TEACHING ENGLISH
AS A
FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Prof. Dr. Hasanuddin, M.Hum

Teaching English as a Foreign Language is a subject matter that has to be taken by students in order to develop their competence related to strategic skills in teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia. This course is given to students of English Department before they practice in teaching English at schools. This book contains methods of teaching language skills, teaching language components, approaches to language teaching, various techniques of teaching English as a foreign language, and language learning strategies. It is also given cooperative learning.

This book consists of 13 chapters that propose to be learned by students in one semester. The chapters are (1) a brief history of language teaching, (2) language behavior and language learning, (3) the nature of approaches and methods in language teaching, (4) the oral approach and situational language teaching, (5) communicative competence and language teaching, (6) suggestopedia, (7) the silent way, (8) community language learning, (9) language learning strategies, (10) teaching reading, (11) teaching listening, (12) teaching writing, and (13) teaching speaking.

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Prof. Dr. Hasanuddin, M.Hum.

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Pertama-tama marilah kita memanjatkan puji dan syukur kehadirat Allah SWT, karena atas izin, rahmat dan petunjukNYA sehingga kita masih senantiasa berkarya demi kemajuan daerah khususnya Provinsi Gorontalo. Saya selaku Rektor menyambut dengan gembira dan penuh apresiasi atas penerbitan buku dosen di lingkungan Universitas Negeri Gorontalo.

Penerbitan buku ini dirangkaian dengan program Tahun Buku 2014 Universitas Negeri Gorontalo yang telah dicanangkan pada Januari 2014. Hal ini merupakan suatu gagasan dan upaya yang sungguh-sungguh para dosen sebagai ilmuan yang patut kita teladani. Betapa tidak, menulis dan menerbitkan karya seperti ini adalah sebuah pekerjaan mulia.

Buku yang ditulis oleh para dosen ini mengulas berbagai macam disiplin ilmu berdasarkan keahlian masing-masing dosen yang bersangkutan. Oleh sebab itu menurut pemahaman saya, buku ini sangat penting untuk dibaca, baik oleh pengambil kebijakan maupun kalangan akademisi dan mahasiswa yang ingin mendalami lebih jauh konsep berbagai disiplin ilmu. Saya berharap kiranya buku ini dapat memberi manfaat bagi masyarakat umum. Akhirnya, atas nama Rektor dan Civitas Akademika Universitas Negeri Gorontalo menyampaikan selamat kepada penulisnya. Semoga usaha dan gagasan yang baik ini dapat disambut dengan penuh suka cita. Selamat membaca.

Gorontalo, Medio Agustus 2014

Rektor Universitas Negeri Gorontalo

Dr. Syamsu Qamar Badu, MPd.

16808690

PREFACE

Teaching English as a Foreign Language is a subject matter that has to be taken by students in order to develop their competence related to strategic skills in teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia. This course is given to students of English Department before they practice in teaching English at schools. This book contains methods of teaching language skills, teaching language components, approaches to language teaching, various techniques of teaching English as a foreign language, and language learning strategies. It is also given cooperative learning.

Competency Standard are: students are able to teach English as a Foreign Language and they have competency in teaching language skills, language components. Besides that they have knowledge about theories of teaching and learning, various techniques of teaching English as a foreign language, learning strategies. According to the competency standard, the basic competences that have to be developed are: *cognitive aspect* that consists of (1) students are able to a brief history of language teaching, (2) students are able to understand theory of teaching and learning English as a Foreign Language, (3) students are able to understand approaches in teaching English as a foreign language, and (4) students are able to understand learning strategies in English; psychomotor aspect that consists of (1) students are able to use theory and approaches of language learning and teaching in teaching English as a foreign language', (2) students are able to apply various techniques in teaching English as a foreign language, and (3) students are able to use learning strategies for developing their language skills and, language components; and affective aspect that consists of (1) students are given the opportunity to practice teaching English as a foreign language, (2) students with a foreign language skill's teaching ability give them opportunity to

develop their strategic skills in teaching English as a foreign language. To reach this competency standard, this is book is presented.

This book consists of 13 chapters that propose to be learned by students in one semester. The chapters are (1) a brief history of language teaching, (2) language behavior and language learning, (3) the nature of approaches and methods in language teaching, (4) the oral approach and situational language teaching, (5) communicative competence and language teaching, (6) suggestopedia, (7) the silent way, (8) community language learning, (9) language learning strategies, (10) teaching reading, (11) teaching listening, (12) teaching writing, and (13) teaching speaking.

I am indebted to the administration of Gorontalo State University whose cooperation and services made in relating to this book. These include Dr. H. Syamsu Qamar Badu, M. Pd as the Rector, Prof, Dr. Moon H. Otoluwa, M.Pd as the Dean of Faculty of Letters and Culture, Adriansyah A Katili, S.S., M.Pd as the chairman of English Education Department. From the bottom of my heart, I would like to express my deepest gratitude and sincerest appreciation to my father and my mother, my brothers and my sisters for their encouragement and prayers for me. Especially to my father and my mother, my sincere thanks and appreciation are extended for bringing me as I am now.

Finally, I would like to dedicate this book to my wife St. Roskina Mas, my sons: Fadlih A.Hasanuddin, Abdi Dzul Ikram Hasanuddin, and Arham F.Hasanuddin, who exerted much understanding and patience for my busy tasks for preparing this book. Thanks to all of them for their solemn prayers for my achievement and success so far. I wish this book will bring them some meaning in their lives.

Gorontalo, Agustus 2014

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CHAPTER 1

A BRIEF HISTORY OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Short Description

This chapter describes a brief history of language teaching that consists of explaining grammar-translation method, understanding language teaching innovation in the nineteenth century, understanding reform movement, and understanding Direct Methods and its application.

Basic Competence

Students are able to understand a brief history of language teaching that consists of :

- Explain Grammar-Translation Method and its application
- Understand language teaching innovation in the ninteenth century
- Understand reform movement
- Understand the Direct Methods and its application.

Introduction

A brief history of language teaching has an important aspect for developing the concept of language teaching, especially teaching English as a foreign language. It provides a background for discussion of contemporary methods and suggests the issues that refers to analyzing these methods. From this historical perspective we are also able to see the concerns that have prompted modern method innovations on how to teach foreign languages. Changes in language teaching methods throughout history have reflected recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency

learner's need, such as a move toward oral proficiency rather than reading comprehension as the goal of language study.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) stated that sixty percent today's world population is multilingual. They also said that both from a contemporary and a historical perspective, bilingualism or multilingualism is the norm rather than the exception. Throughout the history of foreign language learning has always been an important practical concern. Whereas today English is studied most as a foreign language. But five hundred years ago, Latin was the dominant language of education, commerce, religion, and government in the western world. However, in the sixteenth century, Franch, Italian, and English gained in importance as a result of political changes in Europe, and Latin became displaced as a language of spoken and written communication.

There were occasional attempts to promote alternative approaches to education, Roger Ascham and Montaigne in the sixteenth century and Comenius and John Loeke in the seventeenth century, for example, had made specific proposals for curriculum and for changes in the way Latin was taught (Kelly 1969, Howart 1984), but since Latin had for so long been regarded as the classical and therefore most ideal form of language, it was not surprising that ideas about the role of language study in the curriculum reflected the long-established status of Latin.

As "modern" languages began to enter the curriculum of European schools in the nineteenth century, they were taught using the same procedures that were used for teaching Latin. Textbooks consisted of grammar rules, lists of vocabulary, and sentences for translation, and speaking the foreign language was not the goal and the oral practice was limited to students reading aloud the sentences they had translated. These sentences were constructed to illustrate the grammatical system and consequently no relation to the language of real communication.

By the nineteenth century, the standard way of studying foreign languages in schools based on the approach when they studied Latin. A typical textbook I the mid-nineteenth century that consisted of lessons

organized around grammar point that was listed, rules on its use were explained, and it was illustrated by sample sentences.

Nineteenth-century textbook compilers were determined to codify the foreign language into rules of morphology and syntax to be explained. The contents of the textbooks consisted of two parts, one giving the rules and necessary paradigms, and other giving French sentences for translation into German and German sentences for translation into French. This approach to foreign language teaching became known as the Grammar-Translation Method.

Grammar-Translation Method

Grammar translation method was first known in the United States as the Prussian Method, (A book by B. Sears, an American Classic Teacher, published in 1845 was entitled The Ciceronian or the Prussian Method of Teaching the Elements of the Latin Language (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Richards and Rodgers stated the principle characteristics of the Grammar-Translation Method were these:

(1) The goal foreign language study is to learn a language in order to read its literature or in order to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign language study. Grammar-Translation Method is a way of studying language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by the application of knowledge by translating sentences and texts into the target language.

(2) Reading and writing are the major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening.

(3) Vocabulary selection is based on reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study, and memorization. Grammar rules are presented and illustrated, a list of vocabulary items are presented with their translation equivalents.

(4) The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice, and the focus on the sentence was an attempt to make language learning easier.

(5) Accuracy is emphasized. Students are expected to attain high standards in translation.

(6) Grammar is taught deductively – that is, by presentation and study of grammar rules, which are then practiced through translation exercises. In most Grammar-Translation texts, a syllabus was followed for the sequencing of grammar points through out a text.

(7) The students' native language is the medium of instruction. It is used to explain new items and enable comparison to be made between the foreign language and the student's native language.

Grammar-translation methods dominated European and foreign language teaching from 1840s to 1940s and modified forms and it continues to be used in some parts of the world today. Grammar-translation method has been used by thousands of school learners, for whom foreign language learning meant of an experience of memorizing of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary and attempting to produce perfect translations. Although the Grammar-Translation Methods often creates frustration for students, it makes few demands on teachers. It is still used in situations where understanding literary texts in the primary focus of foreign language study and there is little need for a speaking. Contemporary texts for teaching of foreign languages at college level often reflect Grammar-Translation Principles. These texts are frequently the products of people trained in literature rather than in language teaching or applied linguistics. Consequently, though it may be true to say that the Grammar Translation Method is still practiced.

In the mid and late nineteen century opposition to the Grammar-Translation Method gradually developed in several European. This reform Movement laid the foundations for the development of new ways of teaching languages and raised controversies that have continued to the present day.

Language Teaching Innovations in the Nineteenth Century

Toward the mid-nineteenth century several factors contributed to a questioning and rejection of the Grammar-Translation Methods. Increased opportunities for communication among Europeans created a demand for oral proficiency in foreign languages. Initially this created a market for conversation books intended for private study, but language teaching specialists also turned their attention to the way modern languages were being taught in secondary schools. New approaches to language teaching were developed by individual language teaching specialists, like C. Marcel, T. Prendergast, and F.Gouin (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

The Frenchman C. Marcel (1793-1896) refereed to child language learning as a model of language teaching, emphasized the importance of meaning in learning, proposed that reading be taught before other skills, and tried to locate language teaching within a broader educational framework. The Englishman T. Prendergast (1806 -1886) was one the first to record the observation that children use contextual and situational cues to interpret utterances and that they use memorized phrases and routines in speaking. He proposed the first structural syllabus that learners be taught the most basic structural patterns occurring in the language. The Frenchman F.Gouin (1831-1896) is the best known of these mid-nineteenth century reformers. He developed to teaching a foreign language based on his observations of children use of language and he believed that language learning was facilitated through using language. His method used situations and themes as ways of organizing and presenting oral language.

Gouin has developed his first lesson of a foreign language that the following series would be learned:

I walk toward the door.	I walk.
I draw near the door.	I draw near.
I draw nearer to the door.	I draw nearer.
I get to the door.	I get to.
I stop at the door.	I stop.
I stretch out my arm.	I stretch out.
I take hold of the handle.	I take hold.

I open the door.	I open.
I pull the door.	I pull.
The door moves.	moves.
The door turns on its hinges.	Turns.
The dooe turns and turns	turns
I open the door wide.	I open.
I let go of the handle.	Let go.

(Tirone in Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

Gouin's emphasis on the need to present new teaching items in a contexts that makes their meanings of utterances, are practices that later became part of such approaches and methods as Situational Language Teaching and Total Physical Response.

The work of individual language specialists like this reflects the changing climate of the times in which they worked. Educators recognized the need of speaking proficiency rather than reading comprehension, grammar, or literary appreciation as the goal of foreign language programs. There was interest in how children learn languages which develop teaching principles from observation of child language learning.

But the ideas and methods of Marcel, Prendergast, Gouin, and other innovators are developed outside of education and hence lacked the means for wider dissemination, acceptance, and implementation. This began to change toward the end of the nineteenth century. Teachers and linguists began to write about the need for new approaches to language teaching and this effort became the Reform Movement in language teaching.

The Reform Movement

Marcel, Prendergast, and Gouin had promoted alternative approaches to language teaching, but their ideas failed to receive widespread support or attention. From 1880s, however, Henry Sweet in England, Wilhelm Victor in Germany, and Paul Passy in French began to provide the intellectual leadership needed to give reformist ideas greater credibility and acceptance. Linguists emphasized that speech rather than the written word, was the primary form of language. The international

Phonetic Association was founded in 1886, and its International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was designed to enable the sounds of any language to be accurately transcribed. One of the earliest goals of association was to improve the teaching of modern languages that advocated:

1. The study of the spoken language;
2. Phonetic training in order to establish good pronunciation habits;
3. The use of conversation text and dialogues to introduce conversational phrases and idioms;
4. An inductive approach to the teaching of grammar;
5. Teaching new meanings through establishing association with the target language rather than by establishing association with the mother tongue.

Henry Sweet (1845 -1912) argued that sound methodological principles should be on scientific analysis of language and a study of psychology. In his book The Practical Study of Languages (1899) he set forth principles for the development teaching methods that included:

1. Careful selection of what is to be taught;
2. Imposing limits on what is to be taught;
3. Arranging what is to be taught in terms of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing;
4. Grading materials from simple to complex.

Victor, Sweet, and other reformers in late nineteenth century shared many beliefs about the principles on which a new approach to teaching foreign languages should be based, and they advocated for teaching a language which believed that

1. The spoken language is primarily and that this should be reflected in an oral-based methodology;
2. The findings of phonetics should be applied to teacher and to teacher training;
3. Learner should hear the language first, before seeing it in written form;

4. Words should be presented in sentences, and sentences should be practiced in meaningful context – that is, grammar should be taught inductively;
5. Translation should be avoided, although the mother tongue could be used in order to explain new words or to check comprehension.

These principles provided the theoretical foundation for a principled approach to language teaching, one based on a scientific approach to the study of language and language learning. But parallel to ideas put forward by members of the Reform Movement was interest in developing principles for language teaching out of naturalistic principle of language learning. This led to what have been termed natural methods and led to the development of what came to be known as the Direct Method.

The Direct Method

Other reformers toward the end of the century likewise turned their attention to naturalistic principles of language learning, and for this reason they are referref to a natural method. In various times throughout the history of language teaching, attempts have been made to make second language learning more like first language learning. In the sixteenth century, for example, Montaigne described how was his son to speak Latin well. L. Sauveur (1826–1907) tried to applied natural principles to language classes who used intensive oral interaction in the target language and his method soon became referred to as the Natural Method.

The German scholar F. Franke wrote on the psychological principles of direct association between forms and meanings in the target language (1884) and provided a theoretical justification for a monolingual approach to teaching. According to Franke, a language could best be taught by using it actively in the classroom. Rather than using analytical procedures that focus on explanation of grammar rules in classroom teaching, teachers must encourage direct and spontaneous use of the foreign language in the classroom. Learners would then be able to induce rules of grammar. The teacher replaced the textbook in the early stages of learning and speaking

began with systematic attention to pronunciation. Known words could be used to teach new vocabulary, using mime, demonstration, and pictures.

These natural language principles provided the foundation for what came to known as the Direct Method, which refers to the natural method. Direct Methos was introduced in Germany and in French, and also in the United States that promoted by Sauveur and Mximilan Berlitz in successful commercial language schools. In practice it stood for the following principles and procedures:

1. Classroom interaction was conducted exclusively in the target language.
2. Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.
3. Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progress organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
4. New teaching points were introduced orally.
5. Grammar was taught inductively.
6. Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, pictures, abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.
7. Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.
8. Concrete pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.

The Direct method was quite successful in private language schools, such as those of the Berlitz chain, where paying clients high attention and motivation and the use of native speaking teachers was the norm. But it was difficult to implement in public secondary school education. In overemphasized and distorted the similarities between the naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language learning and failed to consider the practical realities of the classroom. Direct Method was perceived to have several drawbacks. First, it required teachers who were native speakers or who had native-like fluency in the foreign language. Second, Direct Method tried to teach conversation skills that was considered impractical in view of the restricted time available for foreign language teaching. Finally, it offered innovation at the level of teaching procedures, but lacked a thorough methodological bases.

What became of the concept of method as foreign language teaching emerged as a significant educational issues in the nineteenth and the twentieth centuries? We have seen from this historical survey some of the questions that prompted innovation and new directions in language teaching in the past:

1. What should the goals of language teaching be? Should a language course try to teach conversational proficiency, reading, translation, or some other skill?
2. What is the basic nature of language, and will this affect teaching method?
3. What are the principles for the selection of language content in language teaching?
4. What principles of organization, sequencing , and presentation best facilitate learning?
5. What should the role of the native language be?
6. What process do learners use in mastering a language, and can these be incorporated into a method?
7. What teaching techniques and activities work best and under what circumstances?

Summary

This chapter describes a brief history of language teaching that consists of explaining grammar-translation method, understanding language teaching innovation in the nineteenth century, understanding reform movement, and understanding Direct Methods and its application. It also explains Grammar-Translation Method and its application. A brief history of language teaching has an important aspect for developing the concept of language teaching, especially teaching English as a foreign language. Whereas today English is studied most as a foreign language.

Grammar-Translation Method is a way of studying language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by the application of knowledge by translating sentences and texts into the target language.

Contemporary texts for teaching of foreign languages at college level often reflect Grammar-Translation Principles.

There was interest in how children learn languages which develop teaching principles from observation of child language learning. Teachers and linguists began to write about the need for new approaches to language teaching and this effort became the Reform Movement in language teaching. In various times throughout the history of language teaching, attempts have been made to make second language learning more like first language learning. Grammar was taught inductively. Some important questions to be developed are:

What should the goals of language teaching be? Should a language course try to teach conversational proficiency, reading, translation, or some other skill?

What is the basic nature of language, and will this affect teaching method?

What are the principles for the selection of language content in language teaching

Questions

1. Describe a brief history of language teaching and the existence of grammar translation method and direct method.
2. What are the principle characteristics of grammar-translation method?
3. What are principles and procedure direct method?
4. What are differences between grammar-translation method and direct method?

Tasks

1. Design syllabus and lesson plan by using grammar-translation method for Junior High Scholl students.
2. Design syllabus and lesson plan by using direct method for Senior High School students.
3. Prepare teaching materials according to task 1 and 2.

CHAPTER 2

LANGUAGE BEHAVIOR AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Short Description

This chapter explains language behavior and language learning that consists of grammar and language behavior, observation in the study of grammar and language behavior, language learning, and approaches to language learning.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain language behavior and language learning that covers

- Grammar and language behavior
- Language learning
- Approaches to language learning

Introduction

This chapter presents knowledge's and ideas about language behavior and language learning in general and touch upon a number of questions concerning language behavior and language learning. 'Perspectives' is the key word in this chapter. It touches a number a number of questions concerning language behavior and language learning that can be discussed. For language behavior, these surveys may be psycholinguistically or sociolinguistically iriented that refer to Clark and Clark (1977), Palermo (1978), and Hudson (1980).

The discussion of language behavior is focused on a streuctural approach to the phenomenon of 'language' as oppossed to a procedural or

functional approach and the consequences of these differences in approach for what is considered relevant data for a theory of language behavior.

The discussion of language learning is paid attention to a number of different theories how children learn language. The theoretical orientations will be in that order: a behavioristic one, a mentalistic one, and a procedural one.

Language Behavior

Grammar and Language Behavior

Language is the most important medium of human communication. It is both unique to the species and universal within that same species : only humans can learn to make use of verbal communication, and all human behavior essentially different from animal behaviour : language behaviour essentially different from animal behaviour. It presupposes both sender (speaker or writer) and receiver (listener or reader) of verbal information. The former usees an auditory in fig. 2.1

Fig. 2.1 Schematic representation of language behavior

Depending on the nature of the cannel (auditory or visual) and the direction of cummunication (sender or receiver) we can distinguish the following four variants of language behavior :

	Language production	Language comprehension
Oral language behavior	speaking	listening
Written language behavior	writing	reading

Fig. 2.2. Variants of language behavior

In a number of respects, oral and written language behaviour are very different phenomena. We shall discuss these differennces at the end of this chapter.

The concept of communication presupposes an intention to communicate. Fig.2.1, however, only displays the sending and receiving of verbal information, nor what the listerner does with the information he has received. Speakers develop a speech plan with specific intentions, and then execute this plan in the shape of temporally organized speech. Listeners indentify this speech and then use this interpretation in a specific way (for instance by answering a question or carrying out a command.

The process of language production consists of two phases: a planning phase and an execution phase. The planning phase consists of **goal, planning, process**, and **plan**; while the execution phase comprises **plan, execution, process**, and **action** leading to articulation of the speech organs, writing, the use of gestures or signs. In every one of these phase and their components, feedback or monitoring takes place, which often allows for an immediate correction in planning or execution processes. The role of the planning phase is therefore to develop a plan (Nur, 1994). Speakers develop a speech plan with specific intentions, and then execute in the shape of temporally organized speech. Listeners identify this speech stream in a specific way (as a question, promise, command, declaration, etc.), and then use this interpretation in a specific way (for instance by answering a question, or carrying out a command). These different steps in language behavior (production and reception) can be presented in figure 2. 3

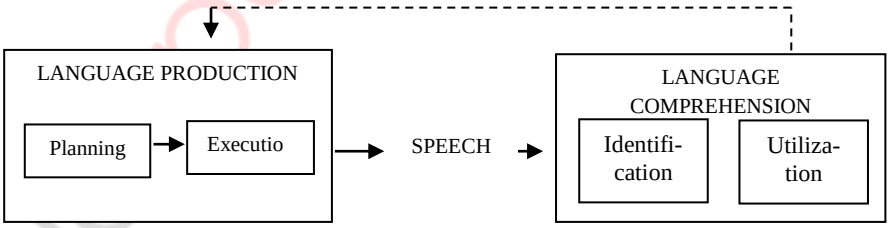


Figure 2.3 Language behavior

In order for the plan to match the goal, the speaker has to base the plan on an analysis of the given situation and its resources (linguistic knowledge) with regard to the goal. The situation can be very formal due to participants' role or topic being talked. The strong influential factors in speech situations are the participants and the relation between them, the topics, and the purpose of communicati

The planning processes in first language communication are normally subconscious and highly automatic. However, planning in the second or foreign language process can be, more or less, conscious depending on the linguistic knowledge. The monitoring controls much of the plan and the execution of the plan by referring to the linguistic rules and items that have been learned and acquired (Krashen, 1987).

The problems may come up both in planning and execution phases, that is, insufficient linguistic resources in the former, and concern about fluency and accuracy in the latter. Accordingly, communication strategies may operate in both phases; planning and execution. The whole processes of speech production are described in the following figure.

Speech is based on linguistic code. Both speakers and listeners must be acquinted with this code that consists of a series of hierarchically ordered units represented in figure 2.5. A series of hierarchically ordered units consist of phonemes, words, constituents, sentences, and texts.

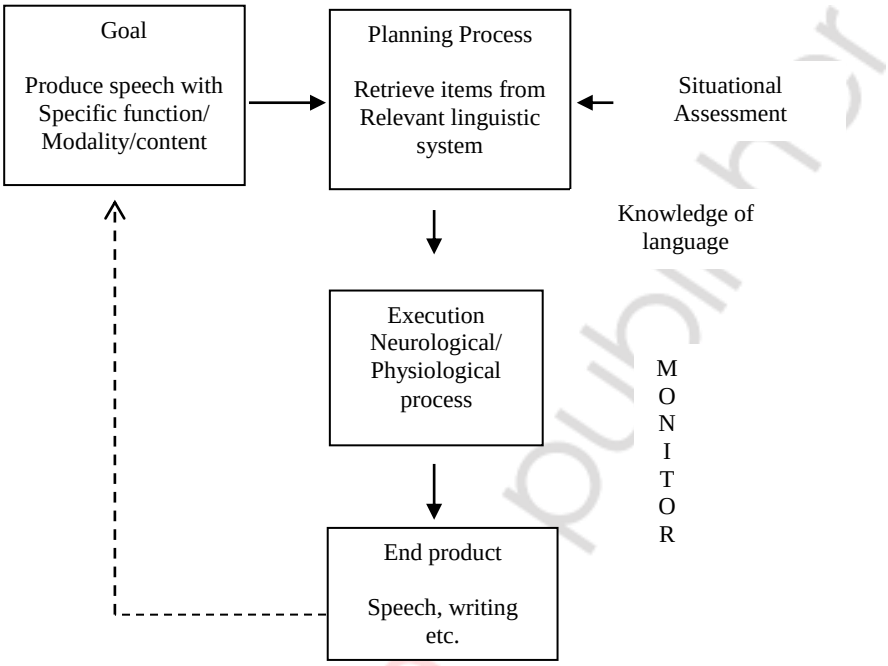


Figure 2. 4 A model of speech production(adapted from Faerch and Kasper, 1983:25)

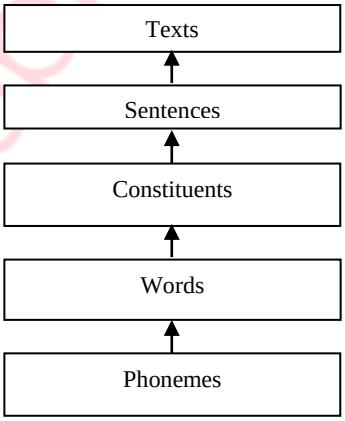


Figure 2.5 Hierarchical structure of the linguistic code

All of these linguistic units exhibit a large number of universal characteristics. Each language, for instance, has vowels and consonants, and phonemes with distinctive features and distributional characteristics. Furthermore, each language has function words and content words. At the constituent level, one can distinguish between nominal and verbal constituents in all languages, and comparable syntactic relation hold between two types of constituent such as subject, object, and predicate. At the sentence level, it is possible in any language to perform various types of speech acts, e.g., qquestion vs statement, direct vs indirect speech acts and finally, sentences may be combined into texts, e.g. monologues, or dialogues.

