way we learn grammar. We all go through a "I no like it" stage in our learning. Therefore, sticking to a grammar syllabus can subvert our natural learning patterns.

5. Lexical chunks

Learning vocabulary is essentially item learning. We also count chunks as vocabulary "e.g. "Have a nice day. It seems to me...learning chunks saves time and is considered to be similar to the way young children learn language. We learn lots of phrases like 'gimme' 'all gone' and then our brain subconsciously analyses those chunks and we gradually start to form our understanding of the grammar of the new language.

6. Learner expectations (again)

Many (adults again) learners are tired of the years of formal grammar at school which they felt got them nowhere and want this knowledge to use. Conversation is often a high priority.

Considering the above controversy, what is our position? We are somewhere in the middle. We want to teach some grammar because of all the first set of reasons. However, it should not become our overriding aim. The next question is HOW do we teach grammar?

These are some of the issues that may come up concerning the teaching of grammar.

1. I generally start a grammar lesson with a clear statement of the rule.

Starting with a clear statement of the rule is a defining feature of a deductive approach to teaching, that is, going from rules to examples. This contrasts with an inductive approach, in which the learner is first presented with some examples, from which the rule is 'induced'- that is to say, the learner works out the rule from the examples. (Note that the terms deduction and induction can cause a great deal of confusion, and it may be easier to substitute the terms rule-driven and discovery learning, respectively)

Starting with an explicit statement of the rule is characteristic of the grammar-translation method of teaching languages, but also of many popular student's grammars. At this stage, any discussion of the pros and cons of such an approach can be held over until the next activity (stage 2), but it may be worth underscoring the

point that there is no one 'right' way of teaching grammar.

2. I avoid using grammar terminology in class, if at all possible.

This stance is no doubt justified when teaching very young learners. However, for older learners, especially adults, it is almost impossible to avoid using grammar terms--such as verb, tense, adjective, infinitive, etc.--unless the teacher is using a purely experiential approach to teaching (e.g. learning entirely through simply using language to perform tasks).

At the same time, many learners will be demotivated by lessons that include a great deal of technical and unfamiliar grammar terminology. So, sensitivity to the learners' age, learning style, and learning needs will determine the degree to which the teacher uses meta-language (the language that is used to talk about language).

3. I prefer to use examples from the students' own lives and experiences to introduce new language.

Such an attitude is founded in humanistic learning theory, which attributes successful learning to affective (emotional) factors just as much as cognitive (intellectual) ones.

Apart from anything else, learning that is personalized is more likely to be memorable than learning that is not. Formerly, the personalization stage was generally incorporated towards the end of a teaching sequence - as a form of practice. But the idea that the presentation

of grammar can be contextualized in material provided by the learners is relatively innovative. It requires of the teacher considerable improvisatory skills, however, and therefore is not perhaps a viable option for inexperienced teachers.

4. Students should be led to discover the rules of grammar for themselves.

This view contrasts with the deductive approach, outlined in the response to statement 1 above, and is premised on an inductive learning model, i.e. one in which learners are exposed to linguistic data (examples) and from which they work out the patterns and regularities we call grammar.

In the rest of this module we will refer to such an approach as a discovery one. It is analogous to the way the rules of one's mother tongue are discovered, that is, through direct experience and unconscious extraction of the rules. The difference between first and second language acquisition is that in the latter case, the extraction of the rules is largely a conscious process, involving a degree of cognitive effort and attention. Simply trusting learners to take responsibility for discovering the grammar themselves is obviously risky, as many may simply not make the conscious effort. This is where the teacher's guiding role - and the guiding role of teaching materials - is crucial. This session will be looking at the way such guidance can be optimized.

5 Some grammar rules are easy to explain, but there are others that it's best to let the learners pick up themselves.

This situation - familiar to most experienced teachers - is now generally accepted among researchers as well. Tense formation in English is relatively easy to explain, but the subtle ways in which the present perfect is used to express present relevance are elusive and may best be acquired through exposure and practice.

There is a further point that needs to be made, however, and that is that some rules are seldom if ever picked up without explanation. Correct adverb placement in sentences like I liked the concert very much or She is often late can go unnoticed unless the rules are explicitly presented.

6. It's best if the grammar comes out of other activities, such as speaking or reading.

This view is a basic principle of such approaches as task-based learning and whole language learning, that is that you learn best by doing. The teacher's role, then, is to set up activities in which learners are using the language for real-life communicative purposes - as in a discussion, role-play, or letter-writing task, for example. The language needs that emerge from this activity are dealt with during the activity or immediately after it. In this way the grammar syllabus is not pre-selected but is derived from - and responds to - the learners' immediate needs and problems. It is therefore arguably more relevant and memorable.

But, as we saw in the comments on statement 4, there is the risk that the learners will not attend to questions of grammar without teacher intervention. And, like the personalized approach to teaching referred to in statement 3, it requires of teachers considerable skill at improvising lessons out of whatever the learners come up with.

B. Different approaches: Three examples of lessons on the present perfect continuous

There are three approaches in teaching grammar: deductive approach, i.e. starting from rule continued to giving several examples (rule-driven approach); inductive approach, i.e. from examples to rule (data-driven approach). This latter approach is also called discovery approach either guided by a teacher (guided discovery) or unguided discovery.

The following part presents the three examples of grammar lessons using the three approaches (Adapted from CELTT Module 5, LAPIS, ELTIS, 2007).

Lesson 1 (Rule-to-examples)

1. **Teacher says:** “To form the present perfect continuous, use the auxiliary verb have plus the past participle of the verb to be (been) plus the present participle, for example ...”
2. **Teacher writes on board:**
 - I have been working.
 - Has Jeff been watching TV?
 - They haven’t been listening.

