

**ALGIERS 2 UNIVERSITY – ABOU ELKACEM SAADALLAH**  
**FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES**  
**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH**



**INTRODUCTION TO DIDACTICS**

**FOR THIRD YEAR STUDENTS**

**By Dr. Samira ARAR**



**Academic Year: 2021-2022**

## INTRODUCTION

The course in ‘Introduction to Didactics’ aims at preparing Third Year Licence students to principles of EFL teaching and learning. It also strives to develop their critical thinking and problem-solving skills in what concerns issues related to EFL learning, teaching, and assessment. Therefore, this course includes different lessons with the purpose of enabling students attain an appropriate background knowledge in theoretical and practical terms. This course aims principally to prepare Third Year students for the teaching career since they will be guided to consider learner differences and needs, select appropriate approach, method, and techniques for teaching/learning language skills. In addition, it will prepare them for further studies at Master level.

Accordingly, Semester 1 lessons will introduce students to the meaning and basic principles of teaching, learning and assessment by first considering traditional and modern methods of foreign language teaching/learning, curriculum development and syllabus design, and classroom management and textbook use. Semester 2 lessons will provide a practical application of language teaching and learning principles in the instruction and assessment of receptive and productive skills, as well as grammar and vocabulary.

The lessons are enriched with reflection questions, tasks, and extra reading suggestions. At the end of the course, a sample of questions frequently asked by students is offered, followed by corresponding answers. This course is hoped to contribute in the development of Third Year students’ thinking and problem-solving strategies and to serve as a pre-service training for their teaching career.

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**University of Algiers 2 « AboukacemSaadallah »**  
**Faculty of Foreign Languages**  
**Department of English**



**Level: L 3**

**Option: Didactics of Foreign Languages**

**Course: INTRODUCTION TO DIDACTICS**

**Teacher in charge: Dr. Samira ARAR**

**Unit: Fundamental 3**

**Credit:2**

**Coefficient :1**

**Time:1h30h**

**Course Objectives:**

By the end of the course, students should be able to:

- understand notions and concepts related to teaching, learning, and assessment.
- understand the basic principles of teaching and assessing language skills.
- demonstrate effective use of analytical and critical thinking skills;
- use English correctly and appropriately to discuss matters related to teaching, learning, and assessment.

**Course Outline:**

**Semester 5**

<b>WEEK 1</b>	An introduction to teaching and learning (1)
<b>WEEK 2</b>	An introduction to teaching and learning (2)
<b>WEEK 3</b>	Traditional methods of teaching: Grammar-Translation Method, Direct Method, Audio-Lingual Method
<b>WEEK 4</b>	Modern methods of teaching: Communicative Language Teaching, Humanistic Approaches (1)
<b>WEEK 5</b>	Modern methods of teaching: Communicative Language Teaching, Humanistic Approaches (2)
<b>WEEK 6</b>	Modern methods of teaching: Competency-Based Language Teaching
<b>WEEK 7</b>	Curriculum development and syllabus design (1)
<b>WEEK 8</b>	Curriculum development and syllabus design (2)
<b>WEEK 9</b>	Lesson planning and textbook use (1)

<b>WEEK 10</b>	Lesson planning and textbook use (2)
<b>Semester 6</b>	
<b>WEEK 1</b>	Teaching receptive skills: Listening
<b>WEEK 2</b>	Teaching receptive skills: Reading
<b>WEEK 3</b>	Teaching productive skills: Speaking
<b>WEEK 4</b>	Teaching productive skills: Writing
<b>WEEK 5</b>	Teaching sub-skills: Grammar and Vocabulary
<b>WEEK 6</b>	Introducing Language Assessment Concepts
<b>WEEK 7</b>	Assessing Receptive Skills
<b>WEEK 8</b>	Assessing Receptive Skills
<b>WEEK 9</b>	Assessing Productive Skills
<b>WEEK 10</b>	Assessing Productive Skills

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## **SEMESTER 05**

### **LESSONS**

**LESSON 01:**

**AN INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING AND  
LEARNING (1)**

## **LESSON 01: AN INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING AND LEARNING (1)**

*Didactics* is defined the theory and practical application of teaching and learning. It refers to the art or science of teaching. Besides, *language education* includes the teaching, learning, and evaluation of a language. As a branch of applied linguistics, it is more commonly used with regard to the teaching/learning of a foreign or second language. It follows that in order to introduce the didactics of English as a foreign language (EFL), we have to understand the concepts of teaching, learning, and assessment.

### **1/TEACHING:**

#### **1.1. Teaching Defined**

Teaching means imparting knowledge or skill; it involves a teacher and a learner interacting over a subject in a setting. Teaching means to give someone knowledge, or to instruct, or train, as noted in the Cambridge International Dictionary of English. Teaching is also commonly referred to as “the process of attending to people’s needs, experiences and feelings, and making specific interventions to help them learn particular things”. In other words, teaching is the activity of facilitating learning.

Teaching is often defined as an art, a science and a profession. Some consider teaching as **a science** because they focus on the scientific aspects of teaching and on ways to systematize the communication between teachers and students. Others say that teaching is **an art** actual teaching involves intuition, improvisation, and expressiveness. Also, effective teaching requires creativity, good reasoning, and improvisation. Teaching can equally be considered as **a profession** since it involves professional judgment, scientific knowledge, and making well-informed professional decisions about teaching.

### 1.2. Teacher Roles in the Modern Language Classroom:

There is no fixed formula for good teaching. The teacher is often required to be helpful, patient, imaginative, energetic, mature but first of all competent in his/her subject-matter. The teacher should also be interesting in order to create a lively atmosphere, aware of what happens in class, confident in what he says, and respectful. According to Jeremy Harmer (2001), the role of a teacher may change from one activity to another. He suggests the following teachers roles:

1. Controller – being in complete control of the class. The teacher tells learners what to do, organizes drills, reads aloud, answers questions, restores order.
2. Organizer – it involves the careful organization of tasks and activities, giving clear guidelines to learners, putting them in pairs or groups, and closing things down when it is time to stop.
3. Assessor – offering feedback and correction and grading learners in different ways.
4. Prompter – encouraging students to think creatively rather than hang on the teacher's every word.
5. Resource – being helpful and available, offering guidance when needed, but avoiding spoon-feeding learners so that they do not become over-reliant on their teachers.
6. Tutor - on a one to one basis, giving individual attention, guidance and helping students to learn more efficiently (mainly when learners are working in small groups or in pairs).
- 7 Observer –observing learners when doing the activities so that to give them useful individual or group feedback.
8. Participant – Instead of ‘standing back’, the teacher takes part in learners’ discussions, role-play, or group decision-making activities as a participant in his own right.

The role of a teacher has been expanded recently to include eight teacher role specifications: *Motivator* , *Needs analyst*, *Curriculum developer*, *Materials developer*, *Counselor*, *Mentor*, *Team member*, *Researcher and Professional*.

***Reflection questions:***

- *What is the teacher's most important role according to you? Why?*
- *On the basis of your former learning experience, what are the characteristics of a good/bad teacher? In what way(s) has either category influenced your learning experience so far?*

## **LESSON 02:**

# **AN INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING AND LEARNING (2)**

## **LESSON 02: AN INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING AND LEARNING (2)**

### **2/ LEARNING**

#### **2.1. Learning Defined**

According to Brown (1990: 7), learning is acquiring knowledge, retaining information or skill in memory; it involves active thinking and practice and causing a change in behaviour. Similarly, learning is often defined as a process that brings together cognitive, emotional, and environmental influences and experiences for acquiring, enhancing, or making changes in one's knowledge, skills, values, and world views. It may involve synthesizing different types of information. According to Bingham and Conner (2010), learning is “the transformative process of taking in information that—when internalized and mixed with what we have experienced—changes what we know and builds on what we do. It’s based on input, process, and reflection. It is what changes us.”

#### **2.2. What do We Need to Know about Learners**

It is important to think about individual differences among learners and to work towards including activities that have variety and interest for all the learners in educational programs.

Learners often differ in many aspects: demographic, cognitive, affective, social..... These differences impact considerably their behavior and their learning strategies (Dornyei, 2005).

##### **2.2.1. Main variables**

**Age:** The age of learners is a determining factor in our decisions about how and what to teach. People of different ages have different needs, competences, and cognitive skills (Ayars, 2015). Young learners, for example, learn through the five senses and prefer concrete learning, while adult learners are capable of concrete and abstract thinking (Brown, 2000; Harmer, 2001).

**.Gender:** Male and female learners use language differently, but they are also reported to use foreign languages differently, and they use language learning strategies differently as well (Nasser, 2016).

**Language Aptitude:** Aptitude in language is usually defined as ‘speed in language

learning' (Ranta, 2008, p.14).Learners are generally described in three levels, beginners, elementary,(lower and upper) intermediate, and advanced. Each level is characterised by a number of proficiency skills, such as fluency or comprehension.