Psycholinguistic research into language behavior covers all the levels listed in figure 2.6. The higher level of these procedures is, the less automatic the language behavior will be, and decision times will be longer. At the most elementary level, that of phonemic procedures, we already find quite complex behavior in the production and comprehension of language.

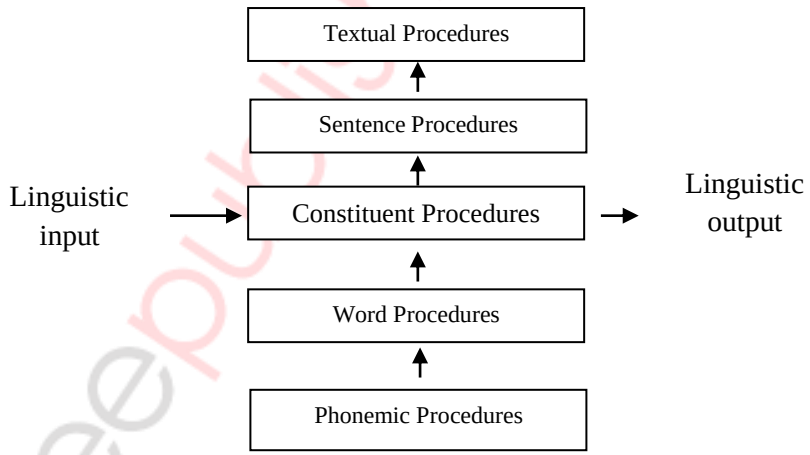


Figure 2.5 Hierarchical structure of the linguistic code

Language production and language comprehension process are so complex because because the creative possibilities at each of the levels, are always producing and comprehending new words, constituents, sentences, and texts. Within production and comprehension of language, and the development of both forms of language behavior, we can further distinctions such as speech vs writing, first (native) language vs second language, and normal vs impaired language behavior.

Language Learning

Languaage learning is based on the development of the hierarchy of skills listed in figure 2.5. The research into language learning has increased enormously in the last 20 years. Dale (1976) and De Villers and De Villers (1978) give an excellent outline of these developments.

For the theory of language learning, the development from a behavioristic to mentalistic psychology has been crucial importance. Behaviorists theories base on observable behavior in the decsription and explanation of learning behavior, while mentalistic theories bas on structure and mechanisms of the mind for such description and explanation. Bahavioristic ideas about language learning are based on a theory of learning which is focused on the role of environment, both verbal and non verbal. Mentalistic ideas about language learning are based mainly on theoretical linguistics assumptions which focus on the innate capacity of any child to learn any language.

Behavioristic and mentalistic ideas about language learning have led reseaechers to take extreme positions that develop a procedural approach to language learning. This procedural approach, while maintaining a mentalistic outlook, exhibits a renewed interest in the structure and function of children linguistic input, away from innate versus learned linguistic ability, and towards the children capacity to discover structure in the language around them. The discussion of these three approaches to the process of language learning will be discussed in the following subsection.

A Behavioristic Approach

Behaviorist or connectionist learning theories and explain behavior using an SR-model that is established between stimulus or stimulus situation (S) and the the organism's response (R) to this stimulus. In behaviorist psychology, Behavior of humans and animals may be learned. That behavior will be limited only the most elementary types of learning that is seen as an argument in favour of its fundamental characters: the more general the learning theory is, the more valuable it is. The theory has to explain the learning behavior of all animate beings, no allowance is made, for explanation of human behavior, for such non-observable, especially human factors as plans, intentions, attitudes.

The main representative of this approach is Skinner (1957) that defined the notion of reinforcement. If a certain action repeatedly leads to a positive or a negative result, the odds of recurrence or non-recurrence of this action will increase. Skinner speaks of positive reinforcement if the action is not repeated. If an action is seen as a response as to a certain stimulus, positive reinforcement could also be defined as increase in the probability of occurance of a response to a stimulus as a result of the fact that this response, being correct, is rewarded. Negative reinforcement, then, can be defined as a decrease in the probability of oocurance of a response as a result of the fact that this response, being wrong, is punished.

Skinner (1957) moreover states that the analysis of language behavior is done by tracing the factors influencing this behavior in which these factors describe stimulus and response. Each stimulus follows verbal or non-verbal stimulus and there is a stimulus situation causing somebody to respond with an utterance. According to Skinner, language behavior can studied through observation of the world around the language users; that is, through external factors. One important external factor in the language process is the frequency of utterance that is used in the child environment. In the behaviorists' view, children imitate language in their environment to a considerable degree, and imitation is a strong contributing factor in the language learning process. In addition, reinforcement is needed to arrive at a higher level of language proficiency. In this way, the environment

encourages the child to produce grammatical utterances, while not encouraging ungrammatical utterances.

A Mentalistic Approach

Verbal behavior delivers the first serious attach on the behaviorist ideas about language learning. Chomsky (1959) argues that human behavior is more complex than animal behavior and certain language behavior is so complex than animal behavior. According to Chomsky, a description of language behavior cannot be just a description of external stimuli and responses, but it has to be a description of the innate ability of human beings to learn a language.

In 1960 Chomsky has developed a revolution of ideas about language learning. Until that time, most attention has been paid to the external linguistic factors. After 1960, the contribution of the main factor in the learning process of the child itself, began to play more dominant role. The revolution was strongly influenced by the rapid rise of a new development in linguistics with Chomsky's Transformational-Generative Grammar (TG) that was a source of inspiration for all sorts of experiments in language learning research.

In TG it is assumed that the ability to learn language is innate; the so called Language Acquisition Device or LAD that enables the child to make hypothesis about the structure of language in general. This is not a conscious process. The hypothesis the child subconsciously set up are tested in its use of language, and continuosly matched with the new linguistic input by the child obtains by listening to is said in its immediate environment.

Children imitate words and structures which adults in their environment use. These deviations are systematic. Systematic deviations from the language of adults are strongly evidence against which reduces the learning of language to imitative behavior.

Els et al (1984) give examples of overgeneralization that occur in nonlinguistic rules for instance, the plural nouns (mouses, mans) and past form of the verb (comed, goed). Overgeneralization is often made by a

child who learn a language. The child imitates that all the plural nouns have to be added by s or es ending. Beside that he thinks that all past-form verbs are added by –ed ending.

The following consideration demonstrate that the frequency of words and structure used in the child environment has considerably less influence on its language development that behaviorist theory tends to suggest:(1) overgeneralization of rules in past-tense formation occurs especially in those verbs which are frequent in adult language use, the so-called 'irregular verb', (2) function words and word endings show relatively little variation in English (e.g. the two articles a(n)/ the perfect or the past tense of the verb, -ed), (3) in a longitudinal multiple case study, investigated the acquisition order of 14 so called grammatical morphemes (word endings and function words). It turned out that the acquisition order for those grammatical morphemes was quite similar for all children.

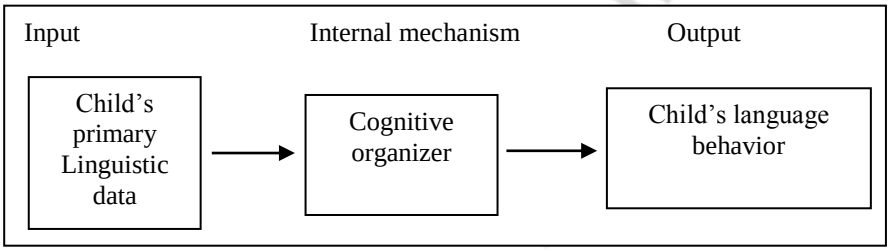
Behaviorists see parental approval as one of the most important types of reinforcement in the language learning process: (1) the hypothesis that reinforcement will lead to dominance of grammatically correct sentences is based on the assumption that parental approval and disapproval are dependent on the grammatical acceptability of the chilld's utterance; (2) even if the child only uses a very primitive linguistic system, communication, specially with his parents, is possible. The child will, however, start to produce more complex utterances at a later stage.

A Procudural Approach

Chomsky rejects Scinnerian behaviorism, and he concludes that we need a theory of grammar which will establish the formal properties of grammar. This, however, leaves us with the following problem: although such a study, even if successful, would by no means answer the major problems involved in the investigation of meaning and the causation of behavior, it surely will not be unrelated to those (Chomsky, 1959). In a linguistic theory, Chomsky establishes what is learned, does not establish the actual operation of the process of learning. However, this gap between

the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of language learning that have to be explained the process of language learning.

The procedural approach to language development in which the interaction between internal and external factors is once again central, is of a more recent date. The starting point in this approach, which remains a mentalistic one, is children’s cognitive capacity to discover structure in the language around them. Both children comprehension and production of language are seen as based on a continuously expanding and changing system of discovery procedures as presented as follows:



2.6 The input/output system in language development

The output can be considered based on two questions: (1) what is the structure and function of the input? (2) what does the child’s cognitive organization consist of, that is causes these differences between input and output?

In accordance with two questions, we consider two separated explanations related to these questions. **First**, One of the assumption of mentalistic approach to language learning was originally that children’s linguistic input is completely unstructured. Under this assumption, there is no difference between what is said to children and what is said to adults: both contain ungrammatical utterances, false starts, slips of the tongue, and other kinds of speech errors. A result of this assumption was that there was any interest in the actual linguistic input children receive. De Villiers and De Villiers in Ells el all (1984) summarize our knowledge of differences between adult-child and adult-adult speech, They divided into four types of differences. The four types are (1) phonological differences that are

characterized by higher pitch, slower speech, and distince pauses between utterances, and also phonological simplification; (2) syntactic differences that are indicated by shorter and less varies utterance length, many partial/complete repetition, many constituents uttered in isolation, transformationally less complex, more imperative and questions to young children; (3) semantic differences that are observed that more limited vocabulary use, but with unique words for objects and many diminutives, reference invariably to the here and now; words have concrete referents and there are few references to the past; and more limited range of semantic relation; and (4) pragmatic differences that are more directive, imperative, questions, and more deictic utterances.

Second, Even if modifications in children's linguistic input are helpul to learning, we are left with the problem of how to explain the differences between children input and output. Slobin (1973) has described children's cognitive organization of language that has presented the basis of data from a large number unrelated language, formulating a number of operating principles which have played an important role in the literature on language learning. Clark and Clark (1977) have recorded and reformulated these operating principles that consist of semantic coherence and surface structure. Semantic coherence is focused on (1) look for systematic modifications in the forms of words, (2) look for grammatical markers that indicate underlying semantic distinctions clearly and make semantic sense, and (3) avoid exceptions. Surface structure is focused on (1) pay attention to the ends of words, (2) pay attention to the order of words, prefixes, and suffixes, and (3) avoid interruption or rearrangement of linguistic units.

Summary

This chapter explains language behavior and language learning that consists of grammar and language behavior, observation in the study of grammar and language behavior, language learning, and approaches to language learning. This chapter presents knowledge's and ideas about language behavior and language learning in general and touch upon a

number of questions concerning language behavior and language learning. It touches a number a number of questions concerning language behavior and language learning that can be discussed. The discussion of language learning is paid attention to a number of different theories how children learn language.

Language is the most important medium of human communication. Fig. 2.1 Schematic representation of language behavior. The process of language production consists of two phases: a planning phase and an execution phase. The planning phase consists of **goal, planning, process**, and **plan**; while the execution phase comprises **plan, execution, process**, and **action** leading to articulation of the speech organs, writing, the use of gestures or signs. Furthermore, each language has function words and content words. Psycholinguistic research into language behavior covers all the levels listed in figure 2.6.

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Overgeneralization is often made by a child who learn a language. The input/output system in language development. One of the assumption of mentalistic approach to language learning was originally that children's linguistic input is completely unstructured. Slobin (1973) has described children's cognitive organization of language that has presented the basis of data from a large number unrelated language, formulating a number of operating principles which have played an important role in the literature on language learning.

Questions

1. Explain the variant of language behavior.
2. Describe schematic representation of language behavior.
3. Mention and explain two phases of language production proves.
4. Compare four approaches to language learning.

CHAPTER 3

THE NATURE OF APPROACHES AND METHODS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Short Description

Chapter 3 describes about the nature of approaches and methods in language teaching that explains approach and method, approach, design, and procedure. Moreover, the discussion is also focused on the design that covers objectives, types of learning and teaching activities, learner roles, teacher roles, and the role of instructional materials.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply approaches and methods in language teaching that cover

- The nature of approaches and methods in language teaching
- Approach and method, design, and procedure
- Theory of language
- Theory of learning

Introduction

The nature of approaches and methods in language teaching is very essential aspects of teaching and learning process. The design, procedure of teaching language, e.g English as a foreign language has to be based on approaches and methods chosen. Therefore, the discussion of this section will be on approach and method, approach, design, and procedure. The three key words will be explained in the following sections. As the study

of teaching methods and procedures in language teaching assumed a more central role within applied linguistics and various attempts have been made to conceptualize the nature of methods and to explore more systematically relationship between theory and practice within a method.

Approaches and Methods

Many linguists and language specialist sought to improve the quality of language teaching in the late nineteenth century. They sought about theories and methods in language teaching, especially related to language to be learned. In describing methods, the difference between a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory, and procedures of teaching a language, is a central. Edward Anthony in 1963 has identified three levels of conceptualization and organization, which he termed approach, method, and technique.

According to Anthony, an approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning and describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught. Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentations of language material, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. A technique is implementation – that which actually takes place in a classroom.

According to Anthony's model, approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning specified; the method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught; the technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described. Anthony's model is a useful way of distinguishing different degrees of abstraction and specificity found in different language teaching proposals.

Although Anthony's original proposal has the advantage of simplicity and comprehensiveness and serves as a useful way of distinguishing the relationship between underlying theoretical principles and the practices derived from them. The implementation phase, we refer to the more comprehensive term procedure. Thus, a method is theoretically

related to an approach, is organizationally is determined by a design, and is practically realized in procedure.

Approach

In accordance with Anthony, approach refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching. We will examine the linguistic and psycholinguistic aspects of approach in turn.

Theory of Language

Richards and Rodgers (1986) stated at least three different theoretical views of the nature of language proficiency explicitly or implicitly inform current approaches and methods in language teaching. The first is structural view, the view that language is a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning. The target of language learning is seen to be mastery of elements of this system which are defined in terms of phonological units and grammatical operations.

The second view of language is the functional view, the view that language is used for the expression of functional meaning. The communicative movement in language teaching subscribes to this view of language that emphasizes the semantic and communicative dimension rather than merely the grammatical characteristics of language, and leads to a specification and organization of language teaching content by categories of meaning and function rather than by elements of structure and grammar.

The third view of language is the interactional view. It sees language as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals, and language is as a tool for the creation and maintenance of social relations. Areas of inquiry drawn on in the development of interactional approaches to language teaching include interaction analysis, conversation analysis, and ethnomethodolgy.

Theory of Language Learning

A learning theory underlying an approach or method responds to two questions: (1) what are the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning? And (2) what are the conditions that need to be met in order for these learning processes to be activated? Learning theories associated with a method at the level of approach may emphasize either one or both of these dimensions. Condition-oriented theories build on learning processes, such as habit formation, induction, inferencing, hypothesis testing, and generalization.

Krashen (1981) with Monitor Model of second language development exemplified a learning theory in which monitor theory addresses both the process and the condition dimensions of learning. At the level of process, Krashen distinguishes between acquisition and learning. Acquisition refers to the natural assimilation of language rules through using language for communication. Learning refers to the formal study of language rules and is a conscious process.

Terrell's Natural Approach (1977) is an example of a method derived from a learning theory rather than from a particular view of language. Although the natural approach is based on a learning theory that specifies both processes and conditions, the learning theory underlying such methods as Counseling-Learning and the Silent Way. Curran (1972) for example, focuses on the conditions necessary for successful learning. He believes the atmosphere of the classroom is a crucial factor. Moreover, Asher's (1977) learning theory addresses both the process and condition aspects of learning. It is based on the belief that child language learning is based on motor activity, on coordinating language with action, and should form the basis of adult foreign language teaching.

Design

Richards and Rodgers (1986) state that it is necessary to develop a design for instructional system. They claim that design is the level of method analysis that consider six important questions. These questions are (1) what are the objectives of a method are; (2) how language content is

selected and organized within the method, that is, the syllabus model the method incorporates; (3) the types of learning tasks and teaching activities that the method advocates; (4) the role of the learners, (5) the roles of teachers, and (6) the role of instructional materials.

Objectives

The specification of particular learning objectives influences language and language learning theories. The methods we choose have to be based on learning objectives. For example, if we focus of our learning objectives on oral skills and say that the reading and writing skills are secondary and derive from transfer of oral skill and give greater priority to the ability to express oneself meaningfully and to make oneself understand than to grammatical accuracy. Others place a greater emphasis on accurate grammar and pronunciation from the very beginning. Some methods set out to teach the basic grammar and vocabulary of a language. The process-oriented objective may be offered in contrast to the linguistically oriented or product –oriented objectives of more traditional methods.

Content Choice and Organization: the Syllabus

All methods of language teaching involve the use of the target language that involve overt or convert decisions concerning the selection of language items (words, sentence patterns, tenses, constructions, functions, topics, etc.) that are to be used within an course or method. Decisions about the choice of language content relate both to subject matter and linguistic matter. For example, ESP courses are necessary subject matter focused. Structurally based method, such as Situational Language Teaching and the Audiolingual Method, are necessary linguistically focused. Content issues involve the principles of selection that shape the syllabus adopted in a course as well as the instructional materials that are used, together with the principles of gradation the method adopts.

The term syllabus refers to the form in which linguistic content is specified in a course or method. Syllabus and syllabus principles for

audiolingual, structural-situational, and notional-functional methods as well as in ESP approaches to language program design can be readily identified. The syllabus underlying the Situational and Audiolingual methods consists of a list of grammatical items, and construction, and often together with an associated list of vocabulary items (Fries and Fries, 1961). Notional-functional syllabuses specify the communicative content of a course in terms of functions, notions, topics, grammar, and vocabulary.

Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

Difference among methods at the level of approach manifest themselves in the choice of different kinds of learning and teaching activities in the classroom. Teaching activities that focus on grammatical accuracy may be quite different from those that focus on communicative skills. Activities designed to focus on the development of specific psycholinguistic processes in language acquisition will differ from particular features of grammar.

Different philosophies at the level of approach may be reflected both in the use of different kinds of activities and different uses for particular activity types. For example, interactive games are often used in audiolingual courses for motivation and to provide a change of pace from pattern-practice drills. Differences in activity types in methods may also involve different arrangements and groupings of learners.

Learner Roles

A method reflects explicit or implicit responses to questions concerning the learners' contribution to the learning process. Johnson and Paulstone (1976) spell out learner roles in an individualized approach to language learning in the following terms: (1) learners plan their own learning program and thus ultimately assume responsibility for what they do in the classroom, (2) learners monitor and evaluate their own progress, (3) learners are members of a group and learn by interacting with others,

(4) learners tutor other learners, (5) learners learn from the teacher, from other students, and from other teaching sources.

Teacher Roles

Teacher roles are similarly related ultimately both to assumption about language and language learning at the level of approach. Some methods are totally dependent on the teacher as a source of knowledge and direction, consultant, guide, and model for learning, and also teacher initiative and by building instructional content and direction into texts or lesson plans. Teacher and learner roles define the type of interaction characteristic of classrooms in which a particular method is being used.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) state four issues of teacher roles in methods: (1) the types of functions teachers are expected to fulfill, whether that of practice director, counselor, or model, for example; (2) the degree of control the teacher has over how learning take place; (3) the degree to which the teacher is responsible for determining the content of what is taught; and (4) the interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners.

The Role of Instructional Materials

The last component within the level of design concerns the role of instructional materials within the instructional system. What is specified with respect to objectives, content (i.e., the syllabus), learning activities, and learner and teacher roles suggests the function for materials within the system. The syllabus defines linguistic content in terms of language elements – structures, topics, notions, functions, - or in some cases in terms of learning tasks (Johnson, 1982; Prabhu 1983). It also defines the goals of language learning in terms of speaking, listening, reading or writing skills.

The role of instructional materials within a method or instructional system will reflect decisions concerning the primary goal of materials (e.g., to present content, to practice content, to facilitate communication between learners, or to enable learners to practice content without

teacher's help), the form of materials (e.g., textbooks, audiovisual, computer software), the relation of materials to other sources of input.

A particular design for an instructional system may imply a particular set of roles for materials in support of the syllabus and the teachers and the learners. For example, the role of instructional materials within functional/communicative methodology may be specified by Richards and Rodgers (1986) in the following: (1) materials will focus on the communicative abilities of interpretation, expression, and negotiation, (2) materials will focus on understandable, relevant, and interesting exchanges information, rather than on the presentation of grammatical form, (3) materials will involve different kinds of texts and different media, which the learners can use to develop their competence through a variety of different activities and tasks.

Procedure

The last level of conceptualization and organization within a method is procedure that encompasses the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and behaviors that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method. Its is a level that describes how a method realizes its approach and deign in classroom behavior. At the level of design, a method will advocate the use of certain types of teaching activities as a consequence of its theoretical assumptions about language and language learning.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) divide three dimensions to a method at the level of procedure: (1) the use of teaching activities (drills, dialogues, information-gap activities, ect.) to present new language and to clarify and demonstrate formal, communicative and other aspects of the target language; (2) the ways in which particular teaching activities are used for practicing language; and (3) the procedures and techniques used in giving feedback to learners concerning the form or content of their utterance or sentences.

Essentially, then, procedure focuses on the way a method handles the presentation, practice, and feedback phases of teaching. Richards and

Rodgers exemplify the procedural aspects of a beginning Silent Way course based on Stevick (1980) as follows:

1. The teacher points at meaningless symbols on a wall chart. The symbol represent the syllables of the spoken language. The students read the sounds aloud, first in chorus and then individually.
2. After the students can pronounce the sounds, the teacher moves to second sets of charts containing words frequently used in the language, including numbers. The teacher leads the students to pronounce long numbers.
3. The teacher uses colored rods together with charts and gestures to lead the students into producing the words and basic grammatical structures needed.

Summary

The nature of approaches and methods in language teaching is very essential aspects of teaching and learning process. The design, procedure of teaching language , e.g English as a foreign language has to be based on approaches and methods chosen.

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In accordance with Anthony, approach refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching. Richards and Rodgers (1986) stated at least three different theoretical views of the nature of language proficiency explicitly or implicitly inform current approaches and methods in language teaching.

A learning theory underlying an approach or method responds to two questions: (1) what are the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning? Acquisition refers to the natural

assimilation of language rules through using language for communication. Learning refers to the formal study of language rules and is a conscious process.

Although the natural approach is based on a learning theory that specifies both processes and conditions, the learning theory underlying such methods as Counseling-Learning and the Silent Way. Moreover, Asher's (1977) learning theory addresses both the process and condition aspects of learning. It is based on the belief that child language learning is based on motor activity, on coordinating language with action, and should form the basis of adult foreign language teaching.

The specification of particular learning objectives influences language and language learning theories. The methods we choose have to be based on learning objectives. Some methods set out to teach the basic grammar and vocabulary of a language. All methods of language teaching involve the use of the target language that involve overt or convert decisions concerning the selection of language items (words, sentence patterns, tenses, constructions, functions, topics, etc.) that are to be used within an course or method. Structurally based method, such as Situational Language Teaching and the Audiolingual Method, are necessary linguistically focused. Difference among methods at the level of approach manifest themselves in the choice of different kinds of learning and teaching activities in the classroom.

Teacher roles are similarly related ultimately both to assumption about language and language learning at the level of approach. At the level of design, a method will advocate the use of certain types of teaching activities as a consequence of its theoretical assumptions about language and language learning.

Questions

1. Why nature of approaches and methods in language teaching is very essential aspects of teaching and learning process?
2. What are differences between approaches and methods according to Antony's model?
3. Approach refers to a theory of language and theory of language learning. Distinguish the two terms.
4. Explain the concepts of design and procedure in language teaching.