3. **Teacher says:** "You use the present perfect continuous to talk about activities that started in the past and continue to the present (or very recent past), especially when you want to focus on the process itself, or its duration, for example ..."
4. **Teacher writes on board:**
 - We have been living here since we got married.
 - How long have you been studying Chinese?
 - Why is your hair wet? I've, been swimming.
5. **Teacher says:** 'Now, make sentences using the present perfect continuous for these situations ...
 "Jeff started watching TV at five o'clock. He has just switched the TV off. It is now nine o'clock".
 "I first came to live in this town five years ago. I'm still living here."
 "Our company was set up over 100 years ago. We manufactured bicycles then, and we are still manufacturing them."

Lesson 2 (Examples-to-rule. Guided discovery)

1. **Teacher says:** "Dawn is standing outside the cinema. She is waiting for her friend. Dawn arrived at eight o'clock. It's now ten past eight. She has been waiting for ten minutes.
2. T: When did she start waiting? Learners (Ls):
Eight o'clock.
T: Is she still waiting? Learners: Yes.
3. T: How do you express the idea of waiting that started in the past and is still continuing?
Ls: She has been waiting.

4. T: How is this tense formed? Ls: Have plus been plus -ing.
5. T: This tense is called the present perfect continuous. Here is another situation.
6. T: It is now nine o'clock and Jeff is watching TV. He started watching TV at five o'clock. He has been watching TV for four hours. Use the present perfect continuous to make a sentence for these situations:
 - I first came to live in this town five years ago. I'm still living here.
 - Our company was set up over 100 years ago. We manufactured bicycles then, and we are still manufacturing them.'

Lesson 3 (Examples-to-rule. Un-guided discovery)

1. **Teacher says:** "Once upon a time, Goldilocks visited the Bears' house. There was nobody home. She ate some of Baby Bear's porridge. She smoked one of Father Bear's cigars. She drank some of Mother Bear's coffee, and she rode Mother Bear's motorbike. She played with Buddy Bear's toys, and she played Buddy Bear's guitar. She read some of Missy Bear's magazines, and she used Missy Bear's computer."
2. T: What did she do with Buddy Bear's guitar?
Ls: She played Buddy Bear's guitar.
T: What did she do with Mother Bear's motorbike?
Ls: She rode Mother Bear's motorbike.
T: What did Goldilocks do with Missy Bear's computer?
Ls: She used her computer. etc.

T: Well, finally, she felt tired so she went upstairs to sleep. When the Bears came home, Baby Bear said, 'Who's been eating my porridge?' Repeat.

Ls: Who's been eating my porridge?

T: Mother Bear said, 'Who's been drinking my coffee?' Repeat.

Ls: Who's been drinking my coffee?

T: Father Bear said, 'Who's been smoking my cigars?' Repeat.

Ls: Who's been smoking my cigars?

T: What did Missy Bear say about her magazines?

Ls: Who's been reading my magazines?

T: And her computer?

Ls: Who's been using my computer?

T: What did Buddy Bear say about his toys?

Ls: Who's been playing with my toys?

T: And his guitar?

Ls: Who's been playing my guitar?

T: What did Mother Bear say about her motorbike?

Ls: Who's been riding my motorbike? etc.

3. T: Now tell the story to your classmate.

C. Stages of a Discovery Learning Lesson

- 1 **problem-framing:** setting a problem for the learners to solve
- 2 **providing data:** giving sufficient examples to help the learners solve the problem
- 3 **focusing attention:** drawing learners' attention to key features of the data
- 4 **asking leading questions:** using questions to guide the learners to a solution

- 5 **making connections:** referring to, and building on, what the learners already know
- 6 **giving feedback:** providing messages on the state of the learners' theory-building
- 7 **recapping/ summarizing**

D. Advantages & disadvantages of different approaches

Lesson 1 (rule-driven approach)

Advantages

- gets straight to the point - Learners are in no doubt as to the teacher's intention respects certain learner types, who prefer explicit and upfront attention to grammar
- it respects the intelligence and maturity of many – especially adult learners and acknowledges the role of cognitive processes in language acquisition
- it confirms learners' expectation about classroom learning

Disadvantages

- can involve complicated explanations and metalanguage
- can demotivate learners who are 'afraid' of grammar
- is not very involving - doesn't require learners to make a lot of mental effort, and hence may not be very memorable

Lesson 2 (guided discovery approach)

Advantages

- involves and challenges learners and requires investment of mental effort, resulting in effective learning
- suits learners who are good at discerning patterns

- starting with examples, rather than rules, may be more engaging, especially if examples are personalized

Disadvantages

- may frustrate learners who want clear explanations from the outset
- may take up valuable time
- may exclude learners who are not good at discerning patterns

Lesson 3 (unguided discovery approach)

Advantages

- reflects natural processes of language acquisition
- exposes learners to examples in context
- learners are practising language at the same time as learning it
- doesn't degenerate into long question-and-answer sequences about grammar
- encourages Learner autonomy; discourages teacher-dependence

Disadvantages

- may put too much responsibility on learners
- no way of really knowing if the correct rule has been 'discovered'
- may be an inefficient use of time
- will frustrate grammar-oriented learners

E. Concept Questions (Adapted from CELTT Module 5, LAPIS-ELTIS, 2007)

Concept questions can be used to check:

1. Structural - e.g. She used to be a vegetarian

2. Functional – e.g. Can I give you a hand?
3. Lexical – e.g. He's so selfish!

In this section we will be focusing on **structural** meaning.
Examples of concept checking questions

'She used to be a vegetarian'

Is she a vegetarian now? NO

Was she a vegetarian before? YES

Was she a vegetarian for a short time or long time? A LONG TIME (otherwise we would use past simple and indicate the time. E.g. She was a vegetarian for just a week). That is an example of concept questions to help learners understand the meaning of 'used to.'

1. How *not* to concept check. Do not use these ways to check concepts.

'She's been cooking for six hours.'