### **2.2.2. Learner needs:**

What is important is to believe in the fact that the 'bad learner' is just a myth, and that all learners are willing to learn and do not like to fail (Prodromou, 1992). Therefore, the teaching methodology has to be adjusted in line with their level and needs. According to Wilkins *et al*,learner needs consist of

- learning in an interesting, motivating and supportive environment where their self-image is enhanced;
- developing their communication strategies;
- raising awareness about their learning strategies and how to promote them;
- developing skills and strategies which go beyond their lexical and grammatical competence;
- changing roles from passive to active; and
- learning rules of social appropriacy and relationship and interdependence that exist between language and culture;

### **2.2.3. Learning Styles and Strategies:**

*Learning styles* refer more broadly to a learner's "natural, habitual, and preferred way(s)of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills" (Reid, 1995). Some learners are said to be 'extroverts', and so they are active and more willing to take risks with language. Others are 'introverts', silent in class, they listen well, think hard and learn much. Some learners are more tolerant at ambiguities, while others are more anxious. 'Analytic' learners prefer a deductive approach; they are given the rule and are left to deduce other examples. 'Holistic' learners prefer an inductive approach; they are given the examples and are left to induce the rule. The recognition of different characteristics has led to the necessity of exposing learners to a variety of approaches in order to broaden their learning styles.

*Learning strategies*are techniques that learners learn and remember more effectively. Oxford defines language learning strategiesas:"specific actions,

behaviours, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. Strategies are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability.” It is acknowledged that different learners usually make use of different strategies to succeed in their learning, and that good learners have more strategies than weaker ones. O’Malley and Chamot (1990: 42-45) identify three main types of strategies:

**a. Metacognitive:** they are skills used for planning, supervising and assessing the learning activity. Some of these strategies are directed for selective attention, self-monitoring and self-reinforcement. The Metacognitive Model of Learning consists of four metacognitive processes: Planning, Monitoring, Problem solving, Evaluating.

**b. Cognitive:** They involve manipulating information in ways that enhance learning. Learners may use any of these strategies: repetition, resourcing (using dictionaries or other materials), translation (use of the mother tongue), note-taking, deduction, transfer or inferencing.

**c. Social:** in which learners ask for help and interact with other people. Research in second and foreign language learning has claimed the importance of acknowledging learner styles and strategies, but equally important is the fact that these learning strategies are best promoted when learners work collaboratively.

#### **2.2.4. Collaborative Learning:**

Collaborative learning refers to learners working together, in pairs or in groups, in order to perform a task or a project. It has become a common feature of contemporary classrooms. Educationalists claim that this interaction reduces learners’ dependence on the teacher, and establishes communication between the teacher and learners and between learners themselves. Numerous benefits are attributed to group work: the promotion of learners’ learning strategies, the affective involvement leading to a better self-awareness, and the development of social attitudes such as cooperation and mutual

respect. The groups can be organised on the basis of similar ability group where the teacher can then spend more time with weaker learners, or on the basis of mixed-ability where stronger learners help weaker ones. Besides, the project has been devised as a collaborative learning procedure; it is likely to enhance their sense of achievement, as well as increase their sense of responsibility, self-esteem, and autonomy in learning.

### **2.2.5. Learner Autonomy**

Within the context of learner-centred teaching/learning, the concept of learner autonomy has gained much importance, giving learners a central role in the learning process. Autonomous learners are expected to take in charge their own learning and become aware of their own strengths and weaknesses. Learner autonomy can be fostered in class through appropriately designed classroom tasks and materials: collaborative learning and problem-solving tasks. Learners have also to be encouraged to keep learning diaries/journals to reflect on their learning experiences, successes and failures and thus arrive at a greater understanding of language learning. Out of class, learners should be assigned homework that would cater for their individual needs and interests, and that would encourage their interaction. Therefore, learner autonomy does not mean the suppression of the role of the teacher. It is an ideal that can be achieved only with the goodwill and shared responsibility of learners and teachers.

### **2.3. Teacher-centred vs. Learner-centred education:**

The teacher-centered approach is commonly linked to the transmission of knowledge (Brown, 2003). Teachers in a teacher-centered environment take control over learning, they focus more on content than on student processing, without trying to know learners and their learning processes. The new concept of learner-centredness has evolved as a reaction to the traditional teacher-centred approach to education which has long been authoritative and based on the notion of 'giving' a predetermined body of knowledge to the (passive) learner.

The shift has been motivated by the necessity to take into account learners' needs and preferences, and allowing learners to play a more active and participatory role in the teaching/learning processes. Learner-centred learning is an active and dynamic

process which helps the learner to have access to the resources that help him as individual learner, develop skills and self-awareness of his own learning processes, develop increasing independence in his learning and reach his highest potential in the subject studied. Thus, learner-centred learning gives learners greater autonomy and control over choice of subject matter, learning methods and pace of study (Gibbs, 1992). The learner-centred education takes into consideration learner's experiences, perspectives, background, talents, interests, capabilities and needs. This requires a mutual agreement between the learner and the teacher about the goals, content and methodology adopted for learning. Learner-centredness is built on the premise learners should be more involved in processing information, solving problems and making their own decisions. Therefore, the teacher passes from a mere knowledge provider to a facilitator and manager of learning.

*The following table summarises the differences between Teacher-centred and Learner-centred education:*

<b>Teacher-Centered education</b>	<b>Learner-Centered education</b>
Traditional	Contemporary
Focus is on instructor	Focus is on both students and instructor
Focus on the teacher's authority	Focus is on learners' self-awareness and autonomy
Focus is on language forms and structures (what the instructor knows about the language)	Focus is on language use in typical situations (how students will use the language)
Knowledge transmission	Knowledge acquisition
Instructor talks; students listen	Instructor models; students interact with instructor and one another
Students work alone	Students work in pairs, in groups, or alone depending on the purpose of the activity
Instructor monitors and corrects every student utterance	Students talk without constant instructor monitoring; instructor provides feedback/correction when questions arise
Instructor answers students' questions about language	Students answer each other's questions, using instructor as an information resource

Instructorchoosetopics	Students have some choice of topics
Instructorevaluatesstudentlearning	Students evaluate their own learning; instructor also evaluates
Classroomis quiet	Classroom is often noisy and busy

### **3/ ASSESSMENT**

Instruction and evaluation are inseparable, mainly in formal settings where assessment is a compulsory pedagogical and administrative component. Assessment is defined as the process of defining, collecting, and interpreting information to increase students' learning and development. The purpose of classroom assessment is to provide information about learners' progress and achievement so as both teachers and learners know the extent to which they have attained their teaching/learning goals.

Evaluation, assessment, and testing are used interchangeably though they refer to different concepts. Testing is a subset of assessment; it is one way to assess learning. It measures learners' knowledge or skills at one point in time. Assessment has a wider scope and involves gathering over a period of time information and making judgments on learners' knowledge and their ability to use it. Assessment can be formative (ongoing) or summative (end of term/ year). Evaluation is a broader concept than testing and assessment. It involves collecting information, including data from testing and assessment, and interpreting that information in order to take appropriate decisions about the effectiveness of a particular course/programme.

***Task: Write a Paragraph in which you summarise the definitions of teaching, learning, and assessment.***

#### **Suggested readings**

Harmer, J (2001). *The practice of English Language Teaching*. England. Pearson Education limited. (Chapters 3&4)

Hedge, T (2000). *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. (Chapter 1)

## **LESSON 03:**

### **TRADITIONAL METHODS (GTM, DM, ALM)**

### **LESSON 03: TRADITIONAL METHODS (GTM, DM, ALM)**

Throughout the twentieth century, teachers and applied linguists were preoccupied with the search for the best method of language teaching. In fact, innovations in foreign language teaching reflect shifts in perceptions of what language is and how it should be taught. The development of teaching methods began in the nineteenth century and accelerated in the twentieth. They resulted in a variety of different and sometimes contradictory methods, each claiming to be a significant improvement over previous methods and a solution to the problem of high failure rates among foreign language students.

#### **1/ The Grammar –Translation Method (GTM)**

GTM, also called the ‘Traditional Method’ or the ‘Classical Method’, dominated European and foreign language teaching from the 1840’s to the 1940’s and is still being used in some parts of the world with a sort of alteration and adaptation. According to Rivers (1970) “This method cannot be traced back to the tenants of any particular master teacher, but it is clearly rooted in the formal teaching of Latin and Greek which prevailed in Europe for many centuries.” (p. 14). In the 18<sup>th</sup> century, the so-called ‘modern languages’ (i.e. French, English and Italian) started to be taught in European schools with exactly the same techniques which were used in teaching Latin.

Larsen-Freeman (2011) summarised **the principles of GTM** as follows: **1.** The fundamental purpose of foreign language learning is the ability to read its literature. **2.** Translation is paramount. **3.** Grammar and vocabulary are focused. **4.** Reading and writing are primary skills. **5.** Emphasis is on accuracy rather than fluency. **6.** Grammar is taught deductively through the presentation, study, and memorisation of explicit rules. **7.** Students’ native language is the medium of instruction. **8.** The teacher is the ultimate authority in the classroom. **9.** Errors are forbidden.