CHAPTER 4

THE ORAL APPROACH AND SITUATIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHING

Short Description

The terms Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching are familiar with few language teachers in the 1980s. These terms refer to an approach to language teaching developed by British applied linguists from the 1930s to the 1960s. Oral Approach and Situational language Teaching has shaped the design of many used EFL textbooks, and courses. Therefore, this chapter also explains approach, design, and procedure in Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply approaches and methods in language teaching that cover

- Oral Approach in language teaching
- Situational language teaching
- Approach and method, design, and procedure
- Theory of language
- Theory of learning

Introduction

The origins of this approach begin with the work of British applied linguists in the 1920s and 1960s. Beginning at this time, a number of applied linguists developed the basis for a principle approach to

methodology in language teaching. Harold Palmer and A.S. Hornby were the most prominent figures in British twentieth-century language teaching. (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

One of the first aspects of method design to be paid attention was the role of vocabulary. In the 1920s and 1930s several large-scale investigations of foreign language vocabulary were undertaken. The research came from two quarters. First, there was a general consensus among language teaching specialists, such as Palmer, that vocabulary was one of the most important aspects of foreign language learning. A second influence was the increased emphasis on reading skills as the goal of foreign language study in some countries. This led to the development of principles of vovabulary control, which were to have a major practical impact on the teaching of English in the following decade.

Parallel to the interest in developing rational principles for vocabulary selection was a focus on the grammatical content of a language course. Palmer had emphasized the problems of grammar for the foreign learner. He was directed toward developing classroom procedures suited to teaching basic grammatical patterns through an oral approach. Besides, Hornby and other British applied linguists analyzed patterns which could be used to help internalize the rules English sentence structure. Moreover, classification of English sentence patterns was incorporated into the first dictionary for students of English as a foreign language, developed by Hornby, Gatenby, and Wakefield and published in 1953 as The Advanced *Learner's Dictionary of Current English*.

The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching

Palmer, Hornby, and other British applied linguists from the 1920s onward developed an approach to methodology that involved systematic principles of selction (procedures by which lexical and grammatical content was chosen) gration (principles by which the organization and sequencing of content were determined), and presentation (techniques used for presentation and practice of items in a course.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) have explained some supported development of the Oral Approach that was accepted British approach to English language teaching by the 1950s that described the standard methodology textbooks of period, such as French (1948-50), Gurrey (1955), Frisby (1957), and Billows (1961). Its principles are seen in Hornbys famous Oxford Progressive English Course for Adult Learners (1954-6) and in many other more recent textbooks.

Pittman was also responsible for the situationally based materials developed by the Commonwealth Office of Education in Sydney Australia, used in the English programs for immigrants in Australia. These were published for worldwide use in 1965 as the series Situational English. The main characteristics of the approach that Richards and Rodgers stated as follows:

1. Language teaching begins with the spoken language. Material is taught orally before it is presented in written form.
2. The target language is the language of the classroom.
3. New language points are introduced and practiced situationally.
4. Vocabulary selection procedures are allowed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary coverd.
5. Items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before complex ones.
6. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established.

Approach

Theory of Language

The theory of language underlying Situational Language Teaching can be characterized as a type of British "structuralism". Speech was regarded as the basis of language, and structure was viewed as being the heart of speaking ability. Palmer, Hornby, and other British applied linguists had prepared pedagogical descriptions on the basic grammatical structures of English, and these were to be followed in the developing methodology. They developed principle classroom activity in the teaching

of English structure will be the oral practice of structures. This oral practice of control sentence patterns should be given in situations design to give the greatest amount of practice of English speech to the pupils.

The theory of that knowledge of structures must be linked to situations in which they could be used gave situational language teaching one of distinctive features. This may be reflected the functional trends in British linguistics since thirties. Many British linguists had emphasized the close relationship between the structure of language and the contexts and situations in which language is used. British linguists such as Firth and Halliday developed powerful views of language in which meaning, contexts, and situations were given a priment place. The emphasis now is on the description of language activity as part of the whole complex of events which, together with the participants and relevant objects, make up actual situations (Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens 1964).

Theory of Learning

Situational Language teaching is based on on behaviorist habit-learning theory. This theory said that learning is a mechincal process of habit formation and proceeds by means of the frequent reinforcement of a stimulus-response sequence (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) The simplicity and directness of this theory had an enormous impact on learning psychology and on language teaching. It provided the theoretical underpinning of the widely used Audiolingual Method of the 1950s and 1960s. This method laid down a set of guiding methodological principles, based firstly on behaviorist stimulus-response concept and secondly on an assumption that second language language learning should reflect and imitate the perceived process of mother tongue learning.

Situational Language teaching, like the direct method, adopts an inductive approach to the teaching of grammar. The meaning of words or structure is not to be given through explanation in either the native tongue or the target language but is to be induced from the way the form is used in a situation. Explanation is therefore discouraged, and the learner is expected to deduce the meaning of a particular structure or vocabulary

items from the situation in which is presented. The learner is also expected to apply the language learned in a classroom to situation outside the classroom.

Design

Objectives

The objectives of the Situational Language Teaching method are to teach a practical command of the four basic skills of language, goals it shares with most methods of language teaching. But the skills are approached through structure. Accuracy in both pronunciation and grammar is regarded as crucial, and errors to be avoided at all costs. Automatic control of basic structures and sentence patterns is fundamental to reading and writing skills, and this is achieved through speech work (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

The Syllabus

Situational Language Teaching is a structural syllabus and a word list. A structural syllabus is a list of the structures and sentence patterns of English, arranged according to their order presentation. Structures are always taught within sentences, and vocabulary is chosen according to how well it enables sentence patterns to be taught. Frisby in Richards and Rodgers (1986) give an example of the typical structural syllabus around which situational teaching was based:

	Sentence pattern	Vocabulary
1st lesson	This is ……	book, pencil, ruler
	This is ……	desk
2nd lesson	These are …….	Chairs, picture, door
	Those are ……	wondow
3rd lesson	Is this …? Yes it is	watch, box. Pen
	Is that …? Yes, it is	blackboard.

Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

Situational language teaching refers to a situational approach to presenting new sentence patterns and a drill based manner of practicing them. Pitman in Richards and Rodgers (1986) state that the situation will be controlled carefully to teach the new language material that use of concrete objects, pictures, and relia, which together with actions and gestures can be used to deconstrate the meanings of new language items.

The form of new words and sentence patterns is demonstrated with examples and not through grammatical explanation or description. The meaning of new words and sentence patterns is not conveyed through translation. It is made clear visually (with objects, pictures, action and mime). Wherever possible model sentences are related and taken from a single situation (Devies, Rpberts, and Rossner in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:38).

Learner Roles

In the presentation stage of the lesson, the teacher serves as a model, setting up situations in which the need for the target structure is created and then modeling the new structure for students to repeat. Then the teacher 'becomes more like the skillfull conductor of an orchestra, drawing the music out of the performers" (Byrne 1976:2). The teacher is required to be a skilled manipulator, using questions, commands, and other cues to elicit correct sentences from the learners. Lesson are hence teacher directed, and the teacher sets the pace.

During the practice phase of the lessons, students are given an opportunity to use the language in less controlled situations, but the teacher is ever on the lookout for grammatical and structural errors that can form the basis of subsequent lessons. Pittman (1963) in Richards and Rodgers (1986) summarize the teacher's responsibilities as dealing with (1) timing, (2) oral practice, to support the textbook structures, (3) revision (i.e. review), (4) adjustment to special needs of individuals, (5) testing, and (6) developing language activities other than those arising from the textbook.

The Role of Instructional Materials

Situational language teaching is based on both a textbook and visual aids. The textbook contains organized lessons planned around different grammatical structures. Visual aids may be produced by the teacher or may be commercially produced; they consist of wall charts, flashcards, pictures, stick figures, and so on. The visual element together with a carefully graded grammatical syllabus is a crucial aspect of Situational Language Teaching.

Procedure

Situational Language Teaching procedures vary according to the level of the class, but the procedures at any level aim to move from controlled to freer practice of structures and from oral use sentence patterns to their automatic use in speech, reading, and writing. Pittman (1963:173) gives an example of a typical lesson plan as follows: (1) pronunciation, (2) revision (to prepare for new work if necessary), (3) presentation of new structure or vocabulary, (4) oral practice (drilling), and (5) reading of materials on the new structure or written exercises.

Summary

Procedueres associated with Situational Language Teaching in the fifities and sixties are an extension and further development of well-established techniques advocated by the earlier Oral Approach in the British school of language teaching. They continue to be part of the standard set procedures advocated in many current British metholody texts, and as we noted above, textbooks written according to the principles of Situational Language Teaching continued to be used in many parts of the world. In the mid-sisxties, however, the view of language, language learning, and language teaching underlying Situational Language Teaching was called into question. But because of principles of Situational Language Teaching, with its strong emphasis on oral practice, grammar, and sentence patterns, conform to the situations of many practically oriented classroom teachers, it continues to be widely used in the 1098s.

Questions

1. What are the main characteristics of the oral approach and situational language teaching?
2. What theory of language is used in the oral approach and sitiational language teaching?
3. What theory of language learning is used in the oral approach and sitiational language teaching?
4. How to design the oral approach and sitiational language teaching?
5. Describe the procedure of applying the oral approach and situational language teaching that can be used junir high school students.

CHAPTER 5

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Short Description

Communicative language ability provides a broad basis for development and use of language. This description is consistent with earlier work in communicative competence. Bachman (1990) recognizes that the ability to use language communicatively involves knowledge of or competence in the language, and the capacity for implementing, or using this competence. The implementation of this competence is characterized by the process in which the various components interact. This chapter also describes theoretical basis of the communicative competence and the acquisition of communicative competence. Finally, issues in communicative language teaching are also presented.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply communicative competence and language teaching that cover

- Communicative language ability
- Theories of communicative competence
- Issues in communicative language teaching

Introduction

Communicative language ability can be described as consisting of both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextual communicative

language use. This essentially how Candlin (1986) has described communicative competence as the ability to create meanings by exploring the potential inherent in any language for continual modification in response to change the value of convention rather than conforming to establish principle and organize this knowledge to solve new problems of communication.

Communicative language teaching has been adopted as an official method of teaching English in Indonesia. Huda (1999) states that in the 1984 English curriculum of the secondary school, it is known as communicative approach, and in the 1994 curriculum as meaningful approach. Today in the 2004 curriculum of secondary school, it is known as competency based curriculum. Actually the development of curriculum from time to time is characterized by a decision maker of Department of Education in Indonesia.

Communicative Language Ability

Communicative language ability provides a broad basis for development and use of language. This description is consistent with earlier work in communicative competence. Bachman (1990) recognizes that the ability to use language communicatively involves knowledge of or competence in the language, and the capacity for implementing, or using this competence. The implementation of this competence is characterized by the process in which the various components interact with each other and with the context in which language use occurs.

An early framework for describing language proficiency is that incorporated in skills and component models. These models distinguish skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) from components of language (grammar, vocabulary, phonology), but do not indicate how skills and knowledge are related. It is not clear whether the skills are simply manifestations of the knowledge components in different modalities and channels.

A more serious limitation of skills/components was its failure to recognize the full context of language use – the context of discourse and

situation (Bachman, 1990). Halliday's (1976) description of language functions, both textual and illocutionary, and van Disk's (1977) delineation of the relationship between text and context, clearly recognize the context of discourse. Hymes (1982) further recognizes the sociocultural factors in the speech situation. What has emerged from these ideas is an expanded conception of language proficiency whose distinguishing characteristic is its recognition of the importance of context beyond the sentence to the appropriate use of language. This context includes both the discourse, of which individual utterances and sentences are part, and the sociolinguistic situation which governs, to large extent, the nature of that discourse, in both form and function.

Communicative language ability can be described as consisting of both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextual communicative language use. This essentially how Candlin (1986) has described communicative competence:

the ability to create meanings by exploring the potential inherent in any language for continual modification in response to change, negotiating, the value of convention rather than conforming to establish principle. In sum … a coming together of organized knowledge structures with a set of procedures for adapting this knowledge to solve new problems of communication that do not have ready-made and tailored situations (Candlin 1986:40).

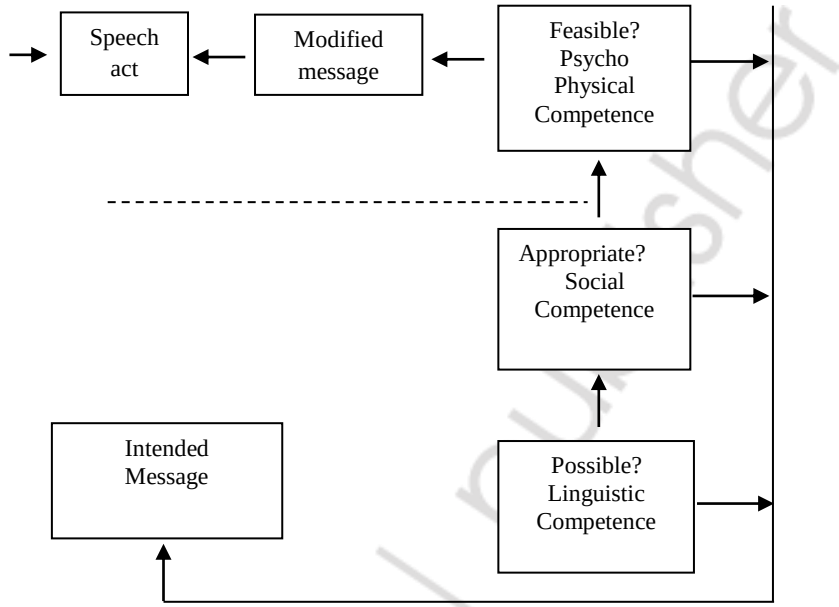

Figure 5.1 Communicative Competence (Bell, 1983:211)

The model 5.1 suggests that a message needs to be processed three times in terms of its possibility, appropriateness, and feasibility, and that each question may need to be asked more than once for each message. A message needs to be possible not only in terms of its form but also in terms of contents. Similarly, its appropriateness depends on the social constraints acting upon it, and its feasibility upon the extent to which the user can create the form of the message.

Bell (1978), moreover, specifies communicative competence as an attempt to define not only how a user is able to judge what is grammatical but also how he is able to recognize what is acceptable as a speech act in a social situation. Further he presents a figure of communicative competence as presented on the next page

Bachman (1990:84) moreover states that the framework of communicative language ability consists of three components: language competence, strategic competence, and psychological mechanisms.

Language competence comprises, essentially, a set of specific knowledge components that are utilized in communication via language. Strategic competence is the term used to characterize the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use. Strategic competence thus provides the means for relating language competencies to feature of the context of situation in which language use takes place and to the language user's knowledge structures (sociocultural knowledge, 'real-world' knowledge). Psychological mechanisms refer to the neorological and psychological processes involved in the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon (sound, light). The interactions of these components of communicative language ability with the language use context and language user's knowledge structures are illustrated in figure5.2.

Frameworks of communicative competence have included several different components associated with what we call language competence. In describing a theoretical framework for specifying an individual's communicative language competence in a second language. Munby (1978) includes 'linguistic encoding' (the realization of language use as verbal forms), 'sociocultural orientation' (contextual appropriacy and communicative needs), 'sociosemantic basis of linguistic knowledge', and 'discourse level of operation'.

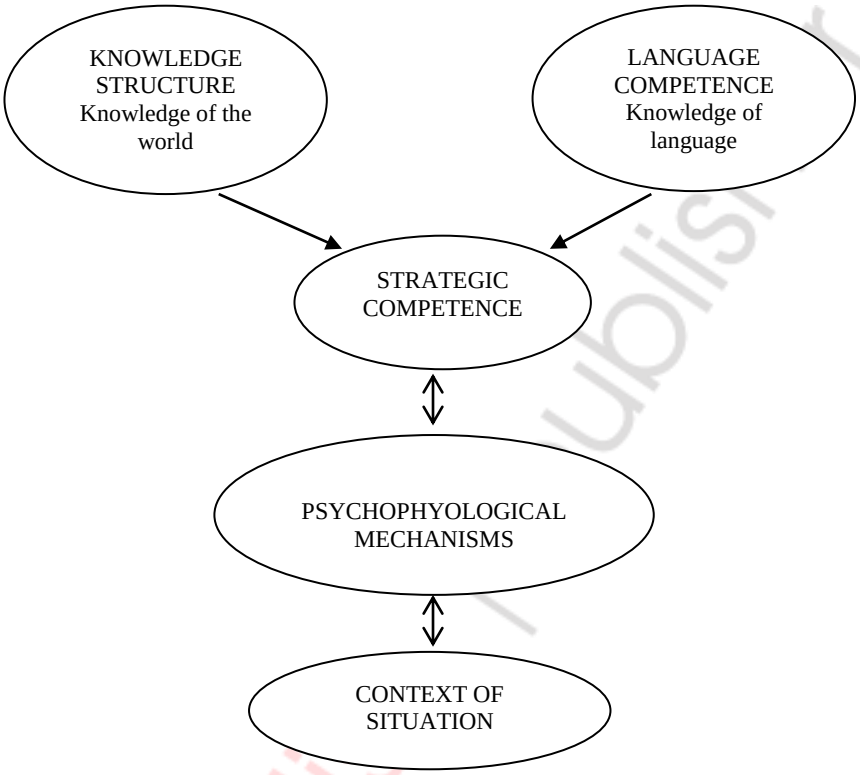

Figure 5.2 Components of communicative language ability in Communicative language use (Bachman, 1990:85)

Communicative Competence

Huda (1999) has raised two problems in applying communicative approach in teaching English at junior and senior high schools. First is related to the choice of skills needed to be taught to the students. In the teaching of English there is the problem of which skills: Is it sufficient to teach reading skills and grammar, or, should it also include speaking skills. The second problem deals with the methods of developing the communicative competence in the students. This second problem encompasses two issues: the syllabus and the teaching learning strategies best suited for the materials.

In order to answer of the questions of materials and strategies, first we need to agree the concept of communicative competence. It will be discussed the communicative competence from linguistics and psycholinguistics perspectives. Finally, the process of the acquisition of communicative competence will be reviewed.

Theoretical Basis of Communicative Competence

The term 'communicative competence' was first issued by Dell Hymes (1972) as a reaction against the concept of language competence proposed by Chomsky (1965). Chomsky's understanding of language competence was more psycholinguistic in nature, while Hyme's concept was more sociolinguistic. The term communicative competence subsequently received various interpretations, most based on sociolinguistic studies.

The generative-transformational grammar (Chomsky, 1965) distinguishes two kinds of language structures, i.e., surface structure and deep structure. An utterance spoken or written has a surface structure which serves as a manifestation of the deep structure. The utterance may differ in form of the deep structure, but the meaning contained is essentially the same. Look at the examples below.

Have a drink	(surface structure)
(**Would you)** please have a drink?	(deep structure)

Chomsky classified language competence into two. They are competence and performance. Competence is the ideal ability of a speaker in a language. Competence describes a complete and perfect knowledge of a language – reflected in a dialogue between the speaker and the hearer in an ideal situation. On the other hand, performance is the realization of the competence in the form of utterances which can be heard or read by others. Performance deals with an utterance in an actual situation; therefore, it can sometimes be less than perfect.

Chomsky claims that competence is an ideal, not a real situation. Hymes (1972) rejected the concept that competence - defined by Chomsky – was a reflection of one's ability in language. On the contrary, a speaker

who just masters the ideal style cannot be said to have mastered the language in its actual term. Hymes maintained that such competence was just on the level of 'linguistic competence' which is limited to one's mastery of grammar rules as well as social norms related to language use. A speaker who can use language with the appropriate style according to the situation and speaker-listener relationship is one who can be justly said to have mastered the communicative competence. Brown (1987) in Huda (1999) states that the communicative competence is the competence which enables us to transmit and interpret messages and give meaning in the interaction between individuals in a specific context. Therefore, the notion of communicative competence brings with it two aspects, i.e., the psycholinguistic and the socio-cultural aspects.

The Components of Communicative Competence

The concept proposed by Hymes was subsequently developed by other linguists who also included two aspects. One development often cited in references is the model developed by Canale. According to Canale (1983) communicative competence consists of four domains of knowledge and skills. They are grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence involves the mastery of language codes both verbal and non verbal, such as vocabulary, derivation, sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling, and semantics. This competence is required for the understanding and expressing literal meaning of an utterance.

Sociolinguistic competence deals with socio-cultural and discourse rules. Sociolinguistic competence relates to the extent an utterance is expressed understood correctly in different sociolinguistic contexts, which in turn depend on certain factors such as speaker-learner status, the objective of the interaction, and the rules and norms of interaction. The appropriateness involves form as well as meaning (appropriateness).

Discourse competence is concerned with the mastery of ways to combine grammatical forms and meaning to produce either a spoken or

written utterance wholly in various forms. Unity of an utterance can be attained through form cohesion and meaning coherence. Cohesion is the relationship between utterances and grammatical structure devices to enable one to interpret the meaning of a discourse. Coherence is the relationship among several meanings in utterance (text).

Strategic competence consists of the mastery of both verbal and nonverbal communication strategies used by a speaker to (1) make up for the weakness in communication due to the limitations of circumstances, and (2) to strengthen the effectiveness of communication. For instance, the paraphrasing strategy is used when a speaker forgets a certain grammatical structure.

Communicative Language Teaching

The origins of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) are to be found in changes in the British language teaching tradition from the late 1960s. Until then, Situational Language Teaching represented the major British approach to teaching English as a foreign language. In Situational Language Teaching, language was taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities.

Wilkins (1972) proposed a functional or communicative definition of language that could serve as a basis for developing communicative syllabuses for language teaching. Wilkins's contribution was an analysis of the communicative meaning that a language learner needs to understand and express. Rather than describe the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary. Wilkins attempted to demonstrate the systems of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language. He described two types of meaning: notional categories (concepts such as time, quantity, location, frequency, and sequences) and categories of communicative function (requests, denials, offers, complaints).

The Communicative Approach or simply Communicative Language Teaching has expanded. Both American and British proponents now see it as an approach (not a method) that aims to (1) make communicative

competence the goal of language teaching and (2) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. Little Wood (1981: 1) states that one of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language.

Finocchiaro and Brunfit in Richards and Rodgers (1986:67-68) contrast the major distinctive features of the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative Approach, according to their interpretation as in the following.

Audiolingual	Communicative Language Teaching
1. Attends to structure and form more than meaning	Meaning is paramount
2. Demands memorization of structure-based dialogue	Dialogue, if used, center around communicative functions, and are not normally memorized
3. Language items are not necessarily contextualized	Contextualization is a basic premise
4. Language learning is learning structures, sounds, or words	Language leaning is learning to communicate
5. Native speaker-like pronunciation is sought	Comprehensible pronunciation is sought
6. Grammatical explanation is avoided	Any device which helps the learner is accepted – varying according to their age, interest, etc.
7. Linguistic competence is the desired goal.	Communicative competence is the desired goal.
8. Accuracy in terms of formal correctness, is a primary goal	Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.

Objectives of CLT

Huda (1999) claims that the teaching objectives of CLT is the development of communicative competence, that is the ability to use English for communication in real-life situations as opposed to classroom situations. Piepho in Richards and Rodgers (1986) discusses the following levels of objectives in a communicative approach: (1) an integrative and

content level (language as a means of expression), (2) a linguistic and instrumental level (language is a semiotic system and an object of learning); (3) an affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct (language as a means of expressing values and judgments about oneself and others); (4) a level of individual learning needs (remedial learning based on error analysis); and (5) a general educational level of extra-linguistic goals (language learning within the school curriculum). The objective of language teaching is not limited to ability to produce grammatical sentences, but also the ability to incorporate pragmatic aspects in language skill that is suitable utterances for the context of communication.

The objective of language teaching is divided according to four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Huda (1999) states that an adequate system of classification of language skills includes three criteria: the medium (the actual physical means whereby the language system is manifested in usage), the mode (the way in which the language system is realized as use in acts of communication), and the manner (the kind of social activity involved in communication).

Specific objectives of communicative language teaching is according to the needs of the students. Some people learn a foreign language in order to communicate with their fellow professionals in their field, and some to make trips to foreign countries, and some others wish to academic purposes. In addition, CLT is designed to develop either a full language competence (embracing the four language skills, following the traditional system of classification) on contradicts the objective of English instruction in the secondary school, i.e. the development of speaking skill.

Teaching Materials

A variety of materials have been used to support communicative approaches to language teaching. The communicative approaches influence the teaching materials and the quality of classroom interaction and language use. Richards and Rodgers (1986) consider three kinds of

materials currently used in CLT and label these text-based, task based, and realia.

There are many textbooks designed to direct and support Communicative Language Teaching. Their table of contents sometimes suggest a kind of grading and sequencing of language practice not unlike those found in structurally organized texts. Some of these are written around structural syllabus, with slight reformatting to justify their claims to be based on a communicative approach. Morrow and Johnson's communicate (1979), for example, has none of the usual dialogues, drills, or sentence patterns, uses visual cues, taped cues, pictures, and sentence fragments to initiate conversation. Watcyn-Jones's Pair Work (1981) consists of two different texts for pair work, each containing different information needed to enact role plays and carry out other pair activities.

Jones (1979) in Richards and Rodgers (1986) gives an example of function of English in communication as follows:

1. Talking about yourself, starting a conversation, making a date
2. Asking for information: question techniques, answering techniques, getting further information
3. Getting people to do things: requesting, attracting attention, agreeing and refusing
4. Talking about past events: remembering, describing experiences, speculating
5. Conversation techniques: hesitating, holding the floor, bringing another speaker.