- 1) Do you understand? (This doesn't check anything and learners will nearly always say 'yes' or nothing to this question)
- 2) What does this sentence mean? (impossible to answer)
- 3) How long has she been cooking? (The question is basically the same as the sentence you are checking and so does not check meaning)
- 4) Is her uncle cooking with her? (Confusing the issue- this is not a key question)
- 5) Are we focusing on the duration of her activity, the current circumstances, or the achievement of cooking from the past until now and into the future? (too long and convoluted, uses language above the level of the concept we are teaching and again confusing the issue)

Examples of concept questions for the above sentence in present perfect continuous tense, “*She’s been cooking for six hours.*”

e.g.

- Is she cooking now? Yes
- It’s 5pm now. So what time did she start cooking?
11 a.m
- Is she finished? (Possibly just finished, we don’t know from this sentence)

2. Golden Rules

Which TWO of these rules do you think are WRONG?

Concept questions should

1. be short and simple
2. be always be spoken, never written ✘
3. only contain language that students already know
4. not contain the language being presented
5. be asked to the whole class
6. be thought about at *the planning stage*
7. clear about the meaning sought (to avoid ambiguous answers)
8. help you find out which learners don’t understand so you can punish them ✘

The TWO concept questions which are not appropriate are numbers 2 and 8. Number 2 is not good because there is no reason why you shouldn’t write them down. In fact it might a good idea for students to note down the concept question as it might help them revise the structure in their own time. Number 8 is not good either because it can be useful to find out which learners are not

keeping up but this is not the main reason and we certainly don't want to punish people for not understanding.

Which golden rule do you think is the most important? They are all important, of course, but one of the most important is probably "be clear about the meaning sought". If you mess up the meaning, then you mess up everything!

Other examples of concept questions:

"You don't have to buy the text book."

Can you buy the textbook if you want? Yes

Is it ok, if you don't buy the text book? Yes, it's Ok

Do I get a free textbook? We don't know, not stated here. Maybe.

"You'd better tell the truth."

Have you told her the truth? *No*

Do I think you are doing the right thing? *No*

What will happen, if you don't tell the truth? *Something bad*

Is this simple advice? *No, it's very strong.*

"Leah was writing on the wall when the head teacher walked in."

When did this happen? Past or present? *Past*

Which action started first? *Writing on the wall*

Which action happened second? *The head teacher came in*

Did Leah continue writing? *Probably not. But we are not sure from this one sentence.*

"She goes to work at about 7.30."

What time is it now?

Is she going to work now?

So, is this everyday or now?

Probably teachers are tempted to use Indonesian, if there is a problem with understanding the concept. As the simpler concepts are usually taught at lower levels, the concept questions should also be correspondingly simple. However, it is strongly recommended here that teachers avoid using too much Indonesian in the class as this can discourage the learners from using English.

A good set of concept questions, if correctly answered, should reveal the concept that is being checked.

3. Identify what we are checking

From the concept questions, try to work out what structure has been/is being taught.

Context 1

What's the time? *Five past ten.*

Where's George now. Tell me about him? *He's in the living room. He's watching the news.*

Are you sure? *Yes!*

But you can't see him, so how do you know? *Because he watches the news at 10 o'clock every evening.*

What structure/function is being checked here?

Context 2

What does Albard plan to do? *Fly to Australia.*

When does he plan to do it? *Tomorrow.*

When will he book his flight? *He already has. He booked it last week.*

So what can we say about him and Australia?

He.....

Note: Simple "WH" questions are more useful than straightforward "YES/NO" questions as the latter give

guessers a 50% chance of getting it right without thinking! It is difficult to avoid using *some*, but using *only* yes/no questions is unreliable.

F. Grammar Drills & Controlled Practice Activities (Adapted from CELTT Module 5, LAPIS, ELTIS, 2007).

1) What is a drill?

Drill is a controlled oral practice of selected sentences. The language used in a drill is very tightly restricted. There is usually a high degree of repetition and a focus on form (but should also include meaning). Drills are aimed at focusing on accuracy and based on the behaviorist theory that repetition leads to learning.

2) Why?

Drill is intended to improve accuracy, (and therefore, ultimately fluency), pronunciation, & intonation. It is also to reinforce form **and meaning** of newly-presented structures; and to give students confidence in handling new language before moving on to freer use.

3) Problems?

Badly planned drills rapidly become boring & mechanical.

In a purely mechanical drill, students may have no interest in what they are saying or know what they are saying means.

Even in a drill some communication should take place so that it is meaningful. Drill is useful for short term 'shallow' learning but less useful for long-term learning. Whilst there is evidence that drills can benefit learning in the short term, they are not very successful at the

deep processing of language that is required for long-term learning. Long-term learning requires a high level of learner engagement in meaningful tasks - even the best drills do not provide this.

4) When?

Drill is done after presentation of new language, or at any point in the lesson where a focus on accuracy is appropriate. Perhaps, it is after an activity where a teacher notices a certain error.

5) How long?

When drilling, a teacher needs to be 'snappy', keeps up a good pace. All students need to have the opportunity to repeat the target structure several times.

6) What is the Teacher's role?

The teacher (T) must have organized cues.

S/he needs to correct errors.

S/he should keep the drill simple and use as low TTT (teacher talking time) as possible.

T gives clear instructions.

T uses clear pronunciation (but does not over pronounce. Keep it natural)

No interruptions. Keep the drill moving.

Make sure there is variety (don't go around the class in order)

7) What is the student's role?

Students (Ss) do choral repetition.

They do individual repetition.

Ss look at cues (procures, words, or cues from other students)

Drill can be done with T-S or S-S or S-Ss.

8) Kinds of Drills

There are three kinds of drills: **mechanical**, **meaningful**, and **communicative** drills. Mechanical drill is the drill which focuses entirely on patterns or forms regardless of meaning at all. It is intended to practice a certain pattern repeatedly so that to form an automatic habit of using that pattern. For example:

Teacher (T) give clues, learners (Ls) repeat.