**Some GMT teaching techniques** are as follows: *translation of a literary passage, reading comprehension questions, antonyms (opposites) or synonyms, deductive*

*application of the rules, fill-in-the blanks (gap-fill activities), memorisation, use words in sentences, and composition (writing)*

### **Strengths and weaknesses of GTM**

GTM was praised for a number of advantages and criticised for another good number of weaknesses. These are exposed as follows: GTM was the platform on which the major teaching innovations of the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> century were based. It views foreign language learning not as an end in itself but as a medium through which students could learn some aspects about the target language literature and fine arts. Great focus is mainly on developing reading and writing skills at the expense of listening and speaking which are neglected. In addition, GTM can be used with large classes when students have to listen, copy rules, write and correct exercises. These activities can easily be done with the whole class all together. It is noteworthy that the medium of instruction in GTM is the L1; as a result, students have to understand what is said or written in the target language, and no to communicate using it.

However, translating some words from one language into another is not always as easy as it seems to be. This is the case of some idioms and social or political concepts which have no parallel equivalents in the learners' L1 or vice-versa. Besides, little attention is given to accurate pronunciation, stress and intonation and their impact on communication. Moreover, students are taught rules and exceptions but not how and under which circumstances to use them. This leads students, who are trained in artificial forms only, to produce rare, old-fashioned or unconventional patterns for the sake of applying the taught rules. What is more, too much consideration is given to the teaching rather than the learning process; the teacher is viewed as the 'knowledge provider', 'the one who knows everything about the target language'. Also, GTM turns out to be not too demanding from the part of the teacher in terms of lesson planning as s/he is supposed to follow a given textbook. Thus, the role of the learner is a very passive one. It consists of absorbing all what he is provided with. Later, s/he is supposed to reconstitute all that to satisfy his teacher. At the end of their learning stage, the students might not be able to express one single meaning in the target language appropriately and spontaneously.

## **2/ The Direct Method (DM)**

The rise of the Industrial Revolution and the openness and ease of commercial exchanges in the mid–19<sup>th</sup> century Europe thanks to transportation facilities accelerated and increased the need for communication in European languages, and oral proficiency in particular. The direct method, also called *natural method*, does not tolerate the use of the mother tongue and resort to only the target language. The purpose behind the ‘Direct Method’ is to make second language learning more like first language learning (L1 acquisition).

### **The DM principles consist in the following:**

1) The purpose of foreign language learning is communication. 2) No translation allowed. 3) Language is primarily speech. 4) Vocabulary is emphasised over grammar. 5) Inductive teaching of grammar. 6) The target language is the medium of instruction and answer. 7) The teacher is the leading authority in the classroom. Though, students can participate from time to time under teacher’s control to ask or to answer questions. 8) Self-correction is encouraged by teachers as it is thought to facilitate language learning. The teacher, thus, uses different techniques to draw students’ attention to their errors as much as possible.

Classroom interaction is three ways: from teacher to student(s), student to teacher, or student to student (in conversation phases). This method focuses more on correct pronunciation and on the target language from the beginning of instruction. It advocates teaching oral skills while writing and spelling are delayed. The method relies on progressive question-and-answer sessions which begin with naming common objects such as doors, pencils, floors, etc.

Among the major Direct Method teaching techniques are *reading out loud; question–answer session; students’ self–correction; conversation practice; fill–in–the blanks; dictation; map drawing; paragraph writing (following a given model or as an account of a conversation)*.

DM principles have been enthusiastically supported in many parts of the world in its modified version. Its techniques are still being used in language classes, for instance, question-answer exercises, dictation and self-correction techniques. It is accepted that DM

principles are not easy to follow to the letter in the artificial environment of the school language classroom.

### **Strengths and weaknesses of DM**

The DM presents a number of strengths and weaknesses. The Direct Method completely rejects translation either by the teacher or by the learners. Also, the DM succeeded largely in freeing students from the inhibitions often associated with speaking a foreign language, but it plunged learners into expressing themselves too soon in the foreign language in a relatively unstructured situation; as a result, learners tended to develop an inaccurate fluency. Additionally, the method is based on an inductive approach to learning which is more successful with highly talented learners. Thus, those learners with lower induction aptitudes will be soon discouraged and will eventually give up foreign language learning. Finally, unlike the GTM, the Direct Method is too demanding from the teacher, in terms of fluency in the target language and in the ability to explain vocabulary items using a variety of techniques without resorting to translation at any time.

### **3/ The Audio – Lingual Method**

Initially, this method was known as the oral method, the aural-oral method or the structural approach. In fact, the actual rise of ALM as an outstanding FLT and ELT method in the US is partly attributed to military reasons. The audio-lingual method was developed around World War II when governments realized that they needed more people who could speak different languages fluently to work as interpreters and translators, so new methods and materials had to be devised.

Like the Direct Method, ALM is based on an oral approach to foreign language learning, but unlike DM, ALM has a strong theoretical basis in linguistics and psychology. It has actually inspired its principles from the Behaviourist–Structuralist models of learning. Using the stimulus-response reinforcement model, it attempted through a continuous process of such positive reinforcement, to engender good habits of learners. Most importantly, ALM is said to result in rapid acquisition of speaking and listening skills.

In 1961, William Moulton, an American linguistic, scientist and foreign language teacher, proclaimed **the five slogans of the language teaching**

**methodology** of the day:

1. Language is speech, not writing: priority of listening and speaking over reading and writing.
2. A language is a set of habits: behaviours occur as a process of habit formation which includes three main elements: Stimulus, response, and reinforcement. **Stimulus:** This elicits the behaviour. It is the cause which incites the human organism to react.  
**Response:** This happens as a reaction to the stimulus.  
**Reinforcement:** This is the reward or the feedback serving as an assessment for the response. This reinforcement can be positive, and hence encourage the behaviour to occur again and become a good habit, or it can be negative, and thus leads to the suppression of this behaviour so as not to form a bad habit in the future.
3. Teach the language, not about the language: No explicit grammar rules are provided but grammar is induced from the examples given. Specific grammatical patterns are chosen from these dialogues, and then practised through repetition and drilling exercises.
4. A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say: Audio-Lingual materials consist of providing the learners with common everyday language likely to be used with target language speakers.
5. Languages are different; each language has a unique and separate linguistic system. Teachers are thus called to be aware of that by doing their best to avoid native language interference in the students' target language learning.

In fact, some **Audio-Lingual Method Techniques and Activities** are as follows: *dialogue memorisation; repetition drills; chain drill; inflection; substitution (replacement) drills; expansion; restatement; transformation drill...*

The teacher organises activities by choosing the appropriate situations to practise the target language. He controls and guides students' learning and directs their actions and behaviours in the target language. He equally provides them with continuous feedback of their language performance. The teacher's role is, therefore, central and active which renders the method teacher-centred. On the part of

learners, they must respond to the stimuli presented by the teacher. They are not encouraged to initiate interaction because this may lead to mistakes, and so they have a receptive and a reactive role. Most classroom interaction is between the teacher and students, where the teacher is dominant. Yet, there is also a student-student interaction in rehearsing different roles in dialogues.

### **Strengths and weaknesses of ALM**

ALM is beneficial for learners looking for a quick acquisition of foreign language listening and speaking proficiency. It is still criticized for its basis in behaviourism. Many scholars attribute its success to the massive exposure of learners to the target language which may limit their creativity later. It is significant to precise that the spread of Audio-Lingualism as a popular FLT method reached its peak in the late fifties to the early sixties. It was not only applied to teaching foreign languages in the United States but also to teaching English as a second/foreign language to foreign students. In fact, ALM aims to develop students' proficiency in the four skills, with priority to the listening and speaking skills, without neglecting the other two (reading and writing) which are left to more advanced stages. Those techniques of mimicry-memorisation do offer the students the opportunity to practise, and hence manipulate some language structures unconsciously. Motivation is high among students, and slower learners develop the feeling of self-confidence, which was not available with previous methods; especially younger children who "love to mimic and act out roles and to learn through activity rather than through explanations and the learning of facts".

However, many methodologists argued against the mechanical aspect of learning that is reinforced by drilling, overlearning and repetition exercises which cause learners' boredom and which do not take the cognitive abilities of the learners into account. The ALM is teacher - centred. Its great emphasis on oral proficiency requires a near-native articulation and intonation from the teacher as s/he is supposed to be a model of the target language. The ALM is, then, too demanding from the teacher in terms of preparation and organisation of the teaching material, especially when s/he teaches many classes successively. In addition, banishing mistakes is counter the belief that learning from errors is a key part of the process of acquisition. Besides, the same degree of success of

this 'Army Method' could not be achieved in regular, ordinary (non-military) classes later. The mentalists equally rejected the Behaviourist views of language as a kind of behaviour and the description of language as restricted to external stimuli rather than the innate ability of human beings to learn a language, and the creative aspect of the human language itself.