A variety of games, role plays, simulations, and task-based communication activities have been prepared to support Communicative Language Teaching classes. These typically in the form of one-of-a-kind items: exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials, and student-interaction practice booklets. In pair communication materials, there are typically two sets of material for a pair of students, each set containing different kinds of information. Sometimes the information is complementary, and partners must fit their respective parts of the "jigsaw" into a composite whole. Others assume different roles

relationships for partners (interviewer and interviewee). Still others provide drills and practice material in interactional formats.

Many components of Communicative Language Teaching have advocated the use of "authentic", "from life" materials in the classroom. These include language-based realia, such as signs, magazines, advertisement, and newspaper, or graphic, or visual sources around with communicative activities can be built, such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts. Different kinds of objects can be used to support communicative exercises.

Procedure

Classroom procedures in Situational language Teaching vary according to the level of the class, but procedures at any level aim to move from controlled to freer practice of structures and from oral use of sentence patterns to their automatic use in speech, reading, and writing. Pittman gives an example of a typical lesson plan:

The first part of the lesson will be stress and intonation practice….The main body of the lesson should then follow. This might consist of the teaching of a structure. If so, the lesson would then consist of four parts:

1. Pronunciation
2. Revision (to prepare for new work if necessary)
3. Presentation of new structure or vocabulary
4. Oral practice (drilling)
5. Reading of material on the new structure, or written exercises.

Summary

Communicative language ability provides a broad basis for development and use of language. This description is consistent with earlier work in communicative competence. Bachman (1990) recognizes that the ability to use language communicatively involves knowledge of or competence in the language, and the capacity for implementing, or using this competence. This chapter also describes theoretical basis of the

communicative competence and the acquisition of communicative competence. Finally, issues in communicative language teaching are also presented.

Students are able to explain and apply communicative competence and language teaching that cover (1) communicative language ability (2)m theories of communicative competence, (3) issues in communicative language teaching. Communicative language ability can be described as consisting of both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextual communicative language use.

Communicative language ability provides a broad basis for development and use of language. This description is consistent with earlier work in communicative competence. Bachman (1990) recognizes that the ability to use language communicatively involves knowledge of or competence in the language, and the capacity for implementing, or using this competence. Communicative language ability can be described as consisting of both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextual communicative language use.

Bachman (1990:84) moreover states that the framework of communicative language ability consists of three components: language competence, strategic competence, and psychological mechanisms. Language competence comprises, essentially, a set of specific knowledge components that are utilized in communication via language. Strategic competence is the term used to characterize the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use. Strategic competence thus provides the means for relating language competencies to feature of the context of situation in which language use takes place and to the language user's knowledge structures (sociocultural knowledge, 'real-world' knowledge).

Frameworks of communicative competence have included several different components associated with what we call language competence. In describing a theoretical framework for specifying an individual's

communicative language competence in a second language. The term ‘communicative competence’ was first issued by Dell Hymes (1972) as a reaction against the concept of language competence proposed by Chomsky (1965). Chomsky’s understanding of language competence was more psycholinguistic in nature, while Hyme’s concept was more sociolinguistic. The generative-transformational grammar (Chomsky, 1965) distinguishes two kinds of language structures, i.e., surface structure and deep structure. (deep structure)

Chomsky classified language competence into two. They are competence and performance. Competence is the ideal ability of a speaker in a language. According to Canale (1983) communicative competence consists of four domains of knowledge and skills. They are grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. The origins of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) are to be found in changes in the British language teaching tradition from the late 1960s. Until then, Situational Language Teaching represented the major British approach to teaching English as a foreign language. In Situational Language Teaching, language was taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities.

Wilkins (1972) proposed a functional or communicative definition of language that could serve as a basis for developing communicative syllabuses for language teaching. The Communicative Approach or simply Communicative Language Teaching has expanded. Both American and British proponents now see it as an approach (not a method) that aims to (1) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (2) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. The objective of language teaching is divided according to four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Specific objectives of communicative language teaching is according to the needs of the students.

A variety of materials have been used to support communicative approaches to language teaching. The communicative approaches influence the teaching materials and the quality of classroom interaction

and language use. There are many textbooks designed to direct and support Communicative Language Teaching. Many components of Communicative Language Teaching have advocated the use of "authentic", "from life" materials in the classroom.

Questions

1. Describe and explain a communicative language ability framework.
2. Analyze the relationship components of communicative language ability in communicative language use according to Bachman (1990).
3. Explain theoretical basis of communicative competence.
4. Compare between audiolingual and communicative language teaching.

CHAPTER 6

SUGGESTOPEDIA

Short Description

Suggestopedia is a method developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator Georgi Lozanov. Suggestopedia is a specific set of learning recommendations derived from Suggestology. Therefore, this chapter describes approach that is used in suggestopedia. Design of suggestopedia consists of objectives, the syllabus, types of learning and teaching activities, learner roles, teacher roles, the role of instructional materials. Finally, the procedure of teaching by using suggestopedia is also explained.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply suggestopedia that cover

- Background of suggestopedia
- Approaches that relate to suggestopedia
- Design and procedure of applying suggestopedia

Introduction

Suggestopedia is method developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist educator George Lozanov.Suggestopedia is a specific set of learning recommendation derived from Suggestology which Lozanov describes as a "science…concerned with the systematic study of the nonrational and /or nonconscious influences" that human being are constantly responding to (Stevick 1976:42). The most conspicuous characteristics of suggestopedia are the decoration, furniture, and arrangement of the teacher.

Lozanov acknowledge ties in tradition to yoga and Soviet psychology. From raja yoga, Lozanov has borrowed and modified techniques for altering states of consciousness and concentration, and the use of rhythmic breathing. From Soviet psychology Lozanov has taken the notion that all students can be taught a given subject matter at the same level of skill. Lozanov claims that his method works equally well whether or not students spend time on outside study.soviet psychology also stresses the learning environment, and Lozanov similarly specifics the requirements of an optimal learning environment in great detail.

Suggestopedia can perhaps be best understood as one of the range of theories of that purport to describe how attentiveness is manipulated to optimize learning and recall. A number of researchers have attempted to identify the optimal mental states for facilitating memorization and facilitating recall. The continuum in figure 10.1 displays labels for various states of attention that have been examined for their facilitation of inhibition of memorization.

A most conspicuous of Suggestopedia is the centrality of music and musical rhythm to learning. Suggestopedia thus has a kindship with other functional uses of music, particularly therapy. Lozanov might have described this incident as the use of music to assist in the "liberation from discrete micro psycho traumata, for destruction of incompatible ideas about the limits of human capabilities" (Lozanov 1978: 252).

Gaston (1968) defines three function of music in therapy

- To facilitate the establishment and maintenance of personal relations
- To bring about increase self-esteem through increase self-satisfaction in musical performance
- To use the unique potential of rhythm to energize and bring order. This last function seems to be the one last Lozanov calls upon in his use of music to relax learners as well as to structure, pace, and punctuate the presentation of linguistic material.

Approach

Theory of Language

Lozanov does not articulate a theory of language, nor does it seem he is much concerned with any particular assumptions regarding language elements and their organization. However, Lozanov does occasionally refer to the importance of experiencing language material in "whole meaningful texts" (Lozanov 1978: 268) and notes that the suggestopedia course directs" the students not to vocabulary memorization and acquiring habits of speech, but to act of communication".

In describing course work and text organization Lozanov refers most often to the language to be learned as the material. One feels that the linguistic nature of the material is largely irrelevant and that if the focus of a language course was, say, memorization of grammar rules, Lozanov would feel a suggestopedia approach to be the optimal one.

Theory of Learning

Suggestion is at the heart of Suggestopedia. To many, suggestion conjures up visions of the penetrating stare, swinging cat's eye, and monotonically repeated in conjunction of the hypnotist. Lozanov acknowledge the likelihood of this association of suggestopedia to suggestopedia but claims that his own views separate suggestopedia from the "narrow clinical concept of hypnosis as a kind of static, sleep like, altered stare of consciousness" (1978:3).

There are several principles theoretical components through which operate and that set up access to reserves.

Authority

People remember best and are most influenced by information coming from an authoritative source. Lozanov dictates a variety of prescription and proscription aimed at having suggestopedia student experience the educational establishment and the teacher as source having great authority. Lozanov appears to believe that scientific-sounding language, highly positive experimental data, and true-believer teachers

constitute a ritual place system that is authortatively appealing to most learners.

Infantilization

Authority is also used to suggest a teacher – student relation like that of parent to child. In the child's role the learner takes part in role playing, games, songs, and gymnastic exercise that help "the older student regain the self-confidence, spontaneity and receptivity of the child"(Bancroft 1972: 19)

Double – Planedness

The leaner learns not only from the effect of direct instruction but from the environment in which the instruction takes place.

Intonation, Rhythm, and Concert Pseudo – Passiveness

Varying the tone and rhythm of presented material helps both to avoid boredom through monotony of repetition and to dramatize, emotion alize, and give meaning to linguistics material.

The musical background helps to induce a relaxed attitude, which Lozanov refers to as concert pseudo – passiveness. This state is felt to be optimal to learning, in that anxieties and tension are relieved and power concentration for new material is raised. because the role of music is central in suggestopedic learning, it needs to be considered in somewhat more detail.

The type of misic is critical to learning success. The rate presentation of material to be learned within the rhythmic pattern is keyed to the rhythm. They note that musical rhythyms affect body rhythms, such as heartbeat, and that researchers have noted that" with a slow heartbeat, mind efficiency takes a great leap forward" (1979:63). Finally, they observe that only human but vegetable subjects thrive under sixty-beat stimulation . Suggestopedia learning is consequently built on particular type of music and a particular ate of presentation.

Design

Objective

Suggestopedia aims to be delivered advance conversational proficiency quickly. It apparently bases its learning claims on student mastery of prodigious lists of vocabulary pairs and, indeed, it is suggested to the students that it is appropriate that they set such goals for themselves. Lozanov states categorically ", the main aims of teaching is not memorization, but the understanding and creative solution of problem". As learners goals he cited increased access an understanding and creative solution of problem. However, because students and teachers place a high value on vocabulary recall, memorization of vocabulary pairs continues to be seen as an important goal to the suggestopedic method.

The syllabus

A suggestopedia course last thirty days and consist of ten units of study. Classes are held four hours a day, six days a week. The central focus of each unit is a dialogue consisting of 1,200 words or so, with an accompanying vocabulary list and grammatical commentary. The dialogues are graded by lexis and grammar.

There is a pattern of work within each unit and a pattern of work for the whole course. Unit study is organized around three days: day 1 – half a day, day 2 – full day, day 3 – half a day. One of the first day of work on a new unit the teacher discusses the general content (not structure) of the unit dialogue. The learners then receive the printed dialogue with the native language translation in paralel column. The teacher answers any questions of interest or concern about the dialogue. The dialogue then is read the second and third time in ways to be discussed sub sequently.

The whole course also has a pattern of presentation and performance. On the first day a test is given to check the level of the students' knowledge and to provide a basis for dividing students into two groups, one of new beginners and one of modified (false) beginners. The teacher then breaks the students on the course and explains the attitude they should do toward it.

During the course there are two opportunities for generalization of material. In the middle of the course students are encouraged to practice the target language in a setting where it might be used, such as hotels and restaurants. The last day of the course is devoted to a performance in which every student participates. The students construct a play built on the material of the course.

Types of learning and teaching activities

The types of activities that are more original to Suggestopedia are the listening activities, which concern the text and text vocabulary of each unit. These activities are typically part of the "pre-session phase" , which takes place on the first day of a new unit.

The students first look at and discuss a new text with the teacher. In the second reading, students relax comfortably in reclining chairs and listen to the teacher read the text in a certain way. During the third reading the material is acted out by the instructor in a dramatic manner over a background of the special musical form described previously.

Learner roles

Students volunteer for a Suggestopedia course, but having volunteer, they are expected to be committed to the class and its activities. Learners must not try to figure out, manipulate, or study the material presented but must maintain a pseudo-passive state, in which the material rolls over and through them. Students are expected to tolerate and in fact encourage their own "infantilization". In part this is accomplished by acknowledging the absolute authority of the teacher and in part by giving themselves over to activities and techniques designed to help them regain the self-confidence, spontaneity, and receptivity of the child. Such activities include role playing, games, songs, and gymnastic exercise(Bancroft 1972: 19)

Teacher Roles

The primary role of the teacher is to create situations in which the learner is most suggestible and then to present linguistic material in a way most likely to encourage positive reception by the learner.

Lozanov lists several expected teacher behaviors that contribute to these presentations.

1. Show absolute confidence in the method
2. Display fastidious conduct in manners and dress
3. Organize properly and strictly observe the initial stages of the teaching process, this includes choice and play of music as well as punctuality.
4. Maintain a solemn attitude towards the session.
5. Give test and respond tactfully to poor papers
6. Stress global rather than analytical attitudes towards material maintain a modest enthusiasm.

The Role of Instructional Materials

Materials consist of direct support materials, primarily text and tape, and indirect support materials, including classroom fixture and music.

The text organized around the ten units described earlier. The text book should have emotional force, literary quality, and interesting characters. Language problems should be introduced in a way that does not worry or distract students from the content.

Although not language materials, the learning environment plays such a central role in Suggestopedia that the important elements of the environment need to be briefly enumerated. The environment (the indirect support materials), comprises the appearance of the classroom (bright and cheery), the furniture (reclining chairs arranged in a circle), and the music (Baroque largo, selected for reason discussed previously).

Procedure

We have tried here to characterize a class as described in the Suggestopedia literature while pointing out where he actual classes we have observed varied considerably from the description.

Bancroft (1972) notes that four hour language class here three distinct parts. The first part we might call an oral review section. Previously learned material is used as the basis for discussion by the teacher and twelve students in the class. This session may involve what are

called micro-studies and macro-studies. In micro-studies specific attention is given to grammar, vocabulary, and precise questions and answers. A question from a micro study might be, "What should one do in a hotel room if the bathroom taps are not working?" In the macro-studies, emphasis is on role playing and wider-ranging, innovative language constructions.

In the second part of the class new material is presented and discussed. This consists of looking over a new dialogue and its native language translation and discussing any issues of grammar, vocabulary, or content that the teacher feels important or that students are curious about. The teacher's attitude and authority is considered critical to preparing students for success in the learning to come. The pattern of learning and use is noted, so that students will know what expected.

The third part – the séance or concert session – is the one by which Suggestopedia is best known. Since this constitutes the heart of the method, we will Lozanov as to how this session proceeds.

At the beginning of the session, all conversation stops for a minute or two, and the teacher listen to the music coming from a tape-recorder. He waits and listens to several passages in order to enter into the method of the music and then begins to read or recite the new text, his voice modulated in harmony with the musical phrase. The students follow the text in their text books where each lesson in translated into the mother tongue. Between the first and second part of the concert, there are several minutes of solemn silence. In some cases, even longer pauses can be given to permit the students to stir a little. Before the beginning of the second part of the concert, there are again several minutes of silence and some phrases of the music are heard again before the teacher begins to read the text. Now the students close their textbooks and listen to the teacher's reading. At the end, the students silently leave the room. They are not told to do any homework on the lesson they have just had except for reading it cursorily once before going to bed and again before getting up in the morning.(Lozanov 1978: 272)

Summary

Suggestopedia has probably received both the most enthusiastic and the most critical response any of the so called new methods. Suggestopedia also received a scathing review in the TESOL Quarterly, a journal of somewhat more restricted circulation than Parade (Scovel 1979).

Scovel take special issue with Lozanov's use (and misuse) of scholarly citation, terminological jargon, and experimental data and states that "a careful reading of (Suggestology and outlines of Suggestopedy) reveals that there is precious little in Suggestology which is scientific" (1979: 257).

Lozanov makes no bones about the fact that Suggestopedia is introduced to students in the context of a "suggestive-desuggestive ritual placebo system" (Lozanov 1978: 267), and that one of the tasks of the Suggestopedic leader is to determine which current ritual placebo system might be yoga , it might be hypnosis, it might be biofeedback, it might be experimental science.

Questions

1. Describe background suggestopedia.
2. What is functions of music in suggestopedia?
3. What theory of language underlying in suggestopedia?
4. What theory of language learning underlying in suggestopidea?
5. How to design suggestopedia in teaching English at Junior High School students?
6. What are the teacher roles in suggestopiedia?
7. Arrange the procedure of teaching English by using suggestopedia in Senior High School students.

CHPATER 7

THE SILENT WAY

Short Description

This chapter describes background of the silent way. It is also described approaches used in the silent way in which theory of language and theory of learning to be covered. Design and procedure of teaching by using the silent way are also described and explained.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply the silent way that cover

- Background of the silent way
- Approaches that relate to the silent way.
- Design and procedure of applying the silent way.

Introduction

The silent way is the name of a method of language teaching devised by Caleb Gattegno's name is well known for his revival of interest in the use of colored wooden sticks called Cuisenaire rods and for his series words in color, an approach to the teaching of initial reading in which sound are coded by specific color.

The silent way represents Gattegno's venture into the field of foreign language teaching. It is based on the premise that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom and the learner should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible.

The silent way shares a great deal with other learning theories and educational philosophies. Very broadly put, the learning hypotheses underlying Gattegno's work could be stated as follows:

1. Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned
2. Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical object,
3. Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned.

   Let us consider each of these issues in turn :

   - The educational psychologist and philosopher Jerome Bruner distinguishes two traditions of teaching that which takes place in the expository mode and that which takes place in the hypothetical mode in the expiatory mode "decisions covering the mode and pace and style of exposition are principally determined by the teacher as expositor the student as the listener.
   - The rods and the color coded pronunciation charts (called Fidel charts) provide physical foci for student learning and also create memorable images to facilitate student recall.
   - The silent way is also related to a set of premises that we have called "problem solving approaches to learning". These premises are succinctly represented in the words of Benjamin Franklin:

     Tell me and I forget,
     Teach me and I remember,
     Involve me and I learn

In the language of experimental psychology, the kind of subject involvement that promotes greatest learning and recall involves processing of material to be learned at the "greatest cognitive depth" (Craik 1973). Or for our purposes, involving the greatest amount of problem solving activity. "Memory research has demonstrated that the learner's memory benefits from creatively searching out, discovering and depicting" (Bowers and Winzenz 1970)

In the silent way the teacher's strict avoidance of repetition forces alertness and concentration on the part of the learners" (Gattegno 1972; 80).

Approach

Theory of Language

Gattegno takes an openly skeptical view of the rule of linguistic theory in language teaching methodology. He feels that linguistic studies "may be a specialization, that carry with them a narrow opening of one's sensitivity and perhaps serve very little towards the broad end in mind"(Gattegno 1972:84).

Gattegno views language itself as a substitute for experience, so experience is what gives meaning to language" (Gattegno 1972: 8).we are not surprised than to see simulated experiences using tokens and picture charts as central elements in silent way teaching.

By looking at the material chosen and the sequence in which it is presented in a silent way classroom, it is clear that the silent way takes a structural approach to the organization of language to be taught.

Gattegno sees vocabulary as a central dimension of language learning and the choice of vocabulary as crucial. He distinguishes between several classes of vocabulary items. First, the semi luxury vocabulary consist of expression common in the daily life of the target language culture, this refers to food, clothing travel, family life, and so on. Second, the luxury vocabulary is used in communicating more specialized ideas such as a political or philosophical opinions. The most important vocabulary for the learner deals with the most functional and versatile words of the language, many of which may not have direct equivalents in the learner's native tongue.

Theory of Learning

Like many other method proponents, Gattegno makes extensive use of his understanding of first language learning process as a basic for deriving principles for teaching foreign language to adults. Gattegno

recommends, for example that the learner needs to "return to the state of mind that characterized a baby's learning surrender" (Scoot and Page 1982; 273)

The learning system is activated only by way of intelligent awareness. "the learner must constantly test his powers to abstract, analyze, synthesize and integrate." (Scoot and page1982: 273).

The artificial approach that Gattegno proposes in based on the principle that successful learning involves commitment of the self to the language acquisition through the use of silent awareness and than active trial. Gattegno's repeated emphasis on the primacy of learning over teaching places a focus on the self of the learner, on the learner's priorities and commitments.

But the silent way is not merely a language teaching method. Gattegno sees language learning through the silent way as a recovery of innocence "a return to our full powers and potentials". Gattegno aims is not just second language learning, it is nothing less than the education of the spiritual powers and of the sensitivity of the individual.

Design

Objectives

The general objectives of the silent way method are to give beginning level students oral and aural facility in basic elements of the target language. The general goal of set for language learning is near native fluency in the target language, and correct pronunciation and mastery of the prosodic elements of the target language are emphasized.

Gattegno states that the Silent Way teaches learners how to learn a language and the skill developed through the process of learning a foreign or second language can be employed in dealing with "unknowns" of every type.

The method, we are told, can also be used to teach reading and writing, and its usefulness is not restricted to beginning level students. Most of the examples Gattegno describes however as well as the classes

we have observed, deal primarily with a basic level of aural/ oral proficiency.

Syllabus

The silent way adopts a basically structural syllabus, with lessons planned around grammatical items and related vocabulary. Gattegno does not, however, provide details as to the précis selection and arrangement of grammatical and lexical items to be covered. There is no general silent way syllabus.

Vocabulary is selected according to the degree to which it can be manipulated within a given structure and according to its productivity within the classroom setting. In addition to preposition and numbers, pronoun, quantifiers, words dealing with temporal relation, words of comparison are introduced early in the course, because they "refer to oneself and to others in the numerous relations of everyday life" (Stevick 1979).

Types of learning and teaching activities

Learning tasks and activities in the silent way have the function of encouraging and shaping student oral response without oral instruction from or unnecessary modeling by the teacher.

Basic to the method are simple linguistic tasks in which the teacher models a word, phrase, or sentences and than elicits learner responses. Learner than go on to create their own utterances by putting together old and new information. Charts, rods, and other aids may be used to elicit learner responses. Teacher modeling is minimal, although much of the activity may be teacher directed. Responses to commands, question, and visual cues thus constitute the basic for classroom activities.

Learner Roles

Gattegno sees language learning as a process of personal growth resulting from growing student awareness and self challenge. The learner first experiences a "random or almost random feeling of the area of

activity in question until one finds one or more cornerstones to build on. Then starts a systematic analysis, first by trial and error, later by directed experiment with practice of the acquired sub areas until mastery follows" (Gattegno 1972: 79)

Learner are expected to develop independence, autonomy, and responsibility.

- Independence
  Independent learners are those who are aware that they must depend on their own resources and realize that they can use " the knowledge of their own language to open up some things in anew language " or that they can " take their knowledge of the first few word in the new language and figure out additional words by using that knowledge " (Stevick 1980: 42)
- Autonomy
  The autonomous learner chooses proper expressions in a given set of circumstance and situation. "the teacher cultivates the student's autonomy by deliberately building choices into situations" (Stevick 1980: 42)
- Responsibility
  Responsible learners know that they have free will to choose intelligently and carefully is said to be evidence of responsibility. The absence of correction and repeated modeling from the teacher requires the students to develop inner criteria and to correct themselves. The absence of explanation requires learners to make generalization, come to their own conclusion, and formulate whatever rules they themselves feel they need.

In order to be productivity members of the learning groups, learner thus have to play varying roles. At times one is an independent individual. At other times a group members. A learner also must be a teacher, a student, part of a support system, a problem solver, and self evaluation. And it is the student who is usually expected to decide on what role is most appropriate to a given situation.

Teacher Roles

Teacher are exhorted to resist their long standing commitment to model, remodel, assist, and direct desired students responses, and Silent way teacher have remarked upon the arduousness of self restraint to which early experience of the silent way has subjected them.

The teacher uses gesture, charts, and manipulative, in order to elicit and shape student responses and so must be both facile and creative as a pantomimist and puppeteer. In sum, the silent way teacher, like the complete dramatist, writers the script, choose the props, sets the mood, models the action, designates t5he players, and is critics for the performance.

More generally, the teacher is responsible for creating an environment that encourages student risk taking and that facilitates learning. This is not to say that the silent way teacher becomes one of the groups. In fact observes have noted that the silent way teachers often appear aloof or even gruff with their students. The teacher's role is one of neutral observer neither elated by correct performance nor discouraged by error. Student are expected to come to see the teacher as a disinterested judge, supportive but emotionally uninvolved.

The Role of Instructional Materials

The silent way is perhaps as well known for the unique nature of its teaching materials as for the silence of its teacher. The materials consist mainly of a set of colored rods, color code pronunciation, and vocabulary wall charts, a pointer, and reading/writing exercise, all set of which are used to illustrate the relationship between sound and meaning in the target language.. the materials are designed for manipulation by the students as well as by the teacher, independently and cooperatively in promoting language learning by direct association.

The pronunciation charts, called "Fields" have been devised for a number of a language and contain symbols in the target language for all of the vowel and consonant sounds of the language. The symbol are color

coded according to pronunciation, thus if a language processes two deferent symbols for the same sound, they will be colored alike.

Class often begin by using Fidel charts in the native language, color coded in an analogous manner, so that students learn to pair a sound with its associated color.