T: The boy's reading Ls: The boy's reading

T: sleep Ls: The boy's sleeping

T: die Ls: The boy's dying

T: splonk* Ls: The boy's

splonking*

T; brot * Ls: The boy's

brotting*

The words splonk* and brot* are meaningless words. The drill is just aimed at practicing the pattern of present continuous tense. Despite its benefit to form automatic habit of using present continuous tense, this kind of drill is not much useful unless it is related to meanings.

The second level of drill should be meaningful. In addition to practicing a certain pattern, it is desirable that drilling also involves meaning. Hence, learners do not only focus on or memorize forms but also understand the meaning of utterances and the patterns being practiced. For example:

(T puts a book on the table, then asks Ls,)

T : What's this? Ls : That's a book.

T : What color's the book? Ls : It's blue.

T : Where's the book? Ls : It's on the table.

(T shows a pen, and asks Ls,)

T : What's this? Ls : That's a pen.

T : What color's the pen? Ls : It's black.

T : Where's the pen? Ls : It's in the pocket.

The above drill is to practice vocabulary of stationery (e.g. book, pen), colors (e.g. blue, black), and prepositions (e.g. on, in). The drill is meaningful because learners are required to associate the real objects, colors, and locations and their English words. The drill will not work well unless learners know the meanings of the teacher's cues. Although it is interactive, in the sense that there is a two-way communication between teacher and learners, T asks questions and Ls answer the questions, that drill cannot be said to be communicative. It is meaningful but it is not communicative.

Communicative activity is characterized, among others, by authenticity in the sense that there is information-gap filling which underlies the communicative behavior. Someone communicates, in this case asks questions because s/he needs information being asked. There is a reason underlying his/her asking questions, e.g. s/he does not know the information, so s/he asks for it. This is not true with the above sample meaningful drills. The teacher already knows that the object is a book, its color is blue, and it is put on the table. What is the point of asking questions about that information? S/he knows about a pen, its color is black, and it is in the pocket. Why should s/he ask? In short, like mechanical, meaningful drill is beneficial but it is not enough. There must be the third level of drill which is communicative.

Communicative drill is a drill which gives learners chances to use the target language in real-life like situations. The classroom activities are given contexts in

such a way that the participants, teacher and/or learners, are imaginatively put, as if they were in real life situations; hence, there is a needs of conducting communication.

For example, T says that s/he is going to visit the house of one of the students. Although /she knows the address, s/he unfortunately does not know which house to drop in. So, T asks, "What color is your house?" Another example, T says s/he is going to borrow a student's motor cycle. In order not to be confused at the parking lot, s/he asks the owner, "What color is your motor cycle?" "Where is the motor cycle?" Compared to the previous questions about color and location, these are more communicative because the T does not know the information and so s/he asks about them. There is an information-gap filling activity. Another example of communicative drill is role plays where learners personalize certain roles and practice performing conversations within certain contextual situations.

UNIT 8

CHARACTERISTICS OF COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING & LEARNING

A. Identifying Communicative and Non-communicative Activities

The following sentences are about activities likely conducted in a language lesson. To review what you have already known about communicative language teaching, try to identify which activities below are communicative and which ones are not.

1. After explaining a pattern, T drills the sentences of that pattern and Ss repeat.
2. After being taught the form of simple present tense, Ss change affirmative sentences into negative and interrogative.
3. T puts a book on the table, then asks Ss
T : What's this? Ss : That's a book.
T : What color's the book? Ss : It's blue.
T : Where's the book? Ss : It's on the table.
4. T tells Ss to read a text, without Ss' knowing what they read for (the purpose of reading), T asks them to answer questions.
5. Two Ss demonstrate a dialog in front of the class by memorizing it.
6. Ss listen to English news on TV and jot down its main contents.

7. Ss read a brochure to make registration to a Debate Competition conducted by a University. Then, T checks their comprehension.
8. Ss want to write the profile of the Principal to be put on a wall magazine. For that, they interview him/her asking about educational, professional, and family backgrounds.
9. A student is on a trip out of town. Having stayed there for a week, s/he sends a post card to a friend telling about some activities s/he's done and plans for the following weeks.
10. Playing the role of a customer service officer, a S interviews her/his partner while filling up a form.

B. Explanation

Activity 1 is not communicative because it focuses on form rather than on meaning. The main aim of that activity is to introduce, practice, and reinforce sentence patterns and not to give learners a chance to communicate using the target language. This also applies to activity 2. It aims at practicing learners to change affirmative into negative and interrogative forms. In that case, the focus is the correctness of the forms rather than encouraging them to communicate using the target language.

Activity 3 seems to be disputable. Some people say that it is communicative because there is some interaction between teacher and learners, in the sense that the teacher asks and the learners answer the questions. Others, however, say that it is not communicative because the teacher actually has already known what the object is, what color it is, and where it is. So, there is no point at all in

asking about them. Unless the teacher is blind or color blind, it is not natural at all to ask about them. Why should s/he ask what it is if s/he already knows that it is a book. Why should s/he ask what color the book is if s/he already knows that it is blue. Why should s/he ask where the book is if s/he already knows that it is on the table. So, that the teacher asks questions is not to fill the gap of information, which is communicative, but it is just to drill learners to use vocabulary of object, color, and locative preposition, which is form-focused.

Activity 4 is a little bit communicative in the sense that learners try to find information by reading a text. The problem, however, is the reason underlying that reading activity. The learners are not really aware of why they should read the text. In real life, a person is engaged in reading normally because they have certain purposes. That the teacher directly tells learners to read a text without telling them why, and without their awareness of the purpose of reading, is likely to be not quite communicative because reading without a purpose does not normally happen in real life.