**Reflection questions**

- 1) *One of the main criticisms against the Direct Method is that it failed to consider classroom realities. Explain in sentence form*
- 2) *The degree of success of the Audio Lingual Method could not be achieved in regular, ordinary (non-military) classes. Explain why (in sentence form)*

**Suggested extra reading** EFL/TESL: Teaching English as a foreign or second language : <http://www.nzdl.org/cgi-bin/library.cgi?e=d-00000-00---off-0hdl--00-0--0-10-0--0---0direct-10---4-----0-0l--11-en-50---20-about---00-0-1-00-0-0-11-1-0utfZz-8-00&cl=CL1.17&d=HASHf4c763bbedf2771100d30b.4.1&gt=1>

**LESSON 04:**

**MODERN METHODS OF TEACHING: COMMUNICATIVE  
LANGUAGE TEACHING, HUMANISTIC APPROACHES**

## **LESSON 04: MODERN METHODS OF TEACHING: COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING, HUMANISTIC APPROACHES**

### **1) Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)**

In the late 1970's, and as a reaction to GTM and ALM, methodologists started to look for the appropriate way to meet the goal of foreign language teaching: 'Communicative ability' or 'communicative competence' in the target language, as opposed to 'linguistic competence'. According to Dell Hymes (1998), "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless." In the 1980s, there was a shift to Communicative Approach (CA) or 'Communicative Language Teaching' (CLT), the name given to the FLT approach that considers that "plentiful exposure to language in use and plenty of opportunities to use it are vitally important for a student's development of knowledge and skill." (Harmer 2001, pp. 84-85)

#### **1.1. Principles and teaching techniques of CLT**

Considerable importance is given to meaning and to the functions of language, and authentic everyday language. Nunan (1991, p.279) summarises the features of CLT in five points: **1.** An emphasis on learning to communicate through *interaction* in the target language (by being aware of the levels of formality in language and through the purposeful use of language functions such as apologizing, persuading, negotiating, and conveying information). **2.** The introduction of *authentic* texts into the learning situation. **3.** The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the *learning process* itself. **4.** An enhancement of the *learner's own personal experiences* as important contributing elements to classroom learning. **5.** An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom.

Practically speaking, lessons are more student-centred, but this does not mean they are unstructured. Fluency rather than accuracy is sought as well as teaching the four skills, in addition to promoting strategies of thinking, information exchange, analysing and

conversing, through authentic materials, language games, role play, picture strip story, scrambled sentences. Learners are equipped with vocabulary, structures and functions, as well as strategies, to enable them to interact successfully. They are supposed to be 'negotiators' and 'communicators' as they will be actively engaged in interaction activities, such as role plays, simulations, debates and discussions (emphasising functional and social meanings of the language use). In other words, emphasis is on learners' needs and interests. Also, classroom interaction is largely of a student-student kind, arranged by the teacher into different forms: pairs, triads, small groups or whole group. As a result, learners are motivated and engaged in a supportive and confidence building classroom. The teacher has the role of 'facilitator', feedback provider, a participant, a needs analyst, and counsellor. In terms of evaluation and feedback, the teacher corrects students during the accuracy-based phase; however, he may decide to correct a particular error immediately in order to prevent it from occurring again. Overall, one can note the shift of responsibility and initiative from the teacher to the learner.

## **1.2. Strengths and weaknesses of CLT**

CLT has gained worldwide acceptance and is believed to play an important role in education, mainly because of the technological expansion. Nevertheless, there was difficulty to apply for lower levels, due to a limited vocabulary and restricted range of functions. Besides, there was insufficient attention to the context in which teaching and learning take place. Most importantly, there was a clash of theory and practice: learners learn grammatical forms and phrases useful recurring communicative situations without, however, learning to construct creatively new grammatical forms that might serve their speech intentions better.

## **2) Humanistic Approaches**

In the 1970s, humanistic approaches to learning a language came to light, with the purpose of lowering the students' affective filter, and remove any psychological barrier to learning. They focused on the innate ability and capacity that all learners are presumed to possess. As the classroom strategies are *learner-*

*centred*, learners' personal feelings, knowledge, experiences, self-esteem, and confidence are valued. Teaching techniques are designed to help learners to be themselves and share their ideas and feelings with others in a cooperative and supportive classroom environment. Consequently, learners' anxiety is lowered and their fear of making errors is a strong and lasting basis for developing linguistic knowledge.

### **2.1. The Silent Way**

It is a language teaching method developed by Gattegno in the early 1970's. The three main principles of the approach are that learning is facilitated through discovery, the use of concrete objects, problem-solving. In this method, the teacher is supposed to be practically silent – hence the name of the method – and avoids explaining everything to the students. S/he guides the whole process but by saying as little as possible. Learners have to learn how to test for themselves their hypotheses about how the target language works and need to have control over the learning process. This method is based on a problem-solving approach to learning which aims at encouraging the learners of the language to be increasingly self-reliant and independent of the teacher. It makes use of mime, gestures, and all kinds of visual aids, to help learners use language gradually from simple to complex sentences. It was found efficient in reducing 'teacher talking time'; however, it was criticized for the minimalist role of the teacher, the lack of real communication, and the difficulty to apply for advanced levels of language learning.

### **2.2. Suggestopedia**

Though with no theory of language and no specific order of presenting language items, suggestopedia is a method (advocated by Lazanov in 1970s) which calls for creating a relaxed state of learning in the learner and to promote positive suggestions. The lesson goes through three steps: an oral review section to discuss previously learnt material, followed by the presentation and discussion of new native-language dialogue material, finally, followed by the concrete session in which relaxation exercises are used, including visual images, music, dialogues, a comfortable and supportive environment, and a relationship between the teacher and the student that is similar to the parent-child

relationship. However, no attention is paid to the learners' grammatical errors, to help learners feel that language learning is a positive and natural process. Besides, teachers need to be skilled in singing, acting, and psychotherapeutic techniques. Above all, there is little evidence of its success and criticism because of the kind of music, the lengthy dialogues, and the lack of a coherent theory of language, and because of purely logistic reasons.

### **2.3. Community Language Learning**

CLL (advocated by Curran in 1970s) stresses the development of the kind of 'whole person' relationship found in counseling therapy making use of group learning, the groups acting as the 'community'. It is based on avoiding all that might be found threatening in the language learning situation. The teacher does not normally prepare material in advance; the learners determine what is to be learned, so that the role of the teacher is that of a facilitator and support. Learners (8 to 12 maximum seated in a circle) can use their L1 to express personal feelings and attitudes and the teacher (the *knower*) will help them to find equivalent expressions in the target language. Learners will then repeat these expressions to other members of the group. The utterances are also recorded and repeated by other learners, and then followed by analysis and questions from students. Gradually, learners spin a web of language. The value of CLL has been its emphasis on whole-person learning, the role of a supportive, non-judgmental teacher, the passing of learning responsibility to the learners, and the abolition of a pre-planned syllabus. It can only be done with small numbers of learners, sharing a single mother tongue. The teacher (as the *Knower*) has to be proficient both in the target language and in the learners' language. The teacher is also required to have physical and psychic energy as this approach is too demanding. It has also been pointed out that this methodology is exclusively suitable for adult learners, not for children.

**Reflection question: What are the main aspects of language teaching/learning to be retained from CLT and Humanistic methods?**

**LESSON 05:**

**MODERN METHODS OF TEACHING  
COMPETENCY BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**LESSON 05:            MODERN METHODS OF TEACHING**  
**COMPETENCY BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING**

The discontent with the previous approaches and methods to language teaching led educationalists to adopt other approaches to ensure a more practical and authentic language teaching methodology. Therefore, the Competency Based Approach gained fame in the 1970s in the USA as it was adopted in vocational training programmes. The application of CBA principles in the school setting has given rise to the Competency Based Language Teaching (CBLT). It spread in other parts of the world by the 1990s. In fact, CBLT is one of the current methodologies that can be described as an extension of Communicative Language Teaching Movement. Richards and Schmidt (2002) define Competency Based Approach as, “*An approach to teaching that focuses on teaching the skills and behaviour needed to perform COMPETENCES. Competences refer to the student’s ability to apply different kinds of basic skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life.*” p 94 Chapter III

**1. CBLT: Main Principles**

CBLT is a modern approach introduced in TEFL, though it does not represent a complete change from the Communicative Approach. It advocates the shift from memory-based to problem-solving learning, taking into consideration learners’ communicative needs and learning strategies. Richards and Rodgers (2001) clarify that CBA “advocates defining educational goals in terms of precise measurable descriptions of the knowledge, skills, and behaviors students should possess at the end of a course of study” (p. 141).

According to the *At the Crossroads* (Teacher’s Book, 2005, pp. 17-18), CBA is characterised by the following: It is *action-oriented* in that it guides language learning to the acquisition of know-how allowing the learner to become an effective language user in real-life situations outside the classroom. It is a *problem-solving* approach in that it engages learners in situations where they have to overcome obstacles and solve problems through language use. It is *social-constructivist* in that it regards learning as occurring through social interaction with other people, and not only within the pages of the copybook or the walls of the classroom.

Among the main principles of CBA identified by Auerbach (1986, cited in Richards 2001) are the following:

- 1- *A focus on successful functioning in society*: to enable students become autonomous individuals who are capable to cope with world requirements.
- 2- *A focus on life skills*: Language is not taught in isolation, but rather as a function of communication, as required by specific situations.
- 3- *Task or performance-centred orientation*: emphasis is on what students can do as a result of instruction rather than on the acquired knowledge (output rather than input).
- 4- **Outcomes that are made explicit a priori**: objectives are explained and agreed upon by both teachers and learners, in a way that learners know what is expected from them beforehand.
- 5- *Continuous and on-going assessment*: students are regularly tested to know about their educational needs and their progress.
- 6- *Individualized, student-centred instruction*: Learners' needs, abilities, and prior learning and achievement are taken into account in developing curricula.