There may be from one to eight of such charts, depending upon the language. The teacher uses the pointer to indicate the sounds symbol for the students to produce, where native language Fidel are used, the teacher will point to a symbol on one chart and than to its analogue on the field on the other language.

In the absence of native language charts or when introducing a sound not present in the native language the teacher give one clear. Audible model after indicating the proper Fidel symbol in the target language. The chart are hung on the wall and serve to aid in remembering pronunciation and in building new word by sounding out sequences of symbols as they pointed to by the teacher or student.

The content of word charts will vary form language to language, but the general content of the vocabulary charts (Gattegno: 1972) is paraphrased below:

Chart 1	the word rod, colors of the rods, plural markes, simple imperative verbs, personal pronouns, some adjectives and question words.
Charts 2, 3	remaining pronouns, words for “here” and “there” , of , for and name.
Charts 4	numbering
Charts 5,6	words illustrating size, space, and temporal relationship, as well as some concepts difficult to illustrate with rods, such as order, causality, condition, similarity, and difference
Charts 7	words that qualify, such as adverb
Charts 8, 9	verbs, with cultural references where possible
Charts 10	family relationship
Charts 11, 12	words expressing time, calendar elements, season days, week, months, year, etc.

Other materials that may be used include books and worksheets for practicing reading and writing skills, picture books, tapes, video tapes, films, and other visual aids. Reading and writing are sometimes thought from beginning and student are given assignment to do outside the classroom at their own pase.

These materials are of secondary importance and are used to supplement the classroom use of rods and charts. Choice and implementation depends upon need as assessed by teachers and students.

Procedure

A Silent way lesson typically follows standard format. The first part of the lesson focused on pronunciation depending on student's level. The class might work on sounds, phrases, or even sentences designated on the field chart. At the beginning stage, the teacher will model the appropriate sound after pointing to a symbol on the chart. Later, the teacher will silently point to individual symbol and combination of symbol, and monitor students utterances.

The teacher may say a word and have a student guess what sequence of symbols comprised the word. The pointers used to indicate stress, phrasing, and intonations. Stress can be shown by touching certain symbols more forcibly than others when pointing out a word. Intonation and phrasing can be demonstrated by tapping on the chart to the rhythm of the utterances.

Summary

The silent way represents Gattegno's venture into the field of foreign language teaching. Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned.

The rods and the color coded pronunciation charts (called Fidel charts) provide physical foci for student learning and also create memorable images to facilitate student recall.

In the silent way the teacher's strict avoidance of repetition forces alertness and concentration on the part of the learners" (Gattegno 1972;

80). Gattegno sees vocabulary as a central dimension of language learning and the choice of vocabulary as crucial. Like many other method proponents, Gattegno makes extensive use of his understanding of first language learning processes as a basic for deriving principles for teaching foreign language to adults. Gattegno's repeated emphasis on the primacy of learning over teaching places a focus on the self of the learner, on the learner's priorities and commitments.

But the silent way is not merely a language teaching method. Gattegno sees language learning through the silent way as a recovery of innocence "a return to our full powers and potentials". The general goal of set for language learning is near native fluency in the target language, and correct pronunciation and mastery of the prosodic elements of the target language are emphasized.

Gattegno states that the Silent Way teaches learners how to learn a language and the skill developed through the process of learning a foreign or second language can be employed in dealing with "unknowns" of every type. Charts, rods, and other aids may be used to elicit learner responses. Teacher modeling is minimal, although much of the activity may be teacher directed. Gattegno sees language learning as a process of personal growth resulting from growing student awareness and self challenge. "the teacher cultivates the student's autonomy by deliberately building choices into situations" (Stevick 1980: 42)

The materials are designed for manipulation by the students as well as by the teacher, independently and cooperatively in promoting language learning by direct association. Class often begin by using Fidel charts in the native language, color coded in an analogous manner, so that students learn to pair a sound with its associated color.

In the absence of native language charts or when introducing a sound not present in the native language the teacher give one clear. Audible model after indicating the proper Fidel symbol in the target language. The content of word charts will vary form language to language, but the general content of the vocabulary charts (Gattegno : 1972)

Questions and Application

1. Explain a background of the silent way.
2. Mention and explain the learning hypotheses underlying Gattegno's work.
3. What are theory of language and language learning underlying in the silent way.
4. Design and apply lesson plan for junior high school students by using the silent way.
5. Compare the procedure of teaching English by using the silent way and situational language teaching.
6. Develop syllabus and teaching materials by using the silent way.

CHAPTER 8

COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING

Short Description

This chapter describes background of community language learning. It is also described approaches that are used in community language learning in which theory of language and theory of learning to be covered. Design and procedure of teaching by using community language learning are also described and explained.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply community language learning that cover

- Background of community language learning
- Approaches that relate to community language learning.
- Design and procedure of applying community language learning.

Introduction

Community language learning (CLL) is the name of a method that is developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates. Curran was a specialist in counseling and a professor of psychology at Loyola University, Chicago. His application of psychological counseling techniques to learning is known as Counseling-Learning. Community Language Learning represents the use of Counseling-Learning theory to teach languages. If we view the comparison between Counseling-Learning Method and another language teaching methods, this method is less in the

technique, but tends to the human relationship. Curran introduced counseling-Learning method in 1961. This method is focused on students.

In this technique, Curran emphasized to the uniqueness of each person. Counseling interested to the insight and self-awareness to the achievement of each person that can stimulate personal development, satisfaction, and good relationship with other people. The emphasis of activities that is oriented to the collective tasks had brought some people, included Curran himself, to direct Community-Learning as Community Language Learning. According to Curran, those activities are more than a group process. He felt that our problems were the tendency in solving the problems than make a relationship with other people.

Curran said that the counselor should know the necessity of each person in achieving his or her personal satisfaction. That satisfaction needs interaction with other people that will produce appreciation and understanding on both sides. One of the interactions, especially in language classroom, is communication that is produced by students' collective efforts that are aimed to the tasks settlement. The procedures that are followed by Counseling-Learning language class are simple. The students (client in Curran's terminology) sit in a circle. The teacher (knower or counselor expert or counselor teacher) standing outside the circle. The teacher or knower can handle one client or three clients or one teacher or knower can handle the whole group.

The first phase, the teacher can use tape recorder. But, the sound that is recorded is just the sound of clients when they are speaking in target language. Curran felt that this activity can increase the students' new identity in using foreign language and helps them to be counselor-expert.

In this method, the students just ask to communicate each other about anything. They start the dialogue in mother tongue, and the knower, outside the circle, translates into target language. Then, the students express in target language about what they have just heard from the knower. Because the knower is outside the circle, the questions cannot be asked to the knower. Someone who includes in the circle will try to answer the question. Overhear is important in this phase. Same as Silent Way,

there is a silent period and reflection when someone is considering what she or he has just heard. If recording has done, it can be played when the lesson will be closed. The student can ask the knower to write down the dialogue in the blackboard and explain all the things related to the grammatical structure. It can be simply handled.

Curran has developed this method in lecture. He used four counselors of students. While the process of teaching and learning, these counselors paraphrased or summarized what they have just heard. If their perception is true, it means the teachers can continue their work.

The very amazing thing that can make the students happy is their responsibility of their learning activities. The students need the teacher when they want and they do not need the teacher when they know what they want to do. Same as Silent Way, the students help each other. When they start to acquire target language, the dialogue will be gratifying. The students can use mother tongue but turn to use target language quickly. Knower gives the translation if there is a student who gives the sign by raising his or her hand (need some helps).

At the end of the activities, the color signs are used. Red color will be flamed if the students make some mistakes; yellow color will be flamed if there is a suitable idiom or suitable way in paraphrasing the utterances; green color will be flamed if the students' utterances are true. Blue color refers to the ability of the native speaker. The students express their comments about their satisfaction in uttering sentence by sentence with another member in the circle while receive the warm support from the silence and symbolization.

In a good relation of knower-client, they believe and respect each other. The client tries to be same as the language and personality of the knower. Curran identified five stages of clients' developments. First, embryonic stages. In this stage, there is a total dependence to the teacher. Second, self-assertion stage, where the students start to show their independency. Third, birth stage, when the students speak independently although not perfect. Fourth, reversal stage when the students are ready to

get correction. Fifth, independent stage, where the students are able to repair their speaking style.

There are some limitation of this method. One of those limitations is exercise that is needed by the knower to be an ideal one. If she or he is not a native speaker, she or he should have a competence in acquiring the target language perfectly. The knower has to master psychological sector, to solve the problem that occur between students. The knower also has to master linguistic sector in solving the problems of phonology and grammatical structure of the target language. The characteristics of the power of this method are affective and cognitive. La-Forge who demonstrates this method in University of Michigan during six months, have reported the high motivation of the clients. He emphasized that the value of silent period is for learning and understanding what have been stated.

As have explained at the previous explanation above that Counseling-Learning represents the use of Community Language Learning that is developed by Curran and his associates. Why is it called as Community Language Learning? Because the learners learn or acquire their foreign language in a community or in a group. In teaching and learning process the students are asked by the teacher to make a circle and then they discuss each other about the message that will be conveyed. As we can see at the following procedures of Community Language Learning.

1. A group of learners sit in a circle.
2. A students whispers a message in the native language (L1)
   The students can convey what in their thinking, about their daily activities by using native language or mother tongue. But, it is better for them to convey the message that has relation to the topic that has given by the teacher. It helps them to master the material that is being learned, also, they can improve their speaking ability.
3. The teacher translates it the foreign language (L2)
   The teacher should translate the message that has conveyed by the students, by using foreign language. So that, the students know the translation of the message that they have conveyed in the foreign

language. The teacher in Community Language Learning classroom has to have competences in directing the students in learning the foreign language.

4. The student repeats the message in the foreign language into a cassette.

   In this procedure, the students have to be able to repeat the message that has translated by the teacher. It can improve their comprehension in listening of what the teacher said. While repeating the message that has translated by the teacher, the students record what they are conveying by using tape recorder.

5. Students compose further messages in the foreign language with the teacher's help.

   It can help the students' writing ability in composing messages in foreign language. The teacher has to manage what the students are doing. The teacher should help the students in composing the message in foreign language. So that, they know what they should compose. Sometimes, some students do not have many supply words. The teacher should help them in finding the suitable words that will be used in their writing.

6. Students reflect about their feelings.

   Sometimes, the techniques of Community Language Learning described as humanistic techniques, as defined by Moskowitz (1978)…

   Blend what the student feels, thinks, and knows with what he or she is learning in the target language. Rather than self-denial being the acceptable way of life, self-actualization and self-esteem are ideals the exercises pursue. (The techniques) help build rapport, cohesiveness, and caring tht far transcend what is already there…help students to be themselves, to accept themselves, and be proud of themselves… help foster a climate of caring and sharing in the foreign language class. (Moskowitch 1978: 2)

Approach

Theory of Language

As the students of Curran, La-Forge (1983) has attempted to be more explicit about this dimension of community language learning theory, and we draw of his account for the language theory underlying the method. La-Forge reviews linguistic theory as the prelude to presenting CLL model of language. He seems to accept that language theory must start, though not end, with criteria for sound features, the sentence, and abstract model of language. The foreign language learners' tasks are "to apprehend the sound system, assign fundamental meanings, and to construct a basic grammar of the foreign language."

A theory of language built on "basic sound and grammatical patterns" does not appear to suggest any departures from traditional structural position of the nature of language. But, the recent writing of CLL components deal at great length whit what they call an alternative theory of language, which is referred to as language as social process. La-Forge begins by suggesting that language, as social process is "different from language as communication." The social process model is different from earlier information-transmitting models, La-Forge suggest because communication is more than just a massage being transmitted from a speaker to a listener. The speaker is the same time both subject and object of his own massage. Communication involves not just the unidirectional transfer of information to the other, but also the very constitution of the speaking subject in relation to each other.

The social process view of language is then elaborated in terms of six qualities or sub processes:

1. The whole person process
2. The educational process
3. The interpersonal process
4. The developmental process
5. The communicative process
6. The cultural process

A theory of language built on "basic sound and grammatical patterns" does not appear to suggest any departures from traditional structuralist position on the nature of language. However, the recent writings of Community Language Learning proponents deal at great length with what they call an alternative theory of language, which is reffered to as Language as Social Process.

La-Forge elaborates on the interactional view of language underlying Community Language Learning. "Language is people; language is person in contact; language is person in response." Learner exchanges depend in intimacy, as the class becomes community of learners. Tranel (1968) notes that "the students of the experimental group were highly motivated to learn in order to avoid isolation from the group." Intimacy then appears to be defined here as the desire to avoid isolation.

Interaction between learners and knower is initially dependent. The learners tells the knower what she or he wishes to say in the target language , and the knower tells the learners how to say it. These two types of interaction may be said to be microcosmically equivalent to the two major classes of human interaction-interaction between equals (symmetrical) and interaction between unequal (asymmetrical) (Munby 1978). They also appear to represent examples of (a) interaction that changes in degree (learner to learner) and (b) interaction that changes in kind (learner to knower). That is learner-learner interaction is held to change in the direction of increasing intimacy and trust, whereas learners-knower interaction is held to change in its very nature from dependent to independent.

Theory of Learning

The CLL view of learning is contrasted with two other types of learning, which Curran saw as widespread and undesirable. The first of this describes a putative learning view long popular in Western culture. In this view, "the intellectual and factual process engagement and involvement of the self" (Curran 1972:58). The second of learning is the behavioral view. Curran refers to this kind of learning as "animal

learning," in which learners are "passive" and their involvement limited (Curran 1976: 84). In contrast, CLL advocates a holistic approach to language learning, since "true" human learning is both cognitive and affective. This is termed whole-person learning. Such learning takes place in a communicative situation where teachers and learners are involved in "an interaction…in which both experience a sense of their own wholeness" (Curran 1972: 90). Within this, the development of the learner's relationship with the teacher is central. The process is divided into five stages and compared to the ontogenetic development of the child. In the first, "birth" stage, feelings of security and belonging are established. In the second, as the learner's abilities improve, the learner, as child, begins to achieve a measure of independence from the parent. By the third, the learner "speaks independently" and may need to assert his or her own identity, often rejecting unasked-for advice. The fourth stage sees the learner as secure enough to take criticism, and by the last stage, the learner merely works upon improving style and knowledge of linguistic appropriateness. By the end of the process, the child has become adult. The learner knows everything the teacher does and can become knower for a new learner.

Design

Objectives

The explicit linguistic or communicative objectives are not defined in the literature on Community Language Learning because recently linguistic or communicative objectives are specified only in social terms. The introductory of conversation courses in a foreign language is the most thing that described in Community Language Learning. It is assumed that the teacher can successfully transfer his or her knowledge and proficiency in the target language to the learner, which implies that attaining near-native like mastery of the target language is set as a goal.

The Syllabus

Community Language Learning is most often used in the teaching of oral proficiency, but with some modifications, it may be used in the teaching of writing. As we have seen at the procedures of Community Language Learning, that the learners try to compose a writing about messages by using foreign language. In this sense then a CLL syllabus emerges from the interaction between the learner's expressed communicative intentions and the teacher's reformulations of these into suitable target language utterances. Specific grammatical points, lexical patterns, and generalizations will sometimes be isolated by the teacher for more detailed study and analysis, and subsequent specification of these as a retrospective account of what the course covered could be away of deriving a CLL language syllabus. Each CLL course would evolve its own syllabus, however, since what develops out of teacher-learner interactions in one course will be different from what happens in another.

Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

CLL combines innovative learning tasks and activities with conventional one. They include (1) translation in which learners form a small circle and then they express their idea or message in their mother tongue and finally teacher translates their message into target language, (2) group work in which learners may engage in various group tasks such as small group discussion of a topic, preparing a conversation, (3) recording in which students record conversations in the target language, (4) transcription in which students transcribe utterances and conversations they have recorded for practice, (5) analysis in which students analyze and study transcription of a target language, (6) reflections and observation in which students reflect and report of their experience of the class, (7) listening in which students listen a monologue from the teacher in class interaction, and (8) free conversation in which students engage in free conversation with the teacher or other students.

Learner Roles

In community language learning, learners become members of a community – their fellow learners and the teacher – and learn through interacting with members of the community. CLL learners are grouped in a circle of six to twelve learners. Richards and Rodgers (1986) state that learning is a 'whole person" process, and the learner at each stage is involved not just in the accomplishment of cognitive tasks but in the solution of affective conflicts. They state five stages of language learning to the stage of human growth (1) the learner is like the infant, (2) the child achieves a measure of independence from the parent, (3) the separate-existence stage in which learners begin to understand others directly in the target language, (4) may be considered "a kind of adolescence" the learner functions independently, and (5) the independent stage in which learners refine their understanding of register as well as grammatically correct language use.

Teacher Roles

The teacher's function derives from the functions of the counselor. A counselor's clients are people with problem, who in a typical counseling session will often use emotional language to communicate their difficulties to the counselor. More specific teacher roles are, like those of the students, keyed to the five developmental stages. In the early stage of learning, the teacher operates in a supportive role, providing target language translation, and model for imitation and then interaction may be initiated by the students, and teacher monitors learner utterances.

The Role of Instructional Materials

Teaching materials may be developed by the teacher as the course develops, although these generally consist of little more than summaries on the blackboard or overhead projector of some of linguistic features of conversations generated by students. Conversations may also be transcribed and distributed for study and analysis, and learner may work in groups to produce their own materials.

Procedure

The learners are linked in some way to knowers or a single knower as teacher. The first class may begin with a period of silence, in which learners try to determine what is supposed to happen in the language class. In the later classes, learners may sit in silence while they decide what to talk about. The teacher may then form the class into facing lines for three-minutes pair conversations. The following this the class might be reformed into small groups in which a single topic, chosen by the class or the group, is discussed. In the intermediate or advanced class a teacher may encourage groups to prepare paper drama for presentation to the rest of the class.

Summary

This chapter describes background of community language learning. It is also described approaches that are used in community language learning in which theory of language and theory of learning to be covered. Design and procedure of teaching by using community language learning are also described and explained. Community language learning (CLL) is the name of a method that is developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates. Community Language Learning represents the use of Counseling-Learning theory to teach languages. Curran introduced counseling-Learning method in 1961. This method is focused on students.

The emphasis of activities that is oriented to the collective tasks had brought some people, included Curran himself, to direct Community-Learning as Community Language Learning. The procedures that are followed in Counseling-Learning language class are simple. The students (client in Curran's terminology) sit in a circle. The teacher (knower or counselor expert or counselor teacher) standing outside the circle. The teacher or knower can handle one client or three clients or one teacher or knower can handle the whole group. Then, the students express in target language about what they have just heard from the knower. The students can use mother tongue but turn to use target language quickly. First, embryonic stages. Third, birth stage, when the students speak

independently although not perfect. Why is it called as Community Language Learning? Because the learners learn or acquire their foreign language in a community or in a group. As we can see at the following procedures of Community Language Learning are (1) a group of learners sit in a circle, (2) a students whispers a message in the native language (L1) (3) the teacher translates it the foreign language (L2), (4) the teacher should translate the message that has conveyed by the students, by using foreign language, (5) the teacher in Community Language Learning classroom has to have competences in directing the students in learning the foreign language, (6) the student repeats the message in the foreign language into a cassette, and (7) students compose further messages in the foreign language with the teacher's help.

It can help the students' writing ability in composing messages in foreign language. The teacher has to manage what the students are doing. The teacher should help the students in composing the message in foreign language. Students reflect about their feelings.

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The interpersonal process

The developmental process

The communicative process

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contrast, CLL advocates a holistic approach to language learning, since "true" human learning is both cognitive and affective. The learner knows everything the teacher does and can become knower for a new learner.

The introductory of conversation courses in a foreign language is the most thing that described in Community Language Learning. As we have seen at the procedures of Community Language Learning, that the learners try to compose a writing about messages by using foreign language.

In community language learning, learners become members of a community – their fellow learners and the teacher – and learn through interacting with members of the community. CLL learners are grouped in a circle of six to twelve learners.

In the early stage of learning, the teacher operates in a supportive role, providing target language translation, and model for imitation and then interaction may be initiated by the students, and teacher monitors learner utterances.

Questions and Application

1. Describe a background of community language learning.
2. What theory of language underlying in community language learning?
3. What theory of language learning underlying in community language learning?
4. What is the objectives of CLL?
5. Mention and explain types of learning and teaching activities of CLL.
6. What are the roles of learners, teacher, and instructional materials in CLL?
7. Develop lesson plan and teaching materials for Senior High School Students.

CHAPTER 9

LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Short Description

This chapter describes introduction of language learning strategies. It covers why learning strategies are important, features of language learning strategies, a new system of language learning, direct strategies and indirect strategies.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply language learning strategies that cover

- why language learning strategies are important
- features of language learning strategies.
- Types of language learning strategies.

Introduction

Language learning strategies have an important aspect in language learning. Language learning strategies are tools for developing activities in learning a language. Oxford (1990) describes language learning strategies in relating to (1) why learning strategies are important, (2) the useful terms for understanding the learning strategy concept, (3) the most important features of language learning strategies, and (4) classification of language learning strategies.

Besides, the discussion also focuses on (1) direct strategies, (2) indirect strategies, (3) differences of direct and indirect strategies, (4) the

importance of direct strategies for language learning. Finally, applying direct and indirect strategies to the four language skills.

Why Learning Strategies are Important

Learning strategies are steps taken by students to enhance their own learning strategies. Strategies are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self directive involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Appropriate language learning strategies results in improved proficiency and greater self-confidence.

Learning strategies are becoming reorganized throughout education in general. Under various names, such as learning skills, learning to learn skills, thinking skills, problem solving skills, learning strategies are the way students learn a wide range of subject. Within the language instruction field, teachers are starting to discuss learning strategies among themselves. Learning strategy workshops are drawing big crowds at language teachers' conventions. Researchers are identifying, classifying, evaluating language learning strategies. Most encouraging of all, increasing of language learners are beginning to recognize the power their own strategies.

The Useful Terms for Understanding Learning Strategy Concept

Learning is conscious knowledge of language rules, does not lead to conversational fluency, and it is derived from formal instruction. Acquisition, on the other hand, occurs unconsciously and spontaneously, does lead to conversational fluency, and arises from naturalistic language use. Some specialists even suggest that learning cannot contribute to acquisition, i.e., that "conscious" gain in knowledge cannot influence "subconscious" development of language. Moreover, some elements of language use are at first conscious and then become unconscious or automatic through practice.

Language learning strategies contribute to all parts of the learning-acquisition continuum. For instance, analytic strategies are directly related to the learning end of the continuum, while strategies involving naturalistic

practice facilitate the acquisition of language skills, and guessing and memory strategies are equally useful to both learning and acquisition.

The target language, or language being learned, can be either a second language or a foreign language. The difference between learning a second language and learning a foreign language is usually viewed in terms of where the language is learned and what social and communicative functions the language serves there. A second language has social and communicative functions within the community where it is learned. For example, in multilingual countries like Canada. In contrast, a foreign language does not have immediate social and communicative functions within the community where it is learned. For instance, English in France and Indonesia.

Learning Strategies

Learning strategies have been perceived and defined in many different ways, some researcher describe the use unobservable attributes, behaviors or observable actual step. In term of scope some expert consider that learning strategies include only tings related to the internalization of language system, whereas some others think that they also include the broad goal of communicative competence.

Learning strategies are described as attributes and behaviors. Joan Rubin in Huda (1999:54), for instance, has studied the differences in characteristics between successful language learners. On the other hand, Oxford defines learning strategies as specific actions taken by learners to make language learning more effective, more self-directed, and more enjoyable (Oxford, 1989:235). Her definition thus, concerns observable behaviors, although it might also include unobservable cognitive actions. In a previous discussion, Oxford considers learning strategies as actions taken by learners as well as the personal characteristics of learners. She further points out that learning strategies are specific techniques or activities learners use to facilitate learning and are a very important attribute to the learners (Oxford-Carpenter, no date.

The concept learning strategy suggested by Brown in Huda (1999:54) emphasizes that learning strategies are unobservable behaviors inside that learners. Brown distinguishes between learning strategy and communication strategy. While the former relates to language input (i.e., processing, storage, and retrieval), the latter has more to do with language output (i.e., how we express meaning in the language and how we act upon what we already know or presume to know). The two terms, however, have often been used interchangeable to mean the same concept.

Similarly, stern's in Huda (1999:54) definition of learning strategies also emphasizes the unobservable cognitive aspects. He perceives them as general tendencies or characteristics of approaches taken by second language learners (Stern, 1983:405). In other words, he differentiates between learning strategies form learning techniques, which refer to observable behaviors.

Classification of Learning Strategies

According to Huda (1999:54) learning strategies can be classified in a number of ways. First, they are divided in to two major classes: primary and support or direct and indirect (Dansureu 1978; Ruben, 1981). Primary strategies are directly employed in absorbing teaching material related to the target language. Whereas support strategies are used to develop good learning attitudes and to help learner overcome learning distraction, fatigue frustration etc.

Second learning strategies are classified as cognitive and metacognitive. Strategies are used to organize learning materials to be memorized in a long term. Include in this group such memorizing tools as mnemonic strategies and rhyming. On the other hand metacognitive strategies refer to steps, which are taken to consider the cognitive process, for example, self-monitoring self-evaluating and self-reinforcing.