Activity 5 can be debatable. Regarding the fact that it involves learners to practice a conversation, it may be interactive though not necessarily communicative. However, simply because they do it by memorizing may imply that they may not understand the dialog; hence, it is not communicative.

Activity 6 is obviously communicative. Learners listen to real news on TV implying that they focus on understanding the messages conveyed by the news. They must also have a purpose in doing it, such as getting

information. In order to preserve the permanence of the message, they note down the points. That activity is very likely done in real life.

Activity 7 is also communicative. Learners read a brochure with a purpose, i.e. to register themselves to a debate competition. In order to do that, they must focus on and understand the meaning or ideas in the brochure. They read the brochure because they want to get information about the debate competition. This is very likely encountered by learners in their real life.

Activity 8 is apparently communicative. Learners are really engaged in using the target language. First, they have a purpose in interviewing the principal, i.e. to get information about her/him. The results of the interview are substantial to write a wall magazine. Second, the interview and the writing of a wall magazine must be focused on meaning, messages, ideas and not on linguistic forms. Third, all of those actions, i.e. interviewing, taking notes while interviewing, reproducing the ideas in the form of written texts are authentic activities of real use of language.

Activity 9 is communicative in terms of meaning focused, personalized, and contextual. When writing a post card, learners must pay attention to ideas rather than to forms. The ideas written on the post card are based on their real personal experiences. If only they do it in simulation, in class rather than in a real trip, at least the teacher has provided a context by which learners are capable of imagining what to write and for whom it is written. This activity is likely encountered in real life.

Activity 10 is also communicative. That learners interview their partners indicates that they are actively

using the target language. In doing so, they also have a purpose, namely to be able to fill in the form. That activity is likely to be authentically encountered in real life, for instance when a clerk interviews a customer, a police officer interrogates a criminal, or an office worker interviews a client while filling up a form. In short, this activity complies with the criteria of communicativeness.

C. Characteristics of Communicative Activities

There are basically three characteristics of a communicative activity: meaning-focus, authenticity, and learner-centeredness. When the activity is focused on transferring and/or receiving messages or ideas, i.e. fluency oriented, and not on the correctness of grammatical forms, i.e. accuracy-oriented, it can be said to be communicative as is claimed by the weak version of communicative point of view. Compliance only with that criterion, however, is not enough. The example of activity 3 above illustrates this point. Although it may be claimed to be a bit communicative because it is meaningful, the proponents of the strong version of communicative view do not quite agree with it. An activity must not only be meaningful, but it must also be authentic.

Authenticity refers to whether an activity is likely encountered in real life, if there is some information gap filling, and if there is a clear context of the activity. Listening to news reports, songs, speeches, lectures, reading newspaper and magazine articles, advertisements, announcements, SMS, interviewing, making personal and telephone conversations, delivering presentations and speeches, discussing, debating, writing emails, short

messages, are some examples of activities which are likely encountered in real life. Therefore, it is possible to simulate conducting them in language classes.

In addition, authenticity is also characterized by information gap filling. If a person does not have information, then s/he asks another person a question to get that information, it indicates that there is an information-gap-filling activity. If s/he already knows that information, on the other hand, there is no point in asking about it. Communication occurs because there is a need to do it. This view may be challenged by pragmatics in relation to the needs of communicating in English in the context of EFL. Do students really need to communicate (speak or write) using English? How often do they need to do activities mentioned in the previous paragraph? In consequence, the question that should possibly be addressed is whether authenticity is important to be pursued in the English teaching and learning process in EFL classes. The response to this challenge lies on the importance of communicative teaching and learning of English in EFL context.

Communicative in this sense is an approach by which we believe that language is a means of communication. The corollary is that it is learned or acquired by using it in real communication and not necessarily through knowing its grammatical system. In the context of EFL where there is no urgent need of using it in social life, teachers can create a condition in the classroom or set up activities and tasks which require learners to use it. In other words, teachers set contexts so

that learners' authentic use of the target language is encouraged and promoted.

For example, if the teacher wants learners to write an email, s/he had better provide a context such a way that learners are able to imagine being in that context; hence, writing an email becomes purposeful and imaginable. S/he may say, "All right kids, imagine you're having a trip to Bali and stay at your uncle's home there for a week. Now, you want to write an email to your friend telling him/her about things you have done during your stay at Bali. Do it now." This task is clearly contextual and easier for learners to do than just saying, "All right kids, now write an email in English." It implies that context in this case can be imaginary or invented and is not necessarily real and factual.

The other characteristic of communicative activity is learner-centeredness. In a learner-centered approach, learners' varied characteristics should be taken into account so that each feels accommodated and affectively engaged in the learning process. In so far as affective engagement increases the effectiveness of learning, it is important that teacher make classroom process promote such engagement by personalizing the tasks. When the tasks or activities are relevant and related to the personal experiences of the learners, learning is expected to be more effective.

D. Examples of Activities Using Pictures (Adapted from CELTT Module 1, LAPIS, ELTIS, 2007).

Pictures can be used as effective materials to conduct a communicative activity. However, pictures can

also be used in limited and non-communicative ways as just to drill learners to practice certain linguistic items. Consider the following activities.



While showing the above picture, suppose the teacher asks the following questions: (1) How many birds are there? (2) What color is the girl's hair? (3) What's the girl doing? (4) What's the bird on the floor doing? (5) Where's this taking place? etc. Compared to these questions: (6) Who is the girl? (7) How old is she and what does she do? (8) Who does she live with? (9) What is she thinking about? (10) What is the parrot playing chess thinking? (11) There is a knock at the door. Who is it? (12) What happens next? etc. Which questions (1) - (5) or (6) - (12) are more interesting? Why?