According to the above characteristics, one can note the functional and interactional dimensions since great emphasis is put on preparing the learners to become self-reliant citizens in their own society and in the world. In addition, the learning objectives are highly focused and the outcomes are specified, within an authentic language learning context that would prepare them for specific life skills. This is meant to help learners to understand what they learn and to identify their achievements. Likewise, learners' needs and their previous knowledge are taken into account in designing appropriate and focused situations of learning.

## **2. Teaching methodology**

The methodology adopted in CBLT is **task-based**. The skills appear in the syllabus in the form of meaningful tasks, engaging the learner in authentic language use, and resulting in a shift from acquiring to using knowledge, and the shift from memory-based to problem-solving learning, taking into consideration learners' communicative needs and learning strategies. A **task** is "a goal-oriented communicative activity with a specific outcome,

where the emphasis is on exchanging meaning not producing specific language forms.” Willis (1996) has suggested a Task-Based Learning framework made up principally of three major stages: **pre-task, task cycle and language focus**, where learners prepare for the task, report back after the task and then study the language used in the task cycle.

**1) Pre-task:** It is a kind of introduction to the topic and the task as well; the teacher also elicits useful and relevant lexical items or expressions.

**2) Task-cycle** where learners do the task in pairs or in small groups, and then they compose and express what they exactly want to say by checking on the grammar of their oral or written presentations and their use of the language forms and expressions relevant to each topic. Finally, under the teacher’s guidance and monitoring, **the report stage** provides learners with opportunities for both spontaneous and planned speaking and writing, since in this stage, groups report briefly in spoken or written form to the whole class on how they solved the problem(s). As they explain metacognitively the steps they have gone through, the rest of learners listen and are thus likely to memorise the new strategies. This would result in a rich repertoire of learning strategies for learners to draw on.

**3) Language focus:** this phase includes a range of language analysis/awareness activities where the main emphasis should be on language form and use. Learners have to infer the uses of the given forms by themselves. In the end, the language practice activities are used for consolidation or revision. They can be oral or written and can be done singly, in pairs, in groups or with the whole class. One can notice that meaning is paramount while concern for grammatical accuracy is delayed until later stages; therefore, fluency is required but accuracy is not neglected.

The mother tongue is tolerated even if only half of the work is done in the target language, and four language skills are equally valued in all stages. The affective domain is considered equally important. We can perceive this in the pedagogy of the project, which aims at inculcating such values as autonomy, creativity, initiative, and responsibility through problem-solving activities. The core principle of CBLT is that learners use whatever language at their disposal to solve interrelated learning problems, and so become more likely to retain what they have learnt and at the same time use language in an authentic way. When they are unable to reformulate their own work, the teacher gives help

by breaking up the tasks and allowing peer discussion. The students have an active role while the teacher plays the role of monitor and guide, providing help when necessary.

### **3. Strengths and weaknesses**

Competency Based Language Teaching (CBLT) is believed to improve the quality of teaching and learning because of its focus on learning outcomes. Learners build confidence because they know what level of performance is expected from them, and how knowledge and skills will be evaluated. They are continuously provided with feedback concerning progress, resulting in almost continuous reinforcement. Besides, CBA is based on specific job requirements which ensure that students are taught the relevant and current skills required for employment. Equally important is the fact that CBA is applied for all subject-matters, and so puts EFL on equal basis with all the.

However, TBL does not fit lower learning levels such as beginners or younger learners as they do not already possess a basic knowledge of the foreign language to use it when performing the tasks. More importantly, there is a lack of appropriate evaluation methodology and instrumentation, and this represents the major drawback in this approach, since the prevailing of communicative objectives together with structural evaluation compels teachers to include some structural teaching practices to bridge a potential gap between teaching and testing.

## **Final Remarks on Language Teaching Approaches and methods**

### **1. Defining Key Terms**

Throughout the different lessons, some technical terms have been used, and these need to be defined. As proposed by the American linguist Edward Anthony (1963):

**1.1. An Approach** is a set of assumptions, beliefs, and principles about the nature of language and language learning, but does not impose a given procedure about how these assumptions should be translated into classroom applications. Each approach sees and defines language differently from the other approaches. The principal views at this level: the structural view, the functional view, and the interactive view.

**1.2. Method** a plan for presenting the language material to be learned and should be based upon a selected approach. In order to apply a method on the basis of a given approach, an instructional model is designed on taking into consideration teaching/learning objectives, the selection of the content, the choice of tasks, learners and teacher roles, the availability of teaching aids, and the status that foreign language has in the school system and in everyday life. An approach can then have several methods.

**1.3. Technique** is a very specific stratagem or trick that is used to attain an immediate objective. Techniques are real applications of the method. They are practical materials, activities or tasks, limited in time and space, and which best illustrate how the method proceeds. The teacher relies on his 'know-how' to choose the right techniques to be used at a particular moment in the classroom. Anthony (1963) points out that "*The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach.*" It is also maintained that while methods are held to be fixed teaching systems with fixed techniques and practices, approaches represent language teaching philosophies that can be interpreted and applied in a variety of different ways in the classroom.

## 2. Post-method pedagogy

Throughout the different lessons, we can conclude that all the teaching methods and approaches have strengths and weaknesses, and that no single method could be satisfactory for all learners, all teachers, or all contexts. Therefore, it was necessary to think about alternative solutions. In fact, some educationalists suggested to adopt eclecticism. **Eclecticism** (as first proposed by Henry Sweet and Harold Palmer) means to select the best techniques from different teaching methods to meet the objectives of the course and the abilities of the learners, in particular teaching situations, or to combine the best elements of traditional methods with those of the new ones. However, eclecticism was observed to be applied often randomly and did not lead to the desired objectives. More recently, starting in the 1990s, the **post-method pedagogy** emerged to respond to the demand for a most optimal way of teaching English free from the method-based restrictions. This marked the shift from *method* to *teacher*. In 1994, Kumaravadivelu explained that the post-method pedagogy enables teachers to construct new and specific classroom practices. Kumaravadivelu (2006) adds that “post-method pedagogy recognizes teachers' prior knowledge as well as their potential to know not only how to teach but also how to act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula and textbooks” (p. 178). Accordingly, the teacher has an even more important role in analyzing the needs of particular groups or the requirements and limitations of particular contexts, in order to find appropriate educational solutions. Teacher training, including knowledge of the different teaching methods and approaches, is thus of paramount importance to prepare teachers not just to impart a body of knowledge but to act as autonomous needs analysts, problem solvers, and decision-makers.

### **Suggested extra reading**

- 1) Burke, J.W. (Ed) (2005). Competency Based Education and Training:  
[http://eksis.ditpsmk.net/uploads/book/file/3CE28F16-301F-495A-9FA9-0309403F1EE1/20171023\\_Compentency\\_Based\\_Education\\_And\\_Training.pdf](http://eksis.ditpsmk.net/uploads/book/file/3CE28F16-301F-495A-9FA9-0309403F1EE1/20171023_Compentency_Based_Education_And_Training.pdf)
- 2) Chen, M. (2014). Postmethod Pedagogy and Its Influence on EFL Teaching Strategies: <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1075666.pdf>

**LESSON 06:**

**CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND SYLLABUS DESIGN**

**Lesson 06: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND SYLLABUS DESIGN**

After dealing with the different language teaching approaches and methods, it is necessary to understand how they are translated into teaching practices by first considering curriculum development and syllabus design, before moving to textbook use and lesson planning.

**1. Definition of Curriculum**

In formal education, a curriculum is the set of courses, and their content, offered at a school or university. A curriculum is prescribe to teachers and learners what ought to happen and they take the form of a plan, an intended program, or an expert opinion about what needs to take place in the course of study (Ellis 2004).It commonly refers to the knowledge and skills students are expected to learn, which includes the learning objectives they are expected to attain; the units and lessons that teachers teach; the assignments and projects given to students; the books, materials, videos, presentations, and readings used in a course; and the tests, assessments, and other methods used to assess student learning. A curriculum may also encompass a school's academic requirements for graduation, such as the courses students have to take and pass, the number of credits students must complete, and other requirements.

**2. Curriculum Development**

Curriculum development is mostly a practical activity that aims to improve the quality of language education by implementing systematic planning, development, and review practices in all aspects of a language programme. It includes determining learners' needs, formulating aims or objectives to achieve the needs, deciding about an appropriate syllabus, course structure, teaching methods, and materials, assessment practices, and carrying out an evaluation of the language

program that results from these activities. It is important to note that an effective curriculum should make an explicit description of educational objectives

While developing a curriculum, these questions should be considered:

1. What procedures can be used to select the content of a language program?
2. What are learners' needs? And how can learners' needs be determined?
3. What contextual factors need to be considered in planning a language program?
4. What is the nature of aims and objectives in teaching and how can these be developed?
5. What factors are involved in planning the syllabus and the units of organization in a course?
6. How can good teaching be provided in a program?
7. What issues are involved in selecting, adapting, and designing instructional materials?
8. How can one measure the effectiveness of a language programme?