Third, learning strategies are grouped into syntactic and semantic strategies. While the former refers to the use of function words, prefix, suffix, and part of speech, the latter to concrete things situation, and events.

Finally, some experts classified learning strategies as social and non-social (e.g. Fillmore**,** 1976; Russo and Stewner-Manzanares, 1985). Social learning strategies deal with the efforts, which are made by the learner in order to get as much exposure as possible, to increase interaction to native speaker, and to enhance motivation to learn. Examples of such strategies are request for explanation, body movements, physical distance with the interlocutor, etc.

Rubin and Thompson in Huda(1999:55) present 14 learning strategies commonly used by language learners, namely:

1. Find your own way
2. Organize
3. Be creative
4. Make your own opportunities
5. Learn to live with uncertainty
6. Use mnemonics
7. Make errors work
8. Use your linguistic knowledge
9. Let context help your
10. Learn to make intelligent guesses
11. Learn some lines as wholes
12. Learning formalized
13. Learn production technique
14. Use different style of speech.

Quite differently, Oxford (1990) propose a system of learning-strategy classification, although the maintains to divide learning strategies into two major classes, direct and indirect. These two classes are subdivided into a total of six groups, each of which is made up of more specific strategies. Direct and indirect strategies are complementary to and support each other. The first class relates to the target language itself in a variety of specific language task and situations. Direct strategies are like the performer in a stage play of learning activities and developing communicative competence and indirect strategies is used to direct the learning process

Based on the classification of learning strategies According to Oxford (1990) can classified they are:

DIRECT STRATEGIES

I. Memory strategies
   a. Creating mental images
   b. Applying images and sound
   c. Reviewing well
   d. Employing action
II. Cognitive strategies
   a. Practicing
   b. Receiving and sending message
   c. Analyzing and reasoning
   d. Creating structure for input and output
III. Compensation strategies
   a. Guessing intelligently
   b. Overcoming limitation in speaking and writing

INDIRECT STRATEGIES

I. Metacognitive strategies
   a. Centering your learning
   b. Arranging and planning your learning
   c. Evaluating your learning
II. II. Affective strategies
   a. Lowering your anxiety
   b. Encouraging yourself
   c. Taking your emotional temperature
III. III. Social strategies
   a. Asking question
   b. Cooperating which other
   c. Empathizing with others

Compensation Strategies

According to Oxford (1990:47) Compensation strategies enable learners to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite limitation in knowledge. Compensation strategies are intended to make up for an inadequate repertoire of grammar and, especially, of vocabulary. Ten compensation strategies exist, clustered into two sets: Guessing intelligently in listening and reading, and overcoming limitation in speaking and writing.

Guessing strategies, sometimes called "inference" involve using a wide variety of clues linguistic and nonlinguistic to guess the meaning when the learner does not know all the words. Good language learners, when confronted with unknown expression, make educated guesses. On the other hand, less adept language learners often panic, tune out, or grab the dog-eared dictionary and try to look up every unfamiliar word harmful response, which impede program toward proficiency.

Beginners are not the only ones who employ guessing. Advanced learners and even native speaker use guessing when they haven't heard something well enough, when they don't know a new word, or when the meaning is hidden between the lines. Guessing is actually just a special case of the way people typically process new information that is interpreting the data by using the immediate context and their own life experience "Meaning is in fact created by the receiver in light of the experience which provides the source of many intelligent guess for both language experts and novices.

Compensation occurs not just in understanding the new language but also in producing it. Compensation strategies allow learners to produce spoken or written expression in the new language without complete knowledge. Researcher has typically paid attention only to compensation strategies for speaking. It is true that certain compensation strategies, like using mime or gesture, are used in speaking. However, other compensation strategies adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, using a circumlocution or synonym, or selecting the topic can be used in informal writing as well in speaking.

Many compensation strategies for production are used to compensate for a lack of appropriate vocabulary, but these strategies can also be used to make up for a lack of grammatical knowledge.

Compensation strategies for production help learners to keep on using the language, thus obtaining more practice. In addition, some of these strategies, such as adjusting or approximating the message, help learner strategies, like getting help and coining words, may lead learners to gain new information about what is appropriate or permissible in the target language. Learners skill in such strategies sometimes communicate better than learners who know many more target language words and structure.

The Classification of Compensation Strategies

Oxford classified Compensation strategies clustered into two set are:

Guessing intelligently in listening and reading

The two strategies, which contribute to guessing intelligently, refer to two different kinds of clues: linguistic and nonlinguistic:

a. Using linguistic clues

   Seeking and using language-based clues in order to guess the meaning of what is heard or read in the target language, in the absence of complete knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, or other target language elements. Language based clues may come from aspect of the target language that the learner already knows, from the learners' own language, or from another language.

b. Using other clues

   Seeking and using clues that is not language-based in order to guess the meaning of what is heard or read in the target language, in the absence of complete knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, or other target language elements. No language clues may come from a wide variety of source: knowledge of context, situation, text structure, personal relationship, topic or "general world knowledge".

Overcoming limitation in speaking and writing

Eight strategies are used to overcoming limitation in speaking and writing. Some of these are dedicated solely to speaking, but some can be used for writing as well.

a. Switching to the mother tongue
   Using for the mother tongue for an expression without translating it, as in Ich bin eine girl. These strategies may also include adding word endings from the new language onto words from the mother tongue.
b. Getting help
   Asking someone for help by hesitating or explicitly asking for the person to provide the missing expression in the target language.
c. Using mime or gesture
   Using physical motion, such as mime or gesture, in place of an expression to indicate the meaning
d. Avoiding Communication partially or totally
   Partially or totally avoiding communication when difficulties are anticipated. This strategy may involve avoiding communication in general, avoiding certain topics, avoiding specific expression, or abandoning communication in mid-utterance.
e. Selecting topic
   Choosing the topic of conversation in order to direct the communication to one's own interests and make sure the topic is one in which the learner has sufficient vocabulary and grammar to converse.
f. Adjusting or approximating the message
   Altering the message by omitting some items of information, making ideas simpler or less precise, or saying something slightly different that means almost the same thing pencil or pen.
g. Coining Words
   Making up news word to communicate the desired idea, such as paper holder for notebook.

h. Using a Circumlocution or synonym
   Getting the meaning across by describing the concept (circumlocution) or using or word that means the something (synonym); for example,"what you use to wash dishes with" as a description for dishrag.

Summary

This chapter describes introduction of language learning strategies. It covers why learning strategies are important, features of language learning strategies, a new system of language learning, direct strategies and indirect strategies. Language learning strategies have important aspects in language learning. Language learning strategies are tools for developing activities in learning a language. Oxford (1990) describes language learning strategies in relating to (1) why learning strategies are important, (2) the useful terms for understanding the learning strategy concept, (3) the most important features of language learning strategies, and (4) classification of language learning strategies.

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Learning strategies are steps taken by students to enhance their own learning strategies. Appropriate language learning strategies results in improved proficiency and greater self-confidence.

Learning strategies are becoming reorganized throughout education in general. Under various names, such as learning skills, learning to learn skills, thinking skills, problem solving skills, learning strategies are they way students learn a wide range of subject. Within the language instruction field, teachers are starting to discuss learning strategies among themselves. Learning strategy workshops are drawing big crowds at language teachers' conventions. Researchers are identifying, classifying, evaluating language learning strategies.

Language learning strategies contribute to all parts of the learning-acquisition continuum. The target language, or language being learned, can be either a second language or a foreign language. The difference between learning a second language and learning a foreign language is usually viewed in terms of where the language is learned and what social and communicative functions the language serves there.

Learning strategies are described as attributes and behaviors. The concept learning strategy suggested by Brown in Huda (1999:54) emphasizes that learning strategies are unobservable behaviors inside that learners. Brown distinguishes between learning strategy and communication strategy.

Whereas support strategies are used to develop good learning attitudes and to help learner overcome learning distraction, fatigue frustration etc.

Second learning strategies are classified as cognitive and metacognitive. Third, learning strategies are grouped into syntactic and semantic strategies. Rubin and Thompson in Huda(1999:55) present 14 learning strategies commonly used by language learners, namely:

1. Learn to maker intelligent guesses
2. Learning formalized
3. Learn production technique

DIRECT STRATEGIES

I. Memory strategies
II. Cognitive strategies
III. Compensation strategies
Guessing intelligently

INDIRECT STRATEGIES

I. Metacognitive strategies
Centering your learning
Evaluating your learning
II. Affective strategies
III. Social strategies

Compensation strategies allow learners to produce spoken or written expression in the new language without complete knowledge. Compensation strategies for production help learners to keep on using the language, thus obtaining more practice. Learners skill in such strategies sometimes communicate better than learners who know many more target language words and structure.

Questions

1. Why language learning strategies are important?
2. What are different concepts of learning and acquisition?
3. What is learning strategies?
4. According to Huda (1999) learning strategies classified into 14 classification. Mention 10 of them and explain the significances to students.
5. Oxford (1990) classifies learning strategies into direct and indirect strategies. Mention and explain of each.
6. What learning strategies to be applied for developing communicative language ability?

CHAPTER 10

TEACHING READING

Short Description

This chapter describes teaching reading. It explains reading purposes and reading comprehension, reading as a process, strategies for developing reading skills, developing reading activities, using textbook reading activities and assessing reading proficiency.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply teaching reading that cover

- Reading purposes and reading comprehension
- Reading as a process
- Using textbook reading activities and assessing reading proficiency.

Introduction

Traditionally, the purpose of learning to read in a language has been to have access to the literature written in that language. In language instruction, reading materials have traditionally been chosen from literary texts that represent "higher" forms of culture.

This approach assumes that students learn to read a language by studying its vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure, not by actually reading it. In this approach, lower level learners read only sentences and paragraphs generated by textbook writers and instructors. The reading of authentic materials is limited to the works of great authors and reserved for upper level students who have developed the language skills needed to read them.

The communicative approach to language teaching has given instructors a different understanding of the role of reading in the language classroom and the types of texts that can be used in instruction. When the goal of instruction is communicative competence, everyday materials such as train schedules, newspaper articles, and travel and tourism Web sites become appropriate classroom materials, because reading them is one way communicative competence is developed. Instruction in reading and reading practice thus become essential parts of language teaching at every level.

Reading Purpose and Reading Comprehension

Reading is an activity with a purpose. A person may read in order to gain information or verify existing knowledge, or in order to critique a writer's ideas or writing style. A person may also read for enjoyment, or to enhance knowledge of the language being read. The purpose(s) for reading guide the reader's selection of texts.

The purpose for reading also determines the appropriate approach to reading comprehension. A person who needs to know whether she can afford to eat at a particular restaurant needs to comprehend the pricing information provided on the menu, but does not need to recognize the name of every appetizer listed. A person reading poetry for enjoyment needs to recognize the words the poet uses and the ways they are put together, but does not need to identify main idea and supporting details. However, a person using a scientific article to support an opinion needs to know the vocabulary that is used, understand the facts and cause-effect sequences that are presented, and recognize ideas that are presented as hypotheses and givens.

Reading research shows that good readers

- Read extensively
- Integrate information in the text with existing knowledge
- Have a flexible reading style, depending on what they are reading
- Are motivated

- Rely on different skills interacting: perceptual processing, phonemic processing, recall
- Read for a purpose; reading serves a function

Reading as a Process

Reading is an interactive process that goes on between the reader and the text, resulting in comprehension. The text presents letters, words, sentences, and paragraphs that encode meaning. The reader uses knowledge, skills, and strategies to determine what that meaning is.

Reader knowledge, skills, and strategies include

- Linguistic competence: the ability to recognize the elements of the writing system; knowledge of vocabulary; knowledge of how words are structured into sentences
- Discourse competence: knowledge of discourse markers and how they connect parts of the text to one another
- Sociolinguistic competence: knowledge about different types of texts and their usual structure and content
- Strategic competence: the ability to use top-down strategies (see Strategies for Developing Reading Skills for descriptions), as well as knowledge of the language (a bottom-up strategy)

The purpose(s) for reading and the type of text determine the specific knowledge, skills, and strategies that readers need to apply to achieve comprehension. Reading comprehension is thus much more than decoding. Reading comprehension results when the reader knows which skills and strategies are appropriate for the type of text, and understands how to apply them to accomplish the reading purpose.

Strategies for Developing Reading Skills

Using Reading Strategies

Language instructors are often frustrated by the fact that students do not automatically transfer the strategies they use when reading in their native language to reading in a language they are learning. Instead, they seem to think reading means starting at the beginning and going word by

word, stopping to look up every unknown vocabulary item, until they reach the end. When they do this, students are relying exclusively on their linguistic knowledge, a bottom-up strategy. One of the most important functions of the language instructor, then, is to help students move past this idea and use top-down strategies as they do in their native language.

Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation.

Strategies that can help students read more quickly and effectively include

- Previewing: reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection
- Predicting: using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content
- Skimming and scanning: using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions
- Guessing from context: using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up
- Paraphrasing: stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text

Instructors can help students learn when and how to use reading strategies in several ways.

- By modeling the strategies aloud, talking through the processes of previewing, predicting, skimming and scanning, and paraphrasing. This shows students how the strategies work and how much they can know about a text before they begin to read word by word.
- By allowing time in class for group and individual previewing and predicting activities as preparation for in-class or out-of-class

reading. Allocating class time to these activities indicates their importance and value.

- By using cloze (fill in the blank) exercises to review vocabulary items. This helps students learn to guess meaning from context.
- By encouraging students to talk about what strategies they think will help them approach a reading assignment, and then talking after reading about what strategies they actually used. This helps students develop flexibility in their choice of strategies.

When language learners use reading strategies, they find that they can control the reading experience, and they gain confidence in their ability to read the language.

Reading to Learn

Reading is an essential part of language instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways.

- Reading to learn the language: Reading material is language input. By giving students a variety of materials to read, instructors provide multiple opportunities for students to absorb vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and discourse structure as they occur in authentic contexts. Students thus gain a more complete picture of the ways in which the elements of the language work together to convey meaning.
- Reading for content information: Students' purpose for reading in their native language is often to obtain information about a subject they are studying, and this purpose can be useful in the language learning classroom as well. Reading for content information in the language classroom gives students both authentic reading material and an authentic purpose for reading.
- Reading for cultural knowledge and awareness: Reading everyday materials that are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldviews of the people whose language they are studying. When students have access to newspapers, magazines, and Web sites, they are exposed to culture

in all its variety, and monolithic cultural stereotypes begin to break down.

When reading to learn, students need to follow four basic steps:

1. Figure out the purpose for reading. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate reading strategies.
2. Attend to the parts of the text that are relevant to the identified purpose and ignore the rest. This selectivity enables students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory.
3. Select strategies that are appropriate to the reading task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up skills simultaneously to construct meaning.
4. Check comprehension while reading and when the reading task is completed. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, helping them learn to use alternate strategies.

Goals and Techniques for Teaching Reading

Instructors want to produce students who, even if they do not have complete control of the grammar or an extensive lexicon, can fend for themselves in communication situations. In the case of reading, this means producing students who can use reading strategies to maximize their comprehension of text, identify relevant and non-relevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension.

Focus: The Reading Process

To accomplish this goal, instructors focus on the process of reading rather than on its product.

- They develop students' awareness of the reading process and reading strategies by asking students to think and talk about how they read in their native language.

- They allow students to practice the full repertoire of reading strategies by using authentic reading tasks. They encourage students to read to learn (and have an authentic purpose for reading) by giving students some choice of reading material.
- When working with reading tasks in class, they show students the strategies that will work best for the reading purpose and the type of text. They explain how and why students should use the strategies.
- They have students practice reading strategies in class and ask them to practice outside of class in their reading assignments. They encourage students to be conscious of what they're doing while they complete reading assignments.
- They encourage students to evaluate their comprehension and self-report their use of strategies. They build comprehension checks into in-class and out-of-class reading assignments, and periodically review how and when to use particular strategies.
- They encourage the development of reading skills and the use of reading strategies by using the target language to convey instructions and course-related information in written form: office hours, homework assignments, test content.
- They do not assume that students will transfer strategy use from one task to another. They explicitly mention how a particular strategy can be used in a different type of reading task or with another skill.

By raising students' awareness of reading as a skill that requires active engagement, and by explicitly teaching reading strategies, instructors help their students develop both the ability and the confidence to handle communication situations they may encounter beyond the classroom. In this way they give their students the foundation for communicative competence in the new language.

Integrating Reading Strategies

Instruction in reading strategies is not an add-on, but rather an integral part of the use of reading activities in the language classroom.

Instructors can help their students become effective readers by teaching them how to use strategies before, during, and after reading.

Before reading: Plan for the reading task

- Set a purpose or decide in advance what to read for
- Decide if more linguistic or background knowledge is needed
- Determine whether to enter the text from the top down (attend to the overall meaning) or from the bottom up (focus on the words and phrases)

During and after reading: Monitor comprehension

- Verify predictions and check for inaccurate guesses
- Decide what is and is not important to understand
- Reread to check comprehension
- Ask for help

After reading: Evaluate comprehension and strategy use

- Evaluate comprehension in a particular task or area
- Evaluate overall progress in reading and in particular types of reading tasks
- Decide if the strategies used were appropriate for the purpose and for the task
- Modify strategies if necessary

Using Authentic Materials and Approaches

For students to develop communicative competence in reading, classroom and homework reading activities must resemble (or be) real-life reading tasks that involve meaningful communication. They must therefore be authentic in three ways.

1. The reading material must be authentic: It must be the kind of material that students will need and want to be able to read when traveling, studying abroad, or using the language in other contexts outside the classroom.

   When selecting texts for student assignments, remember that the difficulty of a reading text is less a function of the language, and

more a function of the conceptual difficulty and the task(s) that students are expected to complete. Simplifying a text by changing the language often removes natural redundancy and makes the organization somewhat difficult for students to predict. This actually makes a text more difficult to read than if the original were used.

Rather than simplifying a text by changing its language, make it more approachable by eliciting students' existing knowledge in pre-reading discussion, reviewing new vocabulary before reading, and asking students to perform tasks that are within their competence, such as skimming to get the main idea or scanning for specific information, before they begin intensive reading.

2. The reading purpose must be authentic: Students must be reading for reasons that make sense and have relevance to them. "Because the teacher assigned it" is not an authentic reason for reading a text.

   To identify relevant reading purposes, ask students how they plan to use the language they are learning and what topics they are interested in reading and learning about. Give them opportunities to choose their reading assignments, and encourage them to use the library, the Internet, and foreign language newsstands and bookstores to find other things they would like to read.
3. The reading approach must be authentic: Students should read the text in a way that matches the reading purpose, the type of text, and the way people normally read. This means that reading aloud will take place only in situations where it would take place outside the classroom, such as reading for pleasure. The majority of students' reading should be done silently.

Reading Aloud in the Classroom

Students do not learn to read by reading aloud. A person who reads aloud and comprehends the meaning of the text is coordinating word recognition with comprehension and speaking and pronunciation ability in highly complex ways. Students whose language skills are limited are not able to process at this level, and end up having to drop one or more of the

elements. Usually the dropped element is comprehension, and reading aloud becomes word calling: simply pronouncing a series of words without regard for the meaning they carry individually and together. Word calling is not productive for the student who is doing it, and it is boring for other students to listen to.

- There are two ways to use reading aloud productively in the language classroom. Read aloud to your students as they follow along silently. You have the ability to use inflection and tone to help them hear what the text is saying. Following along as you read will help students move from word-by-word reading to reading in phrases and thought units, as they do in their first language.
- Use the "read and look up" technique. With this technique, a student reads a phrase or sentence silently as many times as necessary, then looks up (away from the text) and tells you what the phrase or sentence says. This encourages students to read for ideas, rather than for word recognition.

Developing Reading Activities

Developing reading activities involves more than identifying a text that is "at the right level," writing a set of comprehension questions for students to answer after reading, handing out the assignment and sending students away to do it. A fully-developed reading activity supports students as readers through prereading, while-reading, and post-reading activities.

As you design reading tasks, keep in mind that complete recall of all the information in a text is an unrealistic expectation even for native speakers. Reading activities that are meant to increase communicative competence should be success oriented and build up students' confidence in their reading ability.

Construct the reading activity around a purpose that has significance for the students

Make sure students understand what the purpose for reading is: to get the main idea, obtain specific information, understand most or all of the message, enjoy a story, or decide whether or not to read more. Recognizing the purpose for reading will help students select appropriate reading strategies.

Define the activity's instructional goal and the appropriate type of response

In addition to the main purpose for reading, an activity can also have one or more instructional purposes, such as practicing or reviewing specific grammatical constructions, introducing new vocabulary, or familiarizing students with the typical structure of a certain type of text.

Check the level of difficulty of the text

The factors listed below can help you judge the relative ease or difficulty of a reading text for a particular purpose and a particular group of students.

- How is the information organized? Does the story line, narrative, or instruction conform to familiar expectations? Texts in which the events are presented in natural chronological order, which have an informative title, and which present the information following an obvious organization (main ideas first, details and examples second) are easier to follow.
- How familiar are the students with the topic? Remember that misapplication of background knowledge due to cultural differences can create major comprehension difficulties.
- Does the text contain redundancy? At the lower levels of proficiency, listeners may find short, simple messages easier to process, but students with higher proficiency benefit from the natural redundancy of authentic language.

- Does the text offer visual support to aid in reading comprehension? Visual aids such as photographs, maps, and diagrams help students preview the content of the text, guess the meanings of unknown words, and check comprehension while reading.

Remember that the level of difficulty of a text is not the same as the level of difficulty of a reading task. Students who lack the vocabulary to identify all of the items on a menu can still determine whether the restaurant serves steak and whether they can afford to order one.

Use pre-reading activities to prepare students for reading

The activities you use during pre-reading may serve as preparation in several ways. During pre-reading you may:

- Assess students' background knowledge of the topic and linguistic content of the text
- Give students the background knowledge necessary for comprehension of the text, or activate the existing knowledge that the students possess
- Clarify any cultural information which may be necessary to comprehend the passage
- Make students aware of the type of text they will be reading and the purpose(s) for reading
- Provide opportunities for group or collaborative work and for class discussion activities

Sample pre-reading activities:

- Using the title, subtitles, and divisions within the text to predict content and organization or sequence of information
- Looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs and their captions
- Talking about the author's background, writing style, and usual topics
- Skimming to find the theme or main idea and eliciting related prior knowledge
- Reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures

- Reading over the comprehension questions to focus attention on finding that information while reading
- Constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related)
- Doing guided practice with guessing meaning from context or checking comprehension while reading

Pre-reading activities are most important at lower levels of language proficiency and at earlier stages of reading instruction. As students become more proficient at using reading strategies, you will be able to reduce the amount of guided pre-reading and allow students to do these activities themselves.

Match while-reading activities to the purpose for reading

In while-reading activities, students check their comprehension as they read. The purpose for reading determines the appropriate type and level of comprehension.

- When reading for specific information, students need to ask themselves, have I obtained the information I was looking for?
- When reading for pleasure, students need to ask themselves, Do I understand the story line/sequence of ideas well enough to enjoy reading this?
- When reading for thorough understanding (intensive reading), students need to ask themselves, Do I understand each main idea and how the author supports it? Does what I'm reading agree with my predictions, and, if not, how does it differ? To check comprehension in this situation, students may
- Stop at the end of each section to review and check their predictions, restate the main idea and summarize the section
- Use the comprehension questions as guides to the text, stopping to answer them as they read

Using Textbook Reading Activities

Many language textbooks emphasize product (answers to comprehension questions) over process (using reading skills and strategies to understand the text), providing little or no contextual information about the reading selections or their authors, and few if any pre-reading activities. Newer textbooks may provide pre-reading activities and reading strategy guidance, but their one-size-fits-all approach may or may not be appropriate for your students.

You can use the guidelines for developing reading activities given here as starting points for evaluating and adapting textbook reading activities. Use existing, or add your own, pre-reading activities and reading strategy practice as appropriate for your students. Don't make students do exercises simply because they are in the book; this destroys motivation.

Another problem with textbook reading selections is that they have been adapted to a predetermined reading level through adjustment of vocabulary, grammar, and sentence length. This makes them more immediately approachable, but it also means that they are less authentic and do not encourage students to apply the reading strategies they will need to use outside of class. When this is the case, use the textbook reading selection as a starting point to introduce a writer or topic, and then give students choices of more challenging authentic texts to read as a followup.

Assessing Reading Proficiency

Reading ability is very difficult to assess accurately. In the communicative competence model, a student's reading level is the level at which that student is able to use reading to accomplish communication goals. This means that assessment of reading ability needs to be correlated with purposes for reading.

Reading Aloud

A student's performance when reading aloud is not a reliable indicator of that student's reading ability. A student who is perfectly

capable of understanding a given text when reading it silently may stumble when asked to combine comprehension with word recognition and speaking ability in the way that reading aloud requires.

In addition, reading aloud is a task that students will rarely, if ever, need to do outside of the classroom. As a method of assessment, therefore, it is not authentic: It does not test a student's ability to use reading to accomplish a purpose or goal.

However, reading aloud can help a teacher assess whether a student is "seeing" word endings and other grammatical features when reading. To use reading aloud for this purpose, adopt the "read and look up" approach: Ask the student to read a sentence silently one or more times, until comfortable with the content, then look up and tell you what it says. This procedure allows the student to process the text, and lets you see the results of that processing and know what elements, if any, the student is missing.