The answers to questions (1) to (5) are existing clearly and explicitly in the picture and, therefore, they are

easier because they can directly be obtained from it. They are hardly challenging and interesting because both teacher and learners know the answers. What is the point of asking if all of the answers have already been clear and known? Such kind of question, however, is possibly appropriate for students of low level and the main aim is just to drill learners to practice questions and answers about numbers, colors, actions, and locations.

In contrast, questions (6) to (12) are more challenging, stimulating, and interesting because they require imagination. The answers are more open and such questions can stimulate debate among students because one's imagination may be different from others'. Such kind of questions is more interesting because the answers may vary and in order to answer them learners are stimulated to have good imagination. The answers are more personalized as they all depend on the personal experiences of each student.

In short, what makes an activity interesting is not merely the picture but the contents of the questions about it as well.

Suppose the teacher is showing the following picture. What questions are likely asked?



Some may ask these questions: (1) How many people are there in the picture? (2) What color is the hat? (3) Which person is wearing glasses? (4) What is the man on the right side bringing? (5) How many people are bringing a bag? etc. Some others may address the following questions: (6) When did you take this photo? (7) Who's the man wearing yellow T-shirt? (8) Where's the man bringing a grey bag from? (9) What's on the background? (10) What magazine is that you're holding? etc. Which questions are likely asked in real life?

The answers to questions (1) to (5) are explicitly taken from the picture. They are likely asked in a low-level language classroom. The answers are already known. In real life, such questions sound illogical because there is no point in asking questions of which answers have already been known. Questions (6) to (10), on the other hand, are very likely asked in real life. These are authentic and the activity is, therefore, communicative.

UNIT 9

MANAGING LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

A. Classroom Interaction Patterns

To accommodate learners' variety of learning styles, it is important that the teacher consider implementing various interaction patterns in the classrooms. The one-way interaction pattern, such as teacher-learners (T - Ls), commonly happening in most conventional classes, in which the teacher lectures and gives explanation and information, gives much benefit to auditory learners only, and not much to others. Therefore, to maximize the intensity of interaction, the teacher should use other interaction patterns, such as teacher-student, student-teacher, class-teacher, teacher-class, student-student, learners in small groups, student-class, learners mingle, and student works individually. Harmer (2001:114) states in managing classes there are some ways of grouping learners, namely "whole-class teaching, learners on their own, pair-work, and group-work".

The teacher-learner (T - L) interaction, where the teacher interacts with an individual student, can be effective to stimulate reticent learners to be more active because the interaction is done personally and individually. Interaction can also be done following class-teacher pattern, in which the learners are given a chance to initiate communication by asking questions, giving comments and suggestions.

Pair-work can also be very effective to make learners more active. A quiet student because of shyness

working in larger groups may become more open when s/he works in pairs. In that way, each learner has more opportunities to speak up and be more actively involved in classroom activities compared to that in whole-class or small group discussions. However, to accommodate learners with individual learning style, it is also good that the teacher sometimes provides a chance for learners to work on their own, such as reading silently individually, writing compositions, creating individual works, working on exercises, etc.

Seating arrangement may possibly affect the involvement of learners in the activities. When the learners sit in rows, such as that in most traditional classes, those who sit at the back row will benefit less than those at the front rows. While those at the front likely concentrate and pay full attention to the teacher, those at the back may be disrupted by other things. That is because they might feel short of teacher's attention. In order to distribute attention and interaction chance fairly, it is better that the seats are arranged in a U-shape or semi-circle; hence, there is an equal distance between teacher and all students. Despite its goodness to create conducive environment to maximize interaction, this seating arrangement is often not easy to realize in practice due to the large number of learners and small space of the room.

B. How to Build Rapport

To increase the effectiveness of language teaching, it is important to establish good relationship between teacher and learners. The following part presents some tips that can be implemented by a teacher in conducting classroom

activities (Adapted from CELTT Module 2, LAPIS, ELTIS, 2007).

1. Use relevant, interesting topics and assignments that fit the interests of your class and learning styles of the students. These techniques tend to minimize the classroom management problems that often bother teachers who rely too heavily on lecturing the learners. If students are interested and feel that you have made the effort to find topics that interest them, they are less likely to be bored and misbehave.
2. Whether the problem students are aggressive or introverted, make a point of getting to know them. It's unlikely that students will continue to give you a hard time or remain distant if you have taken an interest in them. Personally greet students each day.
3. "You catch more flies with honey than vinegar." Establish a positive classroom environment by increasing the amount of positive statements you make in class. Use positive reinforcement through incentives and rewards appropriate to the developmental level of students including stickers, tokens, displaying work or publishing work in a school magazine, notes from the teacher commenting on good work, a message sent to parents commending the student. Social rewards such as smiles, nods and verbal praise are often the most effective.
4. Make eye contact with students or move closer to them when they hold private conversations, start to fall asleep, or hide from participation. Regularly scan the class and press your fingers together (modestly) to signal wordy student to finish what they are saying.

Raise your hand to get students' attention. Teach students the behavioral expectations of your signals and practice using them until they become routine.

5. Give students your full attention when they are talking to you. Give them eye contact and positive body language. If students talk too long or argue with you, interrupt with a summary of their views and then ask others to speak. Or you can acknowledge the value of their viewpoints or invite them to discuss their views with you at a later time.
6. Sometimes you can control the damage done by difficult students by inserting new formats such as using pairs or small groups rather than full-class activities. Another way of changing participation is by using craft sticks. Put students' names on each stick and draw out names randomly. Give the whole class the questions and give think time or partner discussion first before drawing a stick to call on a student. This increases their success rate.
7. One way to deflect difficult behavior is to use humor with students. Be careful, however, not to be sarcastic or insulting. Gently protest the behavior (e.g. "Enough, enough for one day!"). Humorously, put yourself down instead of the students (e.g. "What did I do to deserve this!")
8. Move around the room during group activities, keeping students on task and providing help as needed. Keep your eyes on everyone!
9. You must call a stop to behaviors you find harmful to learning. Firmly request, in private, a change in behavior of those students who are disruptive. Let the

students know you care about him/her, and to prove it, increase the *positive* attention you give to the student. If the entire class is involved, stop the lesson and explain clearly what you need from students to conduct the class effectively. Increase *positive* feedback to the class.