The choice of teaching method depends on the context for the language program and the interactions between the different elements involved. In addition, being an effective teacher means much more than becoming a more skilful and knowledgeable classroom practitioner. Effective teaching is actually dependent on: understanding the context for teaching, the needs of teachers and learners, the careful planning of courses and materials, and the monitoring of teaching and learning.

### **3. Definition of Syllabus**

A syllabus (plural *syllabi*, or *syllabuses*) is an outline and summary of topics to be covered in an education or training course. While a curriculum specifies a purpose, a syllabus specifies knowledge, skills, values, and experience (Content) offered to reach intended learning outcomes. According to Ur (2012), a syllabus is a document which presents information on what topics or content are to be covered in a course of study.

She summarises syllabus features as follows:

- a syllabus consists of a comprehensive list of content items (e.g. words, structures, topics), or process items (e.g. tasks);
- it is ordered (easier, more essential items first);
- it has explicit objectives (usually expressed in the introduction);
- it is a public document, and therefore accountable;
- may indicate a time schedule;
- it may indicate a preferred methodology or approach;
- it may recommend materials

#### **4. Syllabus Design**

Syllabus design refers to the selection of items to be learnt and the grading of those items into an appropriate sequence (Harmer, 2001; Nunan, 1988). It is different from curriculum design in which the designer is concerned not just with lists of what will be taught and in what order, but also with the planning, implementation, evaluation, management and administration of education programmes (Nunan, 2001).

Syllabus designers should have an appropriate view of how their theories and conceptions of learning might be translated into suitable activities. They then decide about what topics to include, keeping in mind learners' needs, aptitude, and preferences. Every syllabus needs to be developed according to certain criteria as defined by Harmer (2001)

- *Learnability*: easier language items are taught before difficult ones
- *Frequency*: including language items that are used frequently rather than those that are used occasionally by native speakers.
- *Coverage*: including words and expressions that are more likely to be used.
- *Usefulness*: including words and expressions that are useful in specific situations (eg : pen , book, desk ... in classroom)

## **5. Types of Syllabuses**

There are a number of different types of language syllabuses, all of which might be taken as a starting point in the planning of a course book, or of a term's, or year's work.

### ***Grammatical (or Structural) syllabuses:***

In the grammatical syllabus, language is seen as a system which consists of a set of grammatical rules, and so learning a language means learning these rules and including them in language use. The grammatical structures are selected and organized in terms of gradual difficulty.

### ***Notional-Functional Syllabuses:***

As a reaction to grammatical syllabuses, the notional/functional syllabus stresses the communicative and semantic dimensions of language rather than the grammatical characteristics. Therefore, the content of the language teaching is made up of the functions that are performed during language use (such as requesting, inviting, offering, apologizing, agreeing...), and of the notions that language is used to express (such as number, time, place, colour...).

### ***Situational Syllabuses:***

A situational syllabus is more interested in selecting and sequencing different real life situations. It is meant to expose learners to the language they will need for communication in specific contexts (situations). Language teaching content includes such units as "at the bank", "at the supermarket", "at the restaurant"...

### ***Skill-based syllabuses:***

The skill-based syllabus focuses the specific abilities involved in language use. Linguistic competencies (such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing...) have to be grouped together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to a passage for the main idea, writing paragraphs, public speaking, sitting for language tests, reading texts for main ideas or supporting detail, and so on.

***Content-based Syllabuses:***

A content-based syllabus aims at teaching some content or information in the language being learned. The language becomes only a tool for teaching content rather than the purpose of instruction. Language is acquired within the context of the context.

***Task-Based syllabuses:***

The task- based syllabus lists a series of tasks and the language to be used in these tasks (Harmer, 2001). The focus is on the learning process rather than on the learning product (Nunan, 1988); thus, learners' intellectual capacities such as reflection and problem solving skills are promoted.

***The mixed or multi-strand syllabus (Eclectic syllabus):***

There has been an agreement that one kind of syllabus is unlikely to answer the needs of learners, teachers, and stake holders. Modern syllabuses are rather combining different aspects in order to be as comprehensive and helpful as possible to teachers and learners.

**Suggested extra reading**

- 1) Hayes Jacobs, H (Ed). 2010. Curriculum Essential Education 21 for a Changing World: [http://mehrmoammadi.ir/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/Heidi\\_Hayes\\_Jacobs\\_Curriculum\\_21.pdf](http://mehrmoammadi.ir/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/Heidi_Hayes_Jacobs_Curriculum_21.pdf)

**LESSON 07:**  
**TEXTBOOK USE**

## **LESSON07:TEXTBOOK USE**

Since earliest times, the school textbook has always accompanied and guided teachers and learners. Despite the development in recent decades of audiovisual and computer-based aids, the textbook remains the didactic instrument par excellence. Textbooks do not only provide a framework for teachers in achieving the objectives of the course, but also serve as a guide to the teacher when conducting lessons. They equally direct learners to specific learning goals. The textbook is thus a tool of vital importance to be used in the teaching-learning process to facilitate effective and meaningful learning.

### **1. Definitions:**

- A **textbook** is typically defined as a book or a manual of instruction used for the study of facts and methods about a certain subject. Textbooks may include questions to check learners' knowledge and understanding.
- A **workbook** is a type of textbook that includes practice questions and exercises solely. The purpose of workbooks is to provide practice and to determine areas that require more learning.
- A **revision guide** is a kind of textbook that serves as a reminder for learners about the lessons and as extra practice, mainly before exams.
- A **course book** is usually meant for students in schools to accompany a course the school is teaching. At university, students may be compelled to buy the textbooks they need themselves or borrow them from a library.

Most textbooks are only published in printed format. However, many are now available online as electronic books. In addition, most textbooks are often organized into chapters, each including texts, examples, exercises to check learners' progress, lists of key words, and possibly answer keys. An official textbook is often organized into units, each tackling a specific theme and covering a part of the syllabus in terms of formal language rules and skill acquisition.

## **2. Importance of Textbooks**

The function of a textbook is essentially pedagogical, to guide the teaching and learning of the curriculum in a particular subject. More precisely, a textbook acts as a guide for the syllabus material teachers have to cover in the entire academic year. Textbooks help teachers (novice or experienced) to design the lesson plan and enable a successful teaching and learning experience. Accordingly, they provide the basic framework within which much of the classroom activities occur and give every learner the best possible opportunities for learning. Textbooks also serve learners' cognitive and psychological needs because they are a source of language learning inside and outside the classroom setting, allowing learners to measure their progress and achievement concretely when they use them (Hycroft, 1998). Richards (2001) posits that the use of a textbook in a program can guarantee that students in different classes will receive a similar content, and therefore, they can be evaluated in the same way. In addition, textbooks may include a variety of accompanying resources, such as workbooks, CDs, and videos. This makes the learning environment interesting and enjoyable to the learners.

## **3. Principles of Textbook Selection and Use**

A textbook is an instrument of instruction that facilitates the teaching learning process and meets students' cognitive and affective needs. It follows a prescribed syllabus in which the major principles of the subject-matter are well selected and summarized.

A textbook should

- represent a good mixture of theory and practice,
- be well-structured,
- make use of appropriate and consistent methodology,
- be hierarchically organized,
- link new knowledge to learners' background experience, and
- be bias-free.

However, teachers should not over-rely on textbooks, and consider other aids or other materials for the classroom. Essentially, teachers should be able to select textbooks that would meet both their teaching objectives and learners' needs, as well as be able to evaluate textbooks in order to adapt or supplement them.

For more details about the strategies for using textbooks effectively in the language classroom, consult the suggested reading on this link:

<https://www.umalusi.org.za/docs/presentations/2015/textbooks.pdf>.

#### **4. Textbook Adaptation and Supplementation**

In most ELT situations, teachers have to adapt the materials they are using in order to teach more effectively and provide learners with more interesting learning opportunities. Textbooks are subject to adaptation when they are actually used in the classroom if

- they fail to fulfill the goals and objectives specified by national or local syllabuses or curricula,
- they cannot be finished in the time available,
- they require facilities or equipment or other supporting materials that are not available,
- they are not engaging learners' personality and interests,
- they are detrimental to the learners' culture

Overall, adaptation becomes self-imposed when there is a mismatch between learners' needs and the provided materials (McDonough and Shaw, 1993)

Grant (1987) adds that adaptation is necessary to make learning activities relevant and purposeful, to meet learners' different needs, and to provide opportunities for real, authentic language learning. It should be noted that adaptation often involves supplementation; that is, teachers add materials from other resources to the textbook they are using. In addition, teachers need to have *authority* (permission), *appropriate conditions* (initiative time and energy, encouragement), as well as *know how* abilities (appropriate skills) in order to select, evaluate, and adapt textbooks in the most effective way.