Comprehension Questions

Instructors often use comprehension questions to test whether students have understood what they have read. In order to test comprehension appropriately, these questions need to be coordinated with the purpose for reading. If the purpose is to find specific information, comprehension questions should focus on that information. If the purpose is to understand an opinion and the arguments that support it, comprehension questions should ask about those points.

In everyday reading situations, readers have a purpose for reading before they start. That is, they know what comprehension questions they are going to need to answer before they begin reading. To make reading assessment in the language classroom more like reading outside of the classroom, therefore, allow students to review the comprehension questions before they begin to read the test passage.

Finally, when the purpose for reading is enjoyment, comprehension questions are beside the point. As a more authentic form of assessment,

have students talk or write about why they found the text enjoyable and interesting (or not).

Authentic Assessment

In order to provide authentic assessment of students' reading proficiency, a post-listening activity must reflect the real-life uses to which students might put information they have gained through reading.

- It must have a purpose other than assessment
- It must require students to demonstrate their level of reading comprehension by completing some task

To develop authentic assessment activities, consider the type of response that reading a particular selection would elicit in a non-classroom situation. For example, after reading a weather report, one might decide what to wear the next day; after reading a set of instructions, one might repeat them to someone else; after reading a short story, one might discuss the story line with friends.

Use this response type as a base for selecting appropriate post-reading tasks. You can then develop a checklist or rubric that will allow you to evaluate each student's comprehension of specific parts of the text.

Summary

This chapter describes teaching reading. It explains reading purposes and reading comprehension, reading as a process, strategies for developing reading skills, developing reading activities, using textbook reading activities and assessing reading proficiency. The reading of authentic materials is limited to the works of great authors and reserved or upper level students who have developed the language skills needed to read them. Instruction in reading and reading practice thus become essential parts of language teaching at every level. Reading is an activity with a purpose. A person may also read for enjoyment, or to enhance knowledge of the language being read. The purpose(s) for reading guide the reader's selection of texts. The purpose for reading also determines the appropriate approach to reading comprehension. Reading research shows

that good readers. Read extensively have a flexible reading style, depending on what they are reading.Reading comprehension is thus much more than decoding. Reading comprehension results when the reader knows which skills and strategies are appropriate for the type of text, and understands how to apply them to accomplish the reading purpose.

Language instructors are often frustrated by the fact that students do not automatically transfer the strategies they use when reading in their native language to reading in a language they are learning. Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their reading behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. They help students develop a set of reading strategies and match appropriate strategies to each reading situation.

For students to develop communicative competence in reading, classroom and homework reading activities must resemble (or be) real-life reading tasks that involve meaningful communication. 2. The reading purpose must be authentic: Students must be reading for reasons that make sense and have relevance to them. To identify relevant reading purposes, ask students how they plan to use the language they are learning and what topics they are interested in reading and learning about. 3. The reading approach must be authentic: Students should read the text in a way that matches the reading purpose, the type of text, and the way people normally read. The majority of students' reading should be done silently.

There are two ways to use reading aloud productively in the language classroom. Read aloud to your students as they follow along silently. Following along as you read will help students move from word-by-word reading to reading in phrases and thought units, as they do in their first language. Reading over the comprehension questions to focus attention on finding that information while reading. Pre-reading activities are most important at lower levels of language proficiency and at earlier stages of reading instruction. As students become more proficient at using reading strategies, you will be able to reduce the amount of guided pre-reading and allow students to do these activities themselves.

Many language textbooks emphasize product (answers to comprehension questions) over process (using reading skills and strategies to understand the text), providing little or no contextual information about the reading selections or their authors, and few if any pre-reading activities. Use existing, or add your own, pre-reading activities and reading strategy practice as appropriate for your students.

Reading ability is very difficult to assess accurately. In the communicative competence model, a student's reading level is the level at which that student is able to use reading to accomplish communication goals. This means that assessment of reading ability needs to be correlated with purposes for reading. A student's performance when reading aloud is not a reliable indicator of that student's reading ability. Instructors often use comprehension questions to test whether students have understood what they have read. In everyday reading situations, readers have a purpose for reading before they start. To make reading assessment in the language classroom more like reading outside of the classroom, therefore, allow students to review the comprehension questions before they begin to read the test passage. It must require students to demonstrate their level of reading comprehension by completing some task.

Questions

1. What are the purposes of reading?
2. Why reading is important for a study?
3. What knowledge, skills, and strategies has to be known by readers?
4. Describe strategies for developing reading skills.
5. What are goals and techniques for teaching reading?
6. How to develop reading activities?

CHAPTER 11

TEACHING LISTENING

Short Description

This chapter describes teaching listening. It explains goals and techniques for teaching listening, strategies for developing listening skills, developing listening strategies, using textbook listening activities, and assessing listening proficiency.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply teaching listening that cover

- goals and techniques for teaching listening, strategies for developing listening skills,
- developing listening strategies,
- using textbook listening activities,
- assessing listening proficiency

Introduction

Listening is the language modality that is used most frequently. It has been estimated that adults spend almost half their communication time listening, and students may receive as much as 90% of their in-school information through listening to instructors and to one another. Often, however, language learners do not recognize the level of effort that goes into developing listening ability.

Far from passively receiving and recording aural input, listeners actively involve themselves in the interpretation of what they hear, bringing their own background knowledge and linguistic knowledge to

bear on the information contained in the aural text. Not all listening is the same; casual greetings, for example, require a different sort of listening capability than do academic lectures. Language learning requires intentional listening that employs strategies for identifying sounds and making meaning from them.

Listening involves a sender (a person, radio, television), a message, and a receiver (the listener). Listeners often must process messages as they come, even if they are still processing what they have just heard, without backtracking or looking ahead. In addition, listeners must cope with the sender's choice of vocabulary, structure, and rate of delivery. The complexity of the listening process is magnified in second language contexts, where the receiver also has incomplete control of the language.

Given the importance of listening in language learning and teaching, it is essential for language teachers to help their students become effective listeners. In the communicative approach to language teaching, this means modeling listening strategies and providing listening practice in authentic situations: those that learners are likely to encounter when they use the language outside the classroom.

Goals and Techniques for Teaching Listening

Instructors want to produce students who, even if they do not have complete control of the grammar or an extensive lexicon, can fend for themselves in communication situations. In the case of listening, this means producing students who can use listening strategies to maximize their comprehension of aural input, identify relevant and non-relevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension.

Focus: The Listening Process

To accomplish this goal, instructors focus on the process of listening rather than on its product.

- They develop students' awareness of the listening process and listening strategies by asking students to think and talk about how they listen in their native language.

- They allow students to practice the full repertoire of listening strategies by using authentic listening tasks.
- They behave as authentic listeners by responding to student communication as a listener rather than as a teacher.
- When working with listening tasks in class, they show students the strategies that will work best for the listening purpose and the type of text. They explain how and why students should use the strategies.
- They have students practice listening strategies in class and ask them to practice outside of class in their listening assignments. They encourage students to be conscious of what they're doing while they complete listening tape assignments.
- They encourage students to evaluate their comprehension and their strategy use immediately after completing an assignment. They build comprehension checks into in-class and out-of-class listening assignments, and periodically review how and when to use particular strategies.
- They encourage the development of listening skills and the use of listening strategies by using the target language to conduct classroom business: making announcements, assigning homework, describing the content and format of tests.
- They do not assume that students will transfer strategy use from one task to another. They explicitly mention how a particular strategy can be used in a different type of listening task or with another skill.

By raising students' awareness of listening as a skill that requires active engagement, and by explicitly teaching listening strategies, instructors help their students develop both the ability and the confidence to handle communication situations they may encounter beyond the classroom. In this way they give their students the foundation for communicative competence in the new language.

Integrating Metacognitive Strategies

Before listening: Plan for the listening task

- Set a purpose or decide in advance what to listen for
- Decide if more linguistic or background knowledge is needed
- Determine whether to enter the text from the top down (attend to the overall meaning) or from the bottom up (focus on the words and phrases)

During and after listening: Monitor comprehension

- Verify predictions and check for inaccurate guesses
- Decide what is and is not important to understand
- Listen/view again to check comprehension
- Ask for help

After listening: Evaluate comprehension and strategy use

- Evaluate comprehension in a particular task or area
- Evaluate overall progress in listening and in particular types of listening tasks
- Decide if the strategies used were appropriate for the purpose and for the task
- Modify strategies if necessary

Using Authentic Materials and Situations

Authentic materials and situations prepare students for the types of listening they will need to do when using the language outside the classroom.

One-Way Communication

Materials:

- Radio and television programs
- Public address announcements (airports, train/bus stations, stores)
- Speeches and lectures
- Telephone customer service recordings

Procedure:

- Help students identify the listening goal: to obtain specific information; to decide whether to continue listening; to understand most or all of the message
- Help students outline predictable sequences in which information may be presented: who-what-when-where (news stories); who-flight number-arriving/departing-gate number (airport announcements); "for [function], press [number]" (telephone recordings)
- Help students identify key words/phrases to listen for

Two-Way Communication

In authentic two-way communication, the listener focuses on the speaker's meaning rather than the speaker's language. The focus shifts to language only when meaning is not clear. Note the difference between the teacher as teacher and the teacher as authentic listener in the dialogues in the popup screens.

Strategies for Developing Listening Skills

Language learning depends on listening. Listening provides the aural input that serves as the basis for language acquisition and enables learners to interact in spoken communication. Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their listening behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and listening purposes. They help students develop a set of listening strategies and match appropriate strategies to each listening situation.

Listening Strategies

Listening strategies are techniques or activities that contribute directly to the comprehension and recall of listening input. Listening strategies can be classified by how the listener processes the input.

Top-down strategies are listener based; the listener taps into background knowledge of the topic, the situation or context, the type of text, and the language. This background knowledge activates a set of

expectations that help the listener to interpret what is heard and anticipate what will come next. Top-down strategies include

- listening for the main idea
- predicting
- drawing inferences
- summarizing

Bottom-up strategies are text based; the listener relies on the language in the message, that is, the combination of sounds, words, and grammar that creates meaning. Bottom-up strategies include

- listening for specific details
- recognizing cognates
- recognizing word-order patterns

Strategic listeners also use metacognitive strategies to plan, monitor, and evaluate their listening.

- They plan by deciding which listening strategies will serve best in a particular situation.
- They monitor their comprehension and the effectiveness of the selected strategies.
- They evaluate by determining whether they have achieved their listening comprehension goals and whether the combination of listening strategies selected was an effective one.

Listening for Meaning

To extract meaning from a listening text, students need to follow four basic steps:

- Figure out the purpose for listening. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate listening strategies.
- Attend to the parts of the listening input that are relevant to the identified purpose and ignore the rest. This selectivity enables students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the

amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory in order to recognize it.

- Select top-down and bottom-up strategies that are appropriate to the listening task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up strategies simultaneously to construct meaning.
- Check comprehension while listening and when the listening task is over. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, directing them to use alternate strategies.

Developing Listening Activities

As you design listening tasks, keep in mind that complete recall of all the information in an aural text is an unrealistic expectation to which even native speakers are not usually held. Listening exercises that are meant to train should be success-oriented and build up students' confidence in their listening ability.

Construct the listening activity around a contextualized task.

Contextualized listening activities approximate real-life tasks and give the listener an idea of the type of information to expect and what to do with it in advance of the actual listening. A beginning level task would be locating places on a map (one way) or exchanging name and address information (two way). At an intermediate level students could follow directions for assembling something (one way) or work in pairs to create a story to tell to the rest of the class (two way).

Define the activity's instructional goal and type of response

Each activity should have as its goal the improvement of one or more specific listening skills. A listening activity may have more than one goal or outcome, but be careful not to overburden the attention of beginning or intermediate listeners.

Recognizing the goal(s) of listening comprehension in each listening situation will help students select appropriate listening strategies.

- Identification: Recognizing or discriminating specific aspects of the message, such as sounds, categories of words, morphological distinctions
- Orientation: Determining the major facts about a message, such as topic, text type, setting
- Main idea comprehension: Identifying the higher-order ideas
- Detail comprehension: Identifying supporting details
- Replication: Reproducing the message orally or in writing

Check the level of difficulty of the listening text

The factors listed below can help you judge the relative ease or difficulty of a listening text for a particular purpose and a particular group of students.

How is the information organized? Does the story line, narrative, or instruction conform to familiar expectations? Texts in which the events are presented in natural chronological order, which have an informative title, and which present the information following an obvious organization (main ideas first, details and examples second) are easier to follow.

How familiar are the students with the topic? Remember that misapplication of background knowledge due to cultural differences can create major comprehension difficulties.

Does the text contain redundancy? At the lower levels of proficiency, listeners may find short, simple messages easier to process, but students with higher proficiency benefit from the natural redundancy of the language.

Does the text involve multiple individuals and objects? Are they clearly differentiated? It is easier to understand a text with a doctor and a patient than one with two doctors, and it is even easier if they are of the opposite sex. In other words, the more marked the differences, the easier the comprehension.

Does the text offer visual support to aid in the interpretation of what the listeners hear? Visual aids such as maps, diagrams, pictures, or the images in a video help contextualize the listening input and provide clues to meaning.

Use pre-listening activities to prepare students for what they are going to hear or view

The activities chosen during pre-listening may serve as preparation for listening in several ways. During pre-listening the teacher may

- assess students' background knowledge of the topic and linguistic content of the text
- provide students with the background knowledge necessary for their comprehension of the listening passage or activate the existing knowledge that the students possess
- clarify any cultural information which may be necessary to comprehend the passage
- make students aware of the type of text they will be listening to, the role they will play, and the purpose(s) for which they will be listening
- provide opportunities for group or collaborative work and for background reading or class discussion activities

Sample pre-listening activities:

- looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs
- reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures
- reading something relevant
- constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related)
- predicting the content of the listening text
- going over the directions or instructions for the activity
- doing guided practice

Match while-listening activities to the instructional goal, the listening purpose, and students' proficiency level

While-listening activities relate directly to the text, and students do them do during or immediately after the time they are listening. Keep these points in mind when planning while-listening activities:

If students are to complete a written task during or immediately after listening, allow them to read through it before listening. Students need to devote all their attention to the listening task. Be sure they understand the instructions for the written task before listening begins so that they are not distracted by the need to figure out what to do.

Keep writing to a minimum during listening. Remember that the primary goal is comprehension, not production. Having to write while listening may distract students from this primary goal. If a written response is to be given after listening, the task can be more demanding.

Organize activities so that they guide listeners through the text. Combine global activities such as getting the main idea, topic, and setting with selective listening activities that focus on details of content and form.

Use questions to focus students' attention on the elements of the text crucial to comprehension of the whole. Before the listening activity begins, have students review questions they will answer orally or in writing after listening. Listening for the answers will help students recognize the crucial parts of the message.

Use predicting to encourage students to monitor their comprehension as they listen. Do a predicting activity before listening, and remind students to review what they are hearing to see if it makes sense in the context of their prior knowledge and what they already know of the topic or events of the passage.

Give immediate feedback whenever possible. Encourage students to examine how or why their responses were incorrect.

Sample while-listening activities

- listening with visuals
- filling in graphs and charts
- following a route on a map

- checking off items in a list
- listening for the gist
- searching for specific clues to meaning
- completing cloze (fill-in) exercises
- distinguishing between formal and informal registers

Using Textbook Listening Activities

The greatest challenges with textbook tape programs are integrating the listening experiences into classroom instruction and keeping up student interest and motivation. These challenges arise from the fact that most textbook listening programs emphasize product (right or wrong answer) over process (how to get meaning from the selection) and from the fact that the listening activities are usually carried out as an add-on, away from the classroom.

You can use the guidelines for developing listening activities given here as starting points for evaluating and adapting textbook listening programs. At the beginning of the teaching term, orient students to the tape program by completing the exercises in class and discussing the different strategies they use to answer the questions. It is a good idea to periodically complete some of the lab exercises in class to maintain the link to the regular instructional program and to check on the effectiveness of the exercises themselves.

Integrating Listening Strategies With Textbook Audio and Video

Students can use this outline for both in-class and out-of-class listening/viewing activities. Model and practice the use of the outline at least once in class before you ask students to use it independently.

1. Plan for listening/viewing
   - Review the vocabulary list, if you have one
   - Review the worksheet, if you have one
   - Review any information you have about the content of the tape/video

2. Preview the tape/video
    - (tape) Use fast forward to play segments of the tape; (video) view the video without sound
    - Identify the kind of program (news, documentary, interview, drama)
    - Make a list of predictions about the content
    - Decide how to divide the tape/video into sections for intensive listening/viewing
3. Listen/view intensively section by section. For each section:
    - Jot down key words you understand
    - Answer the worksheet questions pertaining to the section
    - If you don't have a worksheet, write a short summary of the section
4. Monitor your comprehension
    - Does it fit with the predictions you made?
    - Does your summary for each section make sense in relation to the other sections?
5. Evaluate your listening comprehension progress

Assessing Listening Proficiency

You can use post-listening activities to check comprehension, evaluate listening skills and use of listening strategies, and extend the knowledge gained to other contexts. A post-listening activity may relate to a pre-listening activity, such as predicting; may expand on the topic or the language of the listening text; or may transfer what has been learned to reading, speaking, or writing activities.

In order to provide authentic assessment of students' listening proficiency, a post-listening activity must reflect the real-life uses to which students might put information they have gained through listening.

- It must have a purpose other than assessment
- It must require students to demonstrate their level of listening comprehension by completing some task.

To develop authentic assessment activities, consider the type of response that listening to a particular selection would elicit in a non-classroom situation. For example, after listening to a weather report one might decide what to wear the next day; after listening to a set of instructions, one might repeat them to someone else; after watching and listening to a play or video, one might discuss the story line with friends.

Use this response type as a base for selecting appropriate post-listening tasks. You can then develop a checklist or rubric that will allow you to evaluate each student's comprehension of specific parts of the aural text. (See Assessing Learning for more on checklists and rubrics.) For example, for listening practice you have students listen to a weather report. Their purpose for listening is to be able to advise a friend what to wear the next day. As a post-listening activity, you ask students to select appropriate items of clothing from a collection you have assembled, or write a note telling the friend what to wear, or provide oral advice to another student (who has not heard the weather report). To evaluate listening comprehension, you use a checklist containing specific features of the forecast, marking those that are reflected in the student's clothing recommendations.

Summary

This chapter describes teaching listening. It explains goals and techniques for teaching listening, strategies for developing listening skills, developing listening strategies, using textbook listening activities, and assessing listening proficiency. In the case of listening, this means producing students who can use listening strategies to maximize their comprehension of aural input, identify relevant and non-relevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension. When working with listening tasks in class, they show students the strategies that will work best for the listening purpose and the type of text.

Integrating metacognitive strategies has to be (1) before listening: Plan for the listening task, (2) during and after listening: Monitor comprehension, (3) listen/view again to check comprehension, (4) after

listening: Evaluate comprehension and strategy use, (5) evaluate overall progress in listening and in particular types of listening tasks, (6) help students identify the listening goal: to obtain specific information, (7) to decide whether to continue listening, and (8) to understand most or all of the message.

Language learning depends on listening. Effective language instructors show students how they can adjust their listening behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and listening purposes. They help students develop a set of listening strategies and match appropriate strategies to each listening situation. Listening strategies are techniques or activities that contribute directly to the comprehension and recall of listening input. Listening strategies can be classified by how the listener processes the input. The activities chosen during pre-listening may serve as preparation for listening in several ways. During pre-listening the teacher may provide students with the background knowledge necessary for their comprehension of the listening passage or activate the existing knowledge that the students possess

If students are to complete a written task during or immediately after listening, allow them to read through it before listening. Students need to devote all their attention to the listening task. Keep writing to a minimum during listening. Having to write while listening may distract students from this primary goal. Before the listening activity begins, have students review questions they will answer orally or in writing after listening. Listening for the answers will help students recognize the crucial parts of the message.

You can use post-listening activities to check comprehension, evaluate listening skills and use of listening strategies, and extend the knowledge gained to other contexts. A post-listening activity may relate to a pre-listening activity, such as predicting; may expand on the topic or the language of the listening text; or may transfer what has been learned to reading, speaking, or writing activities. In order to provide authentic assessment of students' listening proficiency, a post-listening activity must reflect the real-life uses to which students might put information they have

gained through listening. It must require students to demonstrate their level of listening comprehension by completing some task. For example, for listening practice you have students listen to a weather report.

Questions

1. What are goals for teaching listening?
2. What techniques are used for teaching listening?
3. What strategies do we use for developing listening skills?
4. Mention steps for developing listening strategies.
5. How to use textbook in listening activities?
6. How to assess listening proficiency?

CHAPTER 12

TEACHING WRITING

Short Description

This chapter describes teaching listening. It explains the benefits of creative writing in language classroom, how can creative writing work?, what comes first, reading or writing?, planning a writing lesson, product and process writing.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply teaching writing that cover

- the benefits of creative writing in language classroom,
- how can creative writing work?,
- what comes first, reading or writing?,
- planning a writing lesson, product and process writing.

Introduction

The benefits of creative writing in the language classroom are for language learners in general, and for students of literature. Creative writing works starting up, writing, presenting and feedback. There are no limits in creative writing as far as genre is concerned. Students can try short stories, dialogue in short dramatic scenes and poems. The main constraint is time and therefore space: most texts will have to be relatively short. What comes reading or writing. The answer of the this question depends on the activity. If we try an activity like making characters of a narrative of a play meet "outside the text", we clearly need to know the text, the characters and their circumstances well before we can write about such a meeting.

The same is true if students are asked to write a "what-would-have-happened-if" ending

What are the benefits of creative writing in the language classroom?

- **For language learners in general**

  There are three areas in which language learners at an intermediate level and above can benefit from creative writing.

  Students express themselves and their own ideas. Most teachers would agree that what we want to say, what comes from the heart, we are happier to work on. Creative writing can be very stimulating and a lot of fun.

  Creative writing involves playful but rigorous work with language. A lot of people seem to associate creative writing with an "anything goes" mentality. However, in order to produce a good text, poem, short story or dramatic scene, the language needs to be correct and it needs to work.

  Creative writing requires greater precision in expression. In order to say precisely what they mean, students have to be very careful in their use of vocabulary and idioms.

- **For students of literature**

  For students of literature there are additional benefits. Creative writing provides alternatives to traditional ways of discussing texts. Writing, say, a dialogue between two protagonists of a novel that is not in the text is not only fun but also requires a good understanding of their motivations and features. Creative writing can lead to a more profound appreciation of a text. Any student who has tried to write a sonnet, for example, can appreciate what is involved in a sonnet discussed in class. Discussing work in class improves debating skills and critical reading. In creative writing, an important feature is class feedback on texts students write.

How can creative writing work?

Starting up

Less confident students may feel under pressure to turn in a masterpiece, which may block them in their writing. To prevent this it pays to do the first activities either orally and/or in groups. Students can first explore an idea together, possibly without committing themselves on paper. If we want to explore a whole range of activities connected to a given field in class, for example, in characterisation, it pays to introduce the topic with a playful opening activity, ideally connected to the sort of language games students may play in their own language or in class, and to make use of the fact that most people find talking easier than writing. This opens ways into the field that are easy and non-threatening.

Writing

Much of this can happen outside the classroom with the exception of activities that require interaction, for example if two students write alternative lines of a poem in a 'ping-pong' writing activity (both partners write, say, a line of a poem, then exchange their sheets and write the next line of the poem, reacting to what the partner put there, then swop back, add another line to the one the partner wrote and continue until the text is finished). Students should also be encouraged to rewrite first drafts (which improves the language and the choice of vocabulary).

Presenting and feedback

A very important part of the creative writing process generally is presentation of texts for feedback to be incorporated in re-writes. For language training this opens up a range of possibilities, from suggestions for improvement of the text to group discussions.

What can we write?

There are no limits in creative writing as far as genre is concerned. Students can try short stories, dialogue in short dramatic scenes and

poems. The main constraint is time and therefore space: most texts will have to be relatively short.

For this reason it may be useful to focus on poetry as perhaps the most condensed of all the possible genres. It also has the double advantage that the brevity of poems allows us to write a first draft (or much of it) in class and to present a text in class with discussion.

The problem with poetry is that many teachers are uneasy about it because they see it as the most sublime form of writing. For students this is much less of a problem and their writing of poems can be become rather impressive once they realise that formal constraints, especially rhyme, are not indispensable for a good poem.

What comes first, reading or writing?

When we use creative writing for "creative" reading, one of the central issues is what comes first, reading or writing.

- **Reading first**
  Obviously this depends on the activity. If we try an activity like making characters of a narrative of a play meet "outside the text", we clearly need to know the text, the characters and their circumstances well before we can write about such a meeting. The same is true if students are asked to write a "what-would-have-happened-if" ending.
- **Writing first**
  On the other hand, if we want to get students to write a text similar to a literary one, either formally or in terms of ingredients (characters, scenes, conflicts, experiences, etc.) the case is less clear: should students write first and then compare their results with the literary text or should they study the text and then write their own? The second approach may not work very well here. The canonical text may dominate too much, and the student result may be just a weak copy or, worse, students may be blocked entirely. However, very interesting work may result if the students explore a theme,

conflict, or experience and then consider how an established writer has dealt with the same theme, conflict or experience.