In addition to the above techniques, the teacher may also practice solidarity by producing some discourse strategies in order to touch the affective aspects of the learners.

C. Some Strategies to Practice Solidarity

Despite the fact that the T inherently exercises power over Ls in the classroom interaction, he also implements various strategies to minimize the effect of such practice to show some solidarity. The ways that show the practice of solidarity can be seen in the following Table 8.

Table 8 Ways that Show Solidarity

Ways to practice solidarity	Sample linguistic realizations
Showing respect	<i>..., special for you in this ...</i>
Using inclusive pronouns	So, <i>we</i> are doing a guessing
Using “please”	<i>Please</i> , sit in the hot seat here
Using affirmative for Directive	<i>I just want</i> one of you to sit down here
Giving praises	<i>Very good.</i>
Asking for opinions	<i>What do you think about this?</i>
Using indirect orders	<i>I allow you to work in groups</i>
Apologizing	<i>Oh, sorry, sorry.</i>
Accepting criticism	<i>You’re right.</i>

Thanking Offering free choice	OK. <i>Thank you.</i> <i>Who wants to answer number three?</i>
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The above table shows that among the ways of the practice of solidarity are showing respect, using inclusive pronouns, using requests, using affirmative to express directive, giving praises, asking for opinions, using permission head acts, apologizing, accepting criticism, thanking, offering free choice, and calling Ls by names.

- **Showing Respect**

Despite that higher position, as the data show, the T does not play his role arbitrarily. He sees his job as a great thing. He pays regards to his Ls. He considers that meeting as a special and respectable event. Therefore, he bought a new batik dress special for that valuable occasion. Now that the T says he bought and is wearing that special dress special for Ls in that occasion implies that he pays respect to them.

The facts are that the T does it at the initial stage of the lesson and that he announces it explicitly in order that Ls know his feeling about them. Those are intended to create good rapport between the T and Ls. This is consistent with one of his personal aims, i.e. "To create a friendly and relaxed learning atmosphere."

- **Using Inclusive Pronouns**

Inclusive pronouns are referring expressions which include the speaker, e.g. *we*. Using this pronoun means the speaker is included in the proposition being produced. That the T uses an inclusive pronoun implies that he wants

to give an impression of solidarity as if he were involved in the activity. If it is not physical involvement, at least it indicates that the T is empathetic. When the T is putting himself in Ls' shoes, Ls feel the existence of closer relationship with him, thus lowering their affective filter. Lower affective filter promotes the effectiveness of input (Krashen, 1985).

- **Using “Please”**

The fact that the T uses “please” in his instructions to his Ls to perform a certain activity, irrespective of his inherent higher position, indicates that he wants to put himself in approximately equal position with the Ls. That indicates the practice of solidarity. He gives order, but the order is given empathetically to minimize the impression of power impact in order for the T to appear egalitarianistic rather than authoritative. This spur of delicate impression is important to create psychologically closer relationship between the T and the Ls; hence lowering their affective filter (Krashen, 1985).

- **Using Affirmative Form for Directive**

T gives instructions to Ls to do a game. As an instruction, it is quite likely that the T uses imperative forms, such as, “Sit down here, describe this picture, guess what picture it is, etc.” In practice, nevertheless, the T does not do so. Instead, he uses affirmative sentences. The reason underlying such communicative behavior is to be polite or to mitigate the urge of order. Consistent with one of the personal aims the T has, i.e. to create good rapport with the Ls, such performance implies that the T wants to show solidarity. He is keen on being empathetic, putting himself in Ls' shoes. In short, the use of affirmative forms

to express directive acts is an indicator of the T's practice of solidarity in the setting of teaching and learning process.

- **Giving Praises**

Based on the data, the T gives praises to the Ls when they do well in giving response or in doing tasks. That he gives praise implies that he wants the Ls to improve self-esteem, have pride, and become more confident. Hence, it makes them strive harder and more motivated to improve their competence. It also indicates that he puts the Ls in a position which deserves respect and admiration. In sum, giving praise can be taken as an indicator of exercising solidarity rather than power.

- **Asking for Opinions**

The data of classroom discourse show that T does not dictate his own ideas but asks for the Ls' opinions about something. That T asks Ls whether or not they agree that both father and mother are equally busy implies that the T does not immediately accept an opinion only from one side but he tries to ask for other opinions from other Ls. That indicates that the T admits the authority of the Ls to express their ideas. It can be inferred, therefore, that T's asking for Ls' opinion is one among the indicators of the practice of solidarity in the classroom.

- **Using Indirect Orders**

T normally gives instructions in the form of orders to get Ls to do a task. That is the consequence of power they have. In practice, however, as found out in the discourse data, the T uses some indirect ways to do so. When saying, "OK. Now, *I allow you to work in groups*"

The verb "allow" indicates that the T uses permission verb to make Ls do the task of working in groups. He could use

imperative form of directive such as “Now, work in groups,” but he does not do that. Instead, he uses permission verb. Instead of bluntly ordering “take this table”, T says “*you need this table.*” By telling about the need of table, T indirectly implies order. His use of “*I would like you to ...*” also implies mitigated order, and so does the use of modal auxiliary “*you can ...*”.

- **Apologizing**

T is aware that as a human being, s/he will never be free from errors. “To err is human,” says a proverb. So, it is quite normal and natural that a T makes a mistake. One way to minimize or neutralize the effect of this mistake is to apologize. This is done by the T as evidenced in the discourse data. When he makes a mistake, he apologizes to the Ls. This implies that the T puts himself in equal position with the Ls. He is aware that everyone can make a mistake. Making a mistake is one of human’s natural characteristics. When he does so, he expresses an apology. In sum, apologizing is an indicator of the practice of solidarity.