#### 4.1. Levels of Textbook Adaptation:

Textbook adaptation can be done at three levels(<https://www.slideshare.net/papatjospat/ppg-module-tsl3105-topic-3-selection-adaptation>)

- a) **Macro adaptation:** This is ideally done before starting the language programme. After comparing what is covered in a textbook and what is required by the syllabus or examination, the teacher may decide to adapt certain parts of the unit or supplement others. Macro adaptation is very important because it helps to avoid waste of time and energy of the teacher and the students as well. It also helps the teacher to see in advance what s/he needs to supplement so that s/he can keep an eye on materials that could be used.
- b) **Adapting a unit:** This consists in reordering the activities, combining activities, omitting activities, rewriting or supplementing exercise material, etc. Unit adaptation helps to make the classroom teaching more smooth and cohesive. It also helps the teacher to better fulfill the aims of a unit.
- c) **Adaptation of specific activities:** This is required when an activity is not well-designed or it is not feasible in a particular class.

#### 4.2. Techniques of Textbook Adaptation and Supplementation:

Maley (cited in Tomlinson, 1998) suggested the following options for materials adaptation:

- **Omission:** the teacher leaves out things judged inappropriate, offensive, unproductive, etc., for the particular group.
- **Addition:** where there seems to be inadequate coverage, teachers may decide to add to textbooks, either in the form of texts or exercise material.
- **Reduction:** where the teacher shortens an activity to give it less weight or emphasis.
- **Extension:** where an activity is lengthened in order to give it an additional dimension.
- **Rewriting/modification:** the teacher may occasionally decide to rewrite material, especially exercise material, to make it more appropriate, more “communicative”, more demanding, more accessible to their students, etc.
- **Replacement:** a text or exercise material which is considered inadequate, for whatever reason, may be replaced by more suitable material.

- **Re-ordering:** teachers may decide that the order in which the textbooks are presented is not suitable for their students. They can then decide to plot a different course through the textbooks from the one the writer has laid down.
- **Branching:** teachers may decide to add options to the existing activity or to suggest alternative pathways through the activities.

**LESSON 08:**  
**LESSON PLANNING**

## **LESSON08:LESSON PLANNING**

Textbooks do not usually offer ready-made lessons for teachers; therefore, one of the main requirements of effective teaching is preparing a good lesson plan. Lesson planning depends on the teacher's skill to identify educational aims, goals, and objectives, and to devise appropriate instructional strategies in order to cater for learners' needs.

**A lesson** is a unit of content to be taught or abilities to be developed. It may require more than one teaching session. A lesson usually lasts more or less one hour; this may vary according to learners' age and level and according to administrative constraints.

**A lesson plan** is often defined as framework for a lesson, a roadmap that the teacher follows in order to deliver the lesson successfully. It is important for teachers to guide them make decisions in terms of formulation of objectives, content (or activities) organization and time load, and as well as instructional and assessment strategies. It enables teachers to visualize teacher and learner roles in the lesson as well as predict and solve pedagogical problems. A good lesson plan avoids waste of time and energy and helps attaining educational objectives.

### **1- Components of a lesson plan**

**Aims** are general statements that provide a sense of direction and serve as a guiding principle for the educational policy. *Example: 'to develop learners' creative and critical thinking'.*

**Goals** are general statements of what should be attained by the end of instruction, but they do not specify the behavior, measurement, or period of completion. *Example: 'Learners will become good communicators in English'*

**Objectives** are specific statements about what a learner will be able to do (or do better) at the end of a successful instruction. An objective should describe, in a simple language, an activity that can be seen and measured. It should include the description of the activity (or behavior/ performance) itself, the conditions under which the activity takes place, and the level of that performance. *Example: 'By the end of the lesson, the students will be able to write a 12 lines comparison-contrast paragraph on a given topic'.*

**Materials and Media:** Materials are the forms and expressions of language in its oral and written aspects. The means by which these forms and expressions of language are presented, explained, and exemplified are the media. All equipment that the teacher uses in the classroom is language teaching media (they can be in the form of handouts, textbooks, transcripts, recorders, videos, Internet). Thus, we can distinguish *materials* as the content of instruction, from *media* as the means of presentation. It is noteworthy that materials can be spoken (an interview, a conversation, dialogues), written (newspapers, novels, letters, speeches), or visual materials (pictures, drawings, tables).

**Activities:** they should provide opportunities for language practice and be sequenced from easiest to most difficult, and be targeting already known to unknown knowledge.

## **2- Stages of a Lesson**

It is a description of the procedure/methodology that takes place in the classroom in order to put in actual use what has been planned beforehand. It includes the following steps:

**a- Warming up:** that is breaking the ice, getting the learners involved into the atmosphere of learning and being familiar with the tasks and activities. It takes a very short period of time in the duration of the lesson.

**b- Activities:** they represent the instruction itself and consist of 3 main steps:

-Introducing new items to be learned.

-Presenting aspects of the topic through exemplification, explanation and exercises.

- Helping learners to perform acts, roles and tasks through controlled and free practice

**c- Evaluation:** The teacher checks the learners' aptitude to assimilate the activities, and assesses their achievement, and then provides them with necessary feedback. The teacher equally evaluates the efficiency of the lesson plan and reflects on ways of its improvement.

**d- Homework:** It is a process of learning reinforcement. It involves independent work, self-reliance, and personal contribution of learners.

### 3- Lesson plan Template

The more a lesson plan is detailed the more it is helpful for the teacher (mainly for novice teachers). There may be different models and templates; the following is one example.

#### A Daily Lesson Plan Template

INSTRUCTOR		DATE
COURSE TITLE		LESSON NUMBER
UNIT	SPECIFIC TOPIC	
INSTRUCTIONAL AIM & GOAL (general description of the outcome to be attained by learners)		
PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVE (specific description of a measurable outcome using an action verb)		
RATIONALE (brief justification -- why you feel the students need to learn this topic)		

LESSON CONTENT (what is to be taught)
MATERIALS AND AIDS (what you will need in order to teach this lesson)
INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>a. Focusing event (something to get the students' attention)</li><li>b. Teaching procedures (methods you will use)</li><li>c. Formative check (progress checks throughout the lesson)</li><li>d. Student Participation (how you will get the students to participate)</li><li>e. Closure (how you will end the lesson)</li></ul>
EVALUATION PROCEDURES (how you will measure outcomes to determine if the material has been learned)
HOMEWORK (providing extra practice)

## **SEMESTER 06**

## **LESSONS**

**LESSON 01:**  
**TEACHING RECEPTIVE SKILLS:**  
**LISTENING**

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## LESSON 01: TEACHING RECEPTIVE SKILLS: LISTENING

The four basic skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) are related to each other by two parameters: the mode of communication: oral or written; and the direction of communication: receiving or producing. We may represent the relationships among the skills in the following chart:

	<b>Oral</b>	<b>Written</b>
<b><i>Receptive</i></b>	Listening	Reading
<b><i>Productive</i></b>	Speaking	Writing

### **1. Defining Listening:**

Listening comprehension is the receptive skill in the oral mode. Listening means involves understanding what we hear. Listening situations can be either *interactive* or *non-interactive*. Interactive listening situations consist in face-to-face conversations and telephone calls, where we take turns listening and speaking, and where we can ask our interlocutor for clarification, repetition, or slower speech. Examples of non-interactive listening situations are listening to the radio, TV, films, lectures, or sermons. In such situations we generally do not have the opportunity to ask for clarification, slower speech, or repetition. Listening situations can also be classified as *formal* or *informal*.

Students can improve their listening skills through a combination of extensive and intensive listening material. *Intensive listening* is introduced through brief listening activities; it focuses on language form (pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary), and on precise information. *Extensive listening* aims at understanding the overall meaning of a listening passage or enjoying it.

## **2. Listening Micro and macro skills**

### **2.1. Listening Micro-skills:**

They concern discrete language elements. Richards (1983) proposes that the following are the micro-skills. The listener has to:

- retain chunks of language in short-term memory,
- discriminate among the distinctive sounds in the new language,
- recognize stress and rhythm patterns, tone patterns, and intonation,
- distinguish word boundaries and recognize reduced forms of words,
- recognize vocabulary and detect key words, such as those identifying topics and ideas ,
- recognize grammatical word classes, word-order patterns, basic syntactic patterns, and sentence constituents (such as subject, verb, object, prepositions, and the like), and
- recognize cohesive devices.

### **2.2. Listening Macro- Skills:**

They target broader language components. The listener has to

- recognize the communicative functions of utterances according to situations (order, invitation, question, explanation...),
- use real-world knowledge to understand particular situations or events,
- predict outcomes, infer links and connections between events, and distinguish main/secondary ideas and examples,
- distinguish between literal and implied meanings,
- use facial expressions, body language, and other nonverbal clues to understand meanings, and
- use listening strategies, such as detecting keywords, guessing the meaning of words from context, or asking questions when there is lack of comprehension.

### **3. Steps of a Listening Lesson**

The listening lesson goes through three main steps:

#### **3.1. Pre-Listening:**

During this stage, the teacher has first to set a goal to give learners guidance to know where to focus. The next step is to build background by helping learners connect what they already know with what they will hear. The teacher should also prepare the environment (limit distraction by making the environment as quiet as possible), as well as introduce strategies for successful listening (such as using clues to guess meaning).