So, Creative writing …

- is not the only way to breathe new life into a language class but provides interesting, lively opportunities for language practice.
- is not uncontrolled and uncontrollable verbal doodling but requires precision and accuracy in expression and vocabulary.
- is not writing about anything and everything but allows us to focus on specific ideas, forms or literary texts
- is not intimidatingly out of reach for most of us but creates opportunities for students to explore their language and their imagination
- is not a substitute or a replacement for oral communication but represents a lively, stimulating way to give new meaning to a somewhat lesser used language skill.

Planning a writing lesson

Writing, unlike speaking, is not an ability we acquire naturally, even in our first language - it has to be taught. Unless L2 learners are explicitly taught how to write in the new language, their writing skills are likely to get left behind as their speaking progresses. But teaching writing is not just about grammar, spelling, or the mechanics of the Roman alphabet. Learners also need to be aware of and use the conventions of the genre in the new language.

What is genre?

A genre can be anything from a menu to a wedding invitation, from a newspaper article to an estate agent's description of a house. Pieces of writing of the same genre share some features, in terms of layout, level of formality, and language. These features are more fixed in formal genre, for example letters of complaint and essays, than in more 'creative' writing, such as poems or descriptions. The more formal genre often feature in

exams, and may also be relevant to learners' present or future 'real-world' needs, such as university study or business. However, genre vary considerably between cultures, and even adult learners familiar with a range of genre in their L1 need to learn to use the conventions of those genre in English.

Stages of a writing lesson

I don't necessarily include all these stages in every writing lesson, and the emphasis given to each stage may differ according to the genre of the writing and / or the time available. Learners work in pairs or groups as much as possible, to share ideas and knowledge, and because this provides a good opportunity for practising the speaking, listening and reading skills.

Generating ideas

This is the often the first stage of a process approach to writing. Even when producing a piece of writing of a highly conventional genre, such as a letter of complaint, using learners' own ideas can make the writing more memorable and meaningful.

- Before writing a letter of complaint, learners think about a situation when they have complained about faulty goods or bad service (or have felt like complaining), and tell a partner.
- As the first stage of preparing to write an essay, I give learners the essay title and pieces of scrap paper. They have 3 minutes to work alone, writing one idea on each piece of paper, before comparing in groups. Each group can then present their 3 best ideas to the class. It doesn't matter if the ideas aren't used in the final piece of writing, the important thing is to break through the barrier of ' I can't think of anything to write.'

Focusing ideas

This is another stage taken from a process approach, and it involves thinking about which of the many ideas generated are the most important or relevant, and perhaps taking a particular point of view.

- As part of the essay-writing process, students in groups put the ideas generated in the previous stage onto a 'mind map'. The teacher then draws a mind-map on the board, using ideas from the different groups. At this stage he / she can also feed in some useful collocations - this gives the learners the tools to better express their own ideas.
- I tell my students to write individually for about 10 minutes, without stopping and without worrying about grammar or punctuation. If they don't know a particular word, they write it in their L1. This often helps learners to further develop some of the ideas used during the 'Generating ideas' stage. Learners then compare together what they have written, and use a dictionary, the teacher or each other to find in English any words or phrases they wrote in their L1.

Focus on a model text

Once the students have generated their own ideas, and thought about which are the most important or relevant, I try to give them the tools to express those ideas in the most appropriate way. The examination of model texts is often prominent in product or genre approaches to writing, and will help raise learners' awareness of the conventions of typical texts of different genres in English.

- I give learners in groups several examples of a genre, and they use a genre analysis form to identify the features and language they have in common. This raises their awareness of the features of the genre and gives them some language 'chunks' they can use in their own writing.
- Learners identify the function of different paragraphs in a piece of writing. For example, in a job application letter, the functions of the paragraphs might be something like;
  - reason for writing
  - how I found out about the job
  - relevant experience, skills and abilities
  - closing paragraph asking for an interview

- Learners are given an essay with the topic sentences taken out, and put them back in the right place. This raises their awareness of the organisation of the essay and the importance of topic sentences.

Organising ideas

Once learners have seen how the ideas are organised in typical examples of the genre, they can go about organising their own ideas in a similar way.

- Students in groups draft a plan of their work, including how many paragraphs and the main points of each paragraph. These can then be pinned up around the room for comment and comparison.
- When preparing to write an essay, students group some of ideas produced earlier into main and supporting statements.

Writing

In a pure process approach, the writer goes through several drafts before producing a final version. In practical terms, and as part of a general English course, this is not always possible. Nevertheless, it may be helpful to let students know beforehand if you are going to ask them to write a second draft. Those with access to a word processor can then use it, to facilitate the redrafting process. The writing itself can be done alone, at home or in class, or collaboratively in pairs or groups.

Peer evaluation

Peer evaluation of writing helps learners to become aware of an audience other then the teacher. If students are to write a second draft, I ask other learners to comment on what they liked / didn't like about the piece of work, or what they found unclear, so that these comments can be incorporated into the second draft. The teacher can also respond at this stage by commenting on the content and the organisation of ideas, without yet giving a grade or correcting details of grammar and spelling.

Re-viewing

When writing a final draft, students should be encouraged to check the details of grammar and spelling, which may have taken a back seat to ideas and organisation in the previous stages. Instead of correcting writing myself, I use codes to help students correct their own writing and learn from their mistakes.

Product and process writing: A comparison

There are several ways to approach writing in the classroom. It should be said at the beginning that there is not necessarily any 'right' or 'best' way to teach writing skills. The best practice in any situation will depend on the type of student, the text type being studied, the school system and many other factors. Thus, this article cannot prescribe a system for the teaching of writing that is optimal for all teaching situations. Rather, I hope to describe and contrast two popular, yet very different approaches, and examine how both can be used in the classroom.

A product approach

This is a traditional approach, in which students are encouraged to mimic a model text, which is usually presented and analysed at an early stage. A model for such an approach is outlined below:

Stage 1

Model texts are read, and then features of the genre are highlighted. For example, if studying a formal letter, students' attention may be drawn to the importance of paragraphing and the language used to make formal requests. If studying a story, the focus may be on the techniques used to make the story interesting, and students focus on where and how the writer employs these techniques.

Stage 2

This consists of controlled practice of the highlighted features, usually in isolation. So if students are studying a formal letter, they may be asked to practise the language used to make formal requests, practising the 'I would be grateful if you would…' structure.

Stage 3

Organisation of ideas. This stage is very important. Those who favour this approach believe that the organisation of ideas is more important than the ideas themselves and as important as the control of language.

Stage 4

The end result of the learning process. Students choose from a choice of comparable writing tasks. Individually, they use the skills, structures and vocabulary they have been taught to produce the product; to show what they can do as fluent and competent users of the language.

A process approach

Process approaches to writing tend to focus more on the varied classroom activities which promote the development of language use; brainstorming, group discussion, re-writing. Such an approach can have any number of stages, though a typical sequence of activities could proceed as follows;

Stage 1

Generating ideas by brainstorming and discussion. Students could be discussing qualities needed to do a certain job, or giving reasons as to why people take drugs or gamble. The teacher remains in the background during this phase, only providing language support if required, so as not to inhibit students in the production of ideas.

Stage 2

Students extend ideas into note form, and judge quality and usefulness of ideas.

Stage 3

Students organise ideas into a mind map, spidergram, or linear form. This stage helps to make the (hierarchical) relationship of ideas more immediately obvious, which helps students with the structure of their texts.

Stage 4

Students write the first draft. This is done in class and frequently in pairs or groups.

Stage 5

Drafts are exchanged, so that students become the readers of each others work. By responding as readers, students develop an awareness of the fact that a writer is producing something to be read by someone else, and thus can improve their own drafts.

Stage 6

Drafts are returned and improvements are made based upon peer feedback.

Stage 7

A final draft is written.

Stage 8

Students once again, exchange and read each others' work and perhaps even write a response or reply.

A summary of the differences

Process driven approaches show some similarities with task-based learning, in that students are given considerable freedom within the task. They are not curbed by pre-emptive teaching of lexical or grammatical items. However, process approaches do not repudiate all interest in the product, (i.e. the final draft). The aim is to achieve the best product possible. What differentiates a process-focussed approach from a product-centred one is that the outcome of the writing, the product, is not preconceived.

Process writing	Product writing
• text as a resource for comparison • ideas as starting point • more than one draft • more global, focus on purpose, theme, text type,	• imitate model text • organisation of ideas more important than ideas themselves • one draft • features highlighted

Process writing	Product writing
i.e., reader is emphasised • collaborative • emphasis on creative process	including controlled practise of those features • individual • emphasis on end product

Which approach to use

The approach that you decide to use will depend on you, the teacher, and on the students, and the genre of the text. Certain genres lend themselves more favourably to one approach more than the other. Formal letters, for example, or postcards, in which the features are very fixed, would be perhaps more suited to a product-driven approach, in which focus on the layout, style, organisation and grammar could greatly help students in dealing with this type of writing task.

Other genres, such as discursive essays and narrative, may lend themselves to process-driven approaches, which focus on students' ideas. Discursive activities are suited to brainstorming and discussing ideas in groups, and the collaborative writing and exchanging of texts help the students to direct their writing to their reader, therefore making a more successful text.

One or the other

The two approaches are not necessarily incompatible. I believe that process writing, i.e. re-drafting, collaboration, can be integrated with the practise of studying written models in the classroom.

What I take from the process approach is the collaborative work, the discussion which is so important in generating and organising ideas. Once students have written their first drafts, model texts can be introduced as texts for comparison. Lightbown found that learning appeared to be optimal in 'those situations in which the students knew what they wanted to say and the teacher's intervention made clear to them there was a particular way to say it.' Teacher intervention through model texts could thus aid the learning process.

I also like to incorporate the exchanging of drafts, so that the students become the readers of each others work. This is an important part of the writing experience as it is by responding as readers, both during the collaborative stage of writing in groups, as well as when reading another groups work, that students develop an awareness of the fact that a writer is producing something to be read by someone else.

As Lewis Carroll makes clear in Alice's adventures in Wonderland.

> "I haven't opened it yet," said the White Rabbit, "but it seems to be a letter, written by the prisoner to somebody."
> "It must have been that," said the King, "unless it was written to nobody, which isn't usual, you know."

Summary

By going through some or all of these stages, learners use their own ideas to produce a piece of writing that uses the conventions of a genre appropriately and in so doing, they are asked to think about the audience's expectations of a piece of writing of a particular genre, and the impact of their writing on the reader.

Process driven approaches show some similarities with task-based learning, in that students are given considerable freedom within the task. They are not curbed by pre-emptive teaching of lexical or grammatical items. However, process approaches do not repudiate all interest in the product, (i.e. the final draft). The aim is to achieve the best product possible. What differentiates a process-focussed approach from a product-centred one is that the outcome of the writing, the product, is not preconceived.

Questions

1. What are the benefits of creative writing in the language classroom?
2. How can creative writing work?
3. What can we write?
4. What comes first, reading or writing?
5. What are the benefits of genre for planning a writing lesson?

6. What are relationship between product and process writing?
7. What is process approach in writing?

CHAPTER 13

TEACHING SPEAKING

Short Description

This chapter describes teaching speaking. It explains goals and techniques for teaching speaking, strategies for developing speaking skills, developing speaking strategies, using textbook speaking activities, and assessing speaking proficiency.

Basic Competence

Students are able to explain and apply teaching listening that cover

- goals and techniques for teaching speaking, strategies for developing speaking skills,
- developing speaking strategies,
- using textbook speaking activities,
- assessing speaking proficiency

Introduction

Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication.

Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

- Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary): Using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation
- Functions (transaction and interaction): Knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/relationship building)
- Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants): Understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

In the communicative model of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares students for real-life communication situations. They help their students develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable (that is, comprehensible) pronunciation. Material for this section was drawn from "Spoken language: What it is and how to teach it" by Grace Stovall Burkart, in Modules for the professional preparation of teaching assistants in foreign languages (Grace Stovall Burkart, ed.; Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1998)

Goals and Techniques for Teaching Speaking

The goal of teaching speaking skills is communicative efficiency. Learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. They should try to avoid confusion in the message due to faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary, and to observe the social and cultural rules that apply in each communication situation.

To help students develop communicative efficiency in speaking, instructors can use a balanced activities approach that combines language input, structured output, and communicative output.

Language input comes in the form of teacher talk, listening activities, reading passages, and the language heard and read outside of class. It gives learners the material they need to begin producing language themselves.

Language input may be content oriented or form oriented.

- Content-oriented input focuses on information, whether it is a simple weather report or an extended lecture on an academic topic. Content-oriented input may also include descriptions of learning strategies and examples of their use.
- Form-oriented input focuses on ways of using the language: guidance from the teacher or another source on vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar (linguistic competence); appropriate things to say in specific contexts (discourse competence); expectations for rate of speech, pause length, turn-taking, and other social aspects of language use (sociolinguistic competence); and explicit instruction in phrases to use to ask for clarification and repair miscommunication (strategic competence).

In the presentation part of a lesson, an instructor combines content-oriented and form-oriented input. The amount of input that is actually provided in the target language depends on students' listening proficiency and also on the situation. For students at lower levels, or in situations where a quick explanation on a grammar topic is needed, an explanation in English may be more appropriate than one in the target language. Structured output focuses on correct form. In structured output, students may have options for responses, but all of the options require them to use the specific form or structure that the teacher has just introduced. Structured output is designed to make learners comfortable producing specific language items recently introduced, sometimes in combination with previously learned items. Instructors often use structured output exercises as a transition between the presentation stage and the practice stage of a lesson plan. textbook exercises also often make good structured output practice activities.

In communicative output, the learners' main purpose is to complete a task, such as obtaining information, developing a travel plan, or creating a video. To complete the task, they may use the language that the instructor has just presented, but they also may draw on any other vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies that they know. In communicative output activities, the criterion of success is whether the learner gets the message across. Accuracy is not a consideration unless the lack of it interferes with the message.

In everyday communication, spoken exchanges take place because there is some sort of information gap between the participants. Communicative output activities involve a similar real information gap. In order to complete the task, students must reduce or eliminate the information gap. In these activities, language is a tool, not an end in itself.

In a balanced activities approach, the teacher uses a variety of activities from these different categories of input and output. Learners at all proficiency levels, including beginners, benefit from this variety; it is more motivating, and it is also more likely to result in effective language learning.

Strategies for Developing Speaking Skills

Students often think that the ability to speak a language is the product of language learning, but speaking is also a crucial part of the language learning process. Effective instructors teach students speaking strategies -- using minimal responses, recognizing scripts, and using language to talk about language -- that they can use to help themselves expand their knowledge of the language and their confidence in using it. These instructors help students learn to speak so that the students can use speaking to learn.

Using minimal responses

Language learners who lack confidence in their ability to participate successfully in oral interaction often listen in silence while others do the talking. One way to encourage such learners to begin to participate is to

help them build up a stock of minimal responses that they can use in different types of exchanges. Such responses can be especially useful for beginners.

Minimal responses are predictable, often idiomatic phrases that conversation participants use to indicate understanding, agreement, doubt, and other responses to what another speaker is saying. Having a stock of such responses enables a learner to focus on what the other participant is saying, without having to simultaneously plan a response.

Recognizing scripts

Some communication situations are associated with a predictable set of spoken exchanges -- a script. Greetings, apologies, compliments, invitations, and other functions that are influenced by social and cultural norms often follow patterns or scripts. So do the transactional exchanges involved in activities such as obtaining information and making a purchase. In these scripts, the relationship between a speaker's turn and the one that follows it can often be anticipated.

Instructors can help students develop speaking ability by making them aware of the scripts for different situations so that they can predict what they will hear and what they will need to say in response. Through interactive activities, instructors can give students practice in managing and varying the language that different scripts contain.

Using language to talk about language

Language learners are often too embarrassed or shy to say anything when they do not understand another speaker or when they realize that a conversation partner has not understood them. Instructors can help students overcome this reticence by assuring them that misunderstanding and the need for clarification can occur in any type of interaction, whatever the participants' language skill levels. Instructors can also give students strategies and phrases to use for clarification and comprehension check.

By encouraging students to use clarification phrases in class when misunderstanding occurs, and by responding positively when they do, instructors can create an authentic practice environment within the classroom itself. As they develop control of various clarification strategies,

students will gain confidence in their ability to manage the various communication situations that they may encounter outside the classroom.

Developing Speaking Activities

Traditional classroom speaking practice often takes the form of drills in which one person asks a question and another gives an answer. The question and the answer are structured and predictable, and often there is only one correct, predetermined answer. The purpose of asking and answering the question is to demonstrate the ability to ask and answer the question.

In contrast, the purpose of real communication is to accomplish a task, such as conveying a telephone message, obtaining information, or expressing an opinion. In real communication, participants must manage uncertainty about what the other person will say. Authentic communication involves an information gap; each participant has information that the other does not have. In addition, to achieve their purpose, participants may have to clarify their meaning or ask for confirmation of their own understanding.

To create classroom speaking activities that will develop communicative competence, instructors need to incorporate a purpose and an information gap and allow for multiple forms of expression. However, quantity alone will not necessarily produce competent speakers. Instructors need to combine structured output activities, which allow for error correction and increased accuracy, with communicative output activities that give students opportunities to practice language use more freely.

Structured Output Activities

Two common kinds of structured output activities are information gap and jigsaw activities. In both these types of activities, students complete a task by obtaining missing information, a feature the activities have in common with real communication. However, information gap and jigsaw activities also set up practice on specific items of language. In this respect they are more like drills than like communication.

Information Gap Activities

- Filling the gaps in a schedule or timetable: Partner A holds an airline timetable with some of the arrival and departure times missing. Partner B has the same timetable but with different blank spaces. The two partners are not permitted to see each other's timetables and must fill in the blanks by asking each other appropriate questions. The features of language that are practiced would include questions beginning with "when" or "at what time." Answers would be limited mostly to time expressions like "at 8:15" or "at ten in the evening."
- Completing the picture: The two partners have similar pictures, each with different missing details, and they cooperate to find all the missing details. In another variation, no items are missing, but similar items differ in appearance. For example, in one picture, a man walking along the street may be wearing an overcoat, while in the other the man is wearing a jacket. The features of grammar and vocabulary that are practiced are determined by the content of the pictures and the items that are missing or different. Differences in the activities depicted lead to practice of different verbs. Differences in number, size, and shape lead to adjective practice. Differing locations would probably be described with prepositional phrases.

These activities may be set up so that the partners must practice more than just grammatical and lexical features. For example, the timetable activity gains a social dimension when one partner assumes the role of a student trying to make an appointment with a partner who takes the role of a professor. Each partner has pages from an appointment book in which certain dates and times are already filled in and other times are still available for an appointment. Of course, the open times don't match exactly, so there must be some polite negotiation to arrive at a mutually convenient time for a meeting or a conference.

Jigsaw Activities

Jigsaw activities are more elaborate information gap activities that can be done with several partners. In a jigsaw activity, each partner has one or a few pieces of the "puzzle," and the partners must cooperate to fit

all the pieces into a whole picture. The puzzle piece may take one of several forms. It may be one panel from a comic strip or one photo from a set that tells a story. It may be one sentence from a written narrative. It may be a tape recording of a conversation, in which case no two partners hear exactly the same conversation.

- In one fairly simple jigsaw activity, students work in groups of four. Each student in the group receives one panel from a comic strip. Partners may not show each other their panels. Together the four panels present this narrative: a man takes a container of ice cream from the freezer; he serves himself several scoops of ice cream; he sits in front of the TV eating his ice cream; he returns with the empty bowl to the kitchen and finds that he left the container of ice cream, now melting, on the kitchen counter. These pictures have a clear narrative line and the partners are not likely to disagree about the appropriate sequencing. You can make the task more demanding, however, by using pictures that lend themselves to alternative sequences, so that the partners have to negotiate among themselves to agree on a satisfactory sequence.
- More elaborate jigsaws may proceed in two stages. Students first work in input groups (groups A, B, C, and D) to receive information. Each group receives a different part of the total information for the task. Students then reorganize into groups of four with one student each from A, B, C, and D, and use the information they received to complete the task. Such an organization could be used, for example, when the input is given in the form of a tape recording. Groups A, B, C, and D each hear a different recording of a short news bulletin. The four recordings all contain the same general information, but each has one or more details that the others do not. In the second stage, students reconstruct the complete story by comparing the four versions.

With information gap and jigsaw activities, instructors need to be conscious of the language demands they place on their students. If an activity calls for language your students have not already practiced, you

can brainstorm with them when setting up the activity to preview the language they will need, eliciting what they already know and supplementing what they are able to produce themselves.

Structured output activities can form an effective bridge between instructor modeling and communicative output because they are partly authentic and partly artificial. Like authentic communication, they feature information gaps that must be bridged for successful completion of the task. However, where authentic communication allows speakers to use all of the language they know, structured output activities lead students to practice specific features of language and to practice only in brief sentences, not in extended discourse. Also, structured output situations are contrived and more like games than real communication, and the participants' social roles are irrelevant to the performance of the activity. This structure controls the number of variables that students must deal with when they are first exposed to new material. As they become comfortable, they can move on to true communicative output activities.

Communicative Output Activities

Communicative output activities allow students to practice using all of the language they know in situations that resemble real settings. In these activities, students must work together to develop a plan, resolve a problem, or complete a task. The most common types of communicative output activity are role plays and discussions .

In role plays, students are assigned roles and put into situations that they may eventually encounter outside the classroom. Because role plays imitate life, the range of language functions that may be used expands considerably. Also, the role relationships among the students as they play their parts call for them to practice and develop their sociolinguistic competence. They have to use language that is appropriate to the situation and to the characters.

Students usually find role playing enjoyable, but students who lack self-confidence or have lower proficiency levels may find them intimidating at first. To succeed with role plays:

- Prepare carefully: Introduce the activity by describing the situation and making sure that all of the students understand it
- Set a goal or outcome: Be sure the students understand what the product of the role play should be, whether a plan, a schedule, a group opinion, or some other product
- Use role cards: Give each student a card that describes the person or role to be played. For lower-level students, the cards can include words or expressions that that person might use.
- Brainstorm: Before you start the role play, have students brainstorm as a class to predict what vocabulary, grammar, and idiomatic expressions they might use.
- Keep groups small: Less-confident students will feel more able to participate if they do not have to compete with many voices.
- Give students time to prepare: Let them work individually to outline their ideas and the language they will need to express them.
- Be present as a resource, not a monitor: Stay in communicative mode to answer students' questions. Do not correct their pronunciation or grammar unless they specifically ask you about it.
- Allow students to work at their own levels: Each student has individual language skills, an individual approach to working in groups, and a specific role to play in the activity. Do not expect all students to contribute equally to the discussion, or to use every grammar point you have taught.
- Do topical follow-up: Have students report to the class on the outcome of their role plays.
- Do linguistic follow-up: After the role play is over, give feedback on grammar or pronunciation problems you have heard. This can wait until another class period when you plan to review pronunciation or grammar anyway.

Discussions, like role plays, succeed when the instructor prepares students first, and then gets out of the way. To succeed with discussions:

- Prepare the students: Give them input (both topical information and language forms) so that they will have something to say and the language with which to say it.
- Offer choices: Let students suggest the topic for discussion or choose from several options. Discussion does not always have to be about serious issues. Students are likely to be more motivated to participate if the topic is television programs, plans for a vacation, or news about mutual friends. Weighty topics like how to combat pollution are not as engaging and place heavy demands on students' linguistic competence.
- Set a goal or outcome: This can be a group product, such as a letter to the editor, or individual reports on the views of others in the group.
- Use small groups instead of whole-class discussion: Large groups can make participation difficult.
- Keep it short: Give students a defined period of time, not more than 8-10 minutes, for discussion. Allow them to stop sooner if they run out of things to say.
- Allow students to participate in their own way: Not every student will feel comfortable talking about every topic. Do not expect all of them to contribute equally to the conversation.
- Do topical follow-up: Have students report to the class on the results of their discussion.
- Do linguistic follow-up: After the discussion is over, give feedback on grammar or pronunciation problems you have heard. This can wait until another class period when you plan to review pronunciation or grammar anyway.

Through well-prepared communicative output activities such as role plays and discussions, you can encourage students to experiment and innovate with the language, and create a supportive atmosphere that allows them to make mistakes without fear of embarrassment. This will contribute to their self-confidence as speakers and to their motivation to learn more.

Summary

It explains goals and techniques for teaching speaking, strategies for developing speaking skills, developing speaking strategies, using textbook speaking activities, and assessing speaking proficiency. Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge: In the communicative model of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares students for real-life communication situations. To help students develop communicative efficiency in speaking, instructors can use a balanced activities approach that combines language input, structured output, and communicative output. Language input comes in the form of teacher talk, listening activities, reading passages, and the language heard and read outside of class. Language input may be content oriented or form oriented. Structured output focuses on correct form. Structured output is designed to make learners comfortable producing specific language items recently introduced, sometimes in combination with previously learned items. textbook exercises also often make good structured output practice activities. Communicative output activities involve a similar real information gap. In order to complete the task, students must reduce or eliminate the information gap.

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Questions

1. What are goals for teaching speaking?
2. What techniques are used for teaching speaking?
3. What strategies do we use for developing speaking skills?
4. Mention steps for developing speaking strategies.
5. How to use textbook in speaking activities?
6. How to assess speaking proficiency?

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