- **Accepting Criticism**

According to the data of classroom discourse, the T accepts criticism from Ls. That indicates that he does not think of himself as error-free and Mr-Know-All. That he is open to criticism implies that the T is egalitarian, admits that he has human weakness, and acknowledges the existence of Ls. So, accepting criticism is also an indicator of the practice of solidarity.

- **Thanking**

The fact that the T, according to the discourse data, thanks the Ls for something they have done to him

indicates that he develops good manner, meaning that he does not want to appear superior over the Ls. He does not feel offended to be criticized and wants to show that he respects them. In short, the T is keen on making the classroom condition conducive as having harmonious psychological relationship between the T and Ls.

After Ls have finished conducting a pair-work discussion, the T thanks them for doing the task. In fact, it is the obligation of the Ls to obey her/him. S/he should not be grateful for being obeyed because obedience of the Ls is her/his right. He wants to show that he respects the Ls and what they are doing is great. The T and Ls are being equal, so it is not a command which the powerless must obey. Therefore, when they obey it, he thanks them for it. In sum, T's thanking the Ls indicates that solidarity is practiced by the T.

- **Offering Free Choice**

Another indicator of the practice of solidarity in addition to power is the T's giving to the Ls the freedom to make choice. The data show that T gives freedom to Ls to make their own decision whether or not they volunteer to give an answer. That implies that the T promotes the condition in which Ls are autonomous or gives them responsibility to make their own action. This is underlain by his trust to them.

Practicing solidarity shows that T is empathetic. The benefits are creating close relationship between T and Ls, making Ls feel secure and self-confident, giving them autonomy and responsibility, and establishing classroom harmony.

D. Benefits of Practicing Solidarity

There are some benefits in teacher's practicing solidarity in the classroom. By showing respect, teacher is able to arouse learners' self esteem. When learners feel that teacher pays respect to them, they feel that they deserve some values; hence, growing self confidence. Teacher's use of an inclusive pronoun indicates that he is empathetic, putting himself in learners' shoes. He tries to understand learners' standpoint, their feelings, their needs, and their preferences. In sum, teacher acknowledges their existence, accepts it, and responds to it.

When the teacher uses "please" in his/her order, it indicates that he appears polite and is more persuasive than authoritative. That makes learners feel respected and have greater self-esteem because they feel to be requested rather than commanded. The use of affirmative statements to perform directive acts expresses higher level of politeness and mitigates the urge of order; hence, giving learners the feeling of greater freedom and autonomy. Given praises, learners become more motivated to pursue further because they feel appreciated in their success in accomplishing good achievement and making good performance.

When the teacher asks learners for opinions about something, it indicates that the teacher respects learners and appears egalitarian, otherwise, he just dictates them to do things. Teacher's apologizing shows equal position between teacher and learners, because the teacher is aware that he is neither error-free nor playing the role of Mr. Know All (Maugham 2010). That he accepts criticism, moreover, implies that he is open-minded and democratic.

Teacher's thanking learners indicates that he develops good manner. Finally, the teacher's offering free choice to the learners shows that s/he promotes learners' autonomy and responsibility. Those benefits in practicing solidarity in the classroom are listed in the following Table 9.

Table 9 Benefits of Practicing Solidarity

Indicators of Practicing Solidarity	Benefits
Showing respect Using inclusive pronouns Using "please" Affirmative for directive Giving praises Asking for opinions Using indirect orders Apologizing Accepting criticism Thanking Offering free choice	to arouse learners' self esteem to indicate that teacher is empathetic to appear polite and be more persuasive to be polite or to mitigate the urge of order to motivate learners to appear egalitarian to mitigate imposition of order to show equal position with learners to indicate that teacher is not error-free to develop good manner to promote learners' autonomy and responsibility

In summary, practicing solidarity shows that the teacher is empathetic; hence, building good rapport between teacher and learners, making learners feel secure and self-confident, giving them greater autonomy and responsibility, and establishing classroom harmony.

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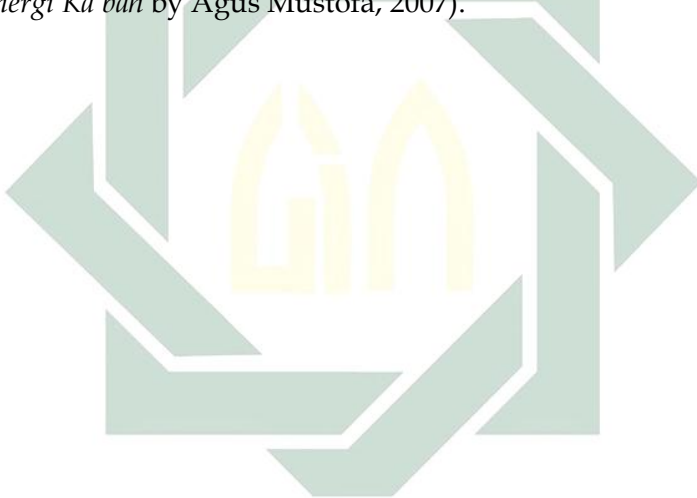
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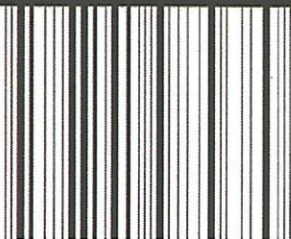




Communicative Teaching and Learning of English as a Foreign Language contains basic concepts of how to conduct communicative activities in the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in the classroom. It is intended to be used by Indonesian students of English Department who are majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) or prospective teachers who want to obtain some insights about what and how to undertake activities in their teaching and learning process of English lessons.

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