#### **3.2. During Listening:**

The teacher guides students about note taking strategies while listening to support comprehension, and explains how to use problem-solving strategies.

#### **3.3. Post-Listening:**

During this important stage, learners are guided to reflect on the audio content. The teacher has to engage learners in synthesizing what they learned from listening to audio track, responding to listening comprehension questions in writing and then share their responses, or discussing key themes in the passage and encouraging students to make connections to other texts or experiences. Students can answer questions about the story in the written mode through writing, or in the oral mode as in a conversation, or by recording themselves speaking, or they attempt a combination of strategies.

### **4. Types of Listening Activities:**

In class, the teacher can attempt different types of activities to help learners acquire the listening skill. What the teacher should keep in mind is to raise learners' expectations (to activate their prior knowledge or schemata), to specify the purpose of the tasks, and involve learners' interaction and responses. Ur (1999) suggests the following types of activities:

- **No Overt Response:** The learners do not need to provide a specific response to the listening; however, their facial expression and body language often show whether they are actually following or not. Samples of these activities include story-telling, songs, or films.
- **Short Responses** such as *Obeying instructions* (where learners perform actions, or draw shapes or pictures, in response to instructions), *Ticking off items; True/False; Detecting mistakes, Cloze procedure (gap-filling); Guessing definitions, Skimming and scanning* (i.e. providing short answers to given questions).
- **Longer Responses:** They include *Answering questions* by providing full responses, *Note-taking, Paraphrasing and translating, Summarizing, Long gap-filling.*
- **Extended Responses:** Here, the listening is combined with other skills: extended reading, writing or speaking: in other words, these are ‘combined skills’ activities where *Problem-solving and interpretation* are associated. An example can be analyzing and discussing a piece of literature read aloud).

### **5.Learner problems:**

Learners may face different problems while listening: insufficient background, inaccurate sound perception, inability to understand the meaning of words, inability to understand fast, natural speech, need to hear things more than once, difficulty to keep up, getting tired/bored, uninteresting material, bad equipment, and cultural issues (differences between cultures). The following solutions can be suggested: extensive reading, listening to native speakers, practicing with listening activities...

**Reflection question:** *Mention other learner problems related to EFL listening skills and suggest other solutions.*

**LESSON 2:**

**TEACHING RECEPTIVE SKILLS:**

**READING**

## LESSON 2: TEACHING RECEPTIVE SKILLS: READING

### 1. Defining Reading:

Reading is the receptive skill in the written mode. It often develops along with other skills such as listening and speaking, but it can develop independently of them too. It can help build vocabulary that helps listening comprehension at the later stages, particularly. Reading involves not only decoding the text (translating written symbols into corresponding sounds) but also understanding it.

There may be different **purposes for reading**, such as receiving and understanding information, verifying existing knowledge, critiquing a writer's ideas or writing style, enhancing knowledge of language, and entertainment.

(<https://studymoose.com/reading-skills-2-essay>)

### 2. Reading Micro and Macro-skills:

**2.1. Micro Skills:** The reader has to

- decipher the script. This means establishing a relationship between sounds and symbols.
- recognize vocabulary.
- select key words, such as those that identify topics and main ideas.
- guess the meaning of the words, including unfamiliar vocabulary, from the context.
- recognize grammatical word classes: noun, adjective, etc.
- detect sentence constituents, such as subject, verb, object, prepositions, etc.
- recognize basic syntactic patterns.

**2.2. Macro Skills:** The reader has to

- reconstruct and derive situations, goals and participants.

- use both general knowledge and knowledge of lexical and grammatical cohesive devices to make inferences, predict outcomes, and establish logical connections among the parts of the text.
- get the main point or the most important information.
- distinguish the main idea from supporting details.
- adjust reading strategies to different reading purposes, such as skimming for main ideas or scanning for in-depth details.

### **3. Steps of a Reading Lesson**

The reading lesson goes through three main steps:

**3.4. Pre-reading:** The teacher guides learners to be familiar with the text by previewing the text by using prior knowledge and setting a purpose for reading. The learners are also guided to consider the layout of the text and any graphic or visual details, as well as to make predictions about the content of the text

**3.5. While reading:** the teacher monitors learners' understanding through questioning, thinking about, and reflecting on the ideas and information in the text. The teacher can introduce different types of activities that target both general and specific ideas.

**3.6. Post-reading:** Learners will have to reflect upon the ideas and information in the text, relate what they have read to their own experiences and knowledge, or extend their understanding in critical and creative ways.

**4. Types of Reading Activities:** During the three stages of a reading lesson, the teacher can introduce different activities:

-*Provide a title* (Or an alternative one)

-*Preface:* The learners suggest what might have happened before.

- *Asking comprehensions questions* (whether before or after the text) is certainly a very popular reading task. Learners can also compose and answer their own questions.

- **Continue:** The learners suggest what might happen next.
- **Find mistakes in the text** and correct them
- **Fill in a gapped text** (cloze test)
- **Representation of content** (into a drawing/ map/diagram/list...)
- **Comparison.** There are two texts on a similar topic; learners note points of similarity or difference of content.
- **Summarise the passage**
- **Responding.** Learners discuss how they would respond, or write an answer to given situations, such as a letter or a debatable topic in an article.

**5. Learner Problems:** Learners may face different problems while reading. These may consist in the following:

- Word decoding: learners have difficulty identifying single words or matching letters to their proper sounds
- Fluency: Learners lacking fluency show difficulty reading quickly, accurately, and with proper expression (when they read aloud).
- Difficulty with lexical, grammatical, or syntactic patterns
- Difficulty in reading comprehension. Learners have poor background knowledge and cannot distinguish main ideas and supporting details.

**6. Practical Recommendations for Teaching Reading:**

- Make sure that most of the vocabulary in reading texts is familiar to your students and that words that are unknown can be either easily guessed or safely ignored.
- Give interesting tasks before asking learners to read so that they have a clear purpose and motivating challenge.
- Make sure that the tasks encourage learners to think selectively and read intelligently for the main meaning, rather than testing their understanding of superficial details or information.
- Encourage learners to manage while not understanding each word.

- Encourage and train learners into annotating reading passages to develop their reflection. *Annotating* means taking notes about important ideas while you are reading a text. In-text annotations can be made by underlining, circling, or highlighting important words or passages. Side-text annotations consist in writing, on the margins of the text, your own ideas/reactions/questions.
- Vary the types of texts and tasks as much as you can.
- Encourage intensive and extensive reading.
- Make sure your students get a lot of successful reading experience through encouraging them to choose their own simplified readers, and giving them time to read them.

**Reflection question: *Mention other learner problems related to EFL reading and suggest other solutions.***

**LESSON 3:**  
**TEACHING PRODUCTIVE SKILLS:**  
**SPEAKING**

### **LESSON 3: TEACHING PRODUCTIVE SKILLS:**

#### **SPEAKING**

##### **1. Defining Speaking:**

Speaking is the productive skill in the oral mode. It involves more than just pronouncing words; it is the process of building and sharing meaning using verbal and nonverbal symbols, in a variety of contexts. The purpose of teaching speaking skills is to attain communicative efficiency. Learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their speaking competence appropriately. They should try to avoid confusion in the message they convey because of defective pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary, and to observe the social and cultural rules that apply in each communication situation ([https://www.slideshare.net/zeal\\_eagle/speaking-skills-24884424](https://www.slideshare.net/zeal_eagle/speaking-skills-24884424))

##### **2. Speaking Situations:**

There are three kinds of speaking situations in which we find ourselves:

*interactive, partially interactive and non-interactive.* Examples of Interactive speaking situations include face-to-face conversations and telephone calls, in which we take turns listening and speaking, and in which we have the opportunity to ask our interlocutor for clarification, repetition, or slower speech. Some speaking situations are partially interactive, such as when giving a speech to a live audience, where the audience does not usually interrupt the speech. However, the speaker can see the audience and judge from the expressions on their facial expressions and body language whether they understood or not. Some few speaking situations may be totally non-interactive, such as when recording a speech for a radio broadcast.

### **3. Speaking Micro and Macro Skills**

#### **3.1. Micro-skills:** The speaker has to

- pronounce the distinctive sounds of a language clearly enough so that people can distinguish them, and produce reduced forms of words and phrases,
- use stress, rhythmic patterns, and intonation patterns of the language clearly enough so that people (listeners) can understand what is said,
- use vocabulary appropriately to achieve pragmatic purposes,
- use the correct grammatical forms of words, and put words together in correct word order,
- produce fluent speech at different rates of delivery and use various strategic devices – such as pause, fillers, self-corrections- to enhance the clarity of the message, and
- use cohesive devices in spoken discourse.

#### **3.2 Macro- skills:** The speaker has to

- make the main ideas stand out from supporting ideas or information,
- make the discourse hang together so that people can follow what you are saying,
- accomplish communicative function according to situations, participants, and goals,
- use facial expressions, gestures, body language, and other nonverbal cues along with verbal language,
- use the register or language variety that is appropriate to the situation and the relationship to the conversation partner, and
- develop and use a battery of speaking strategies, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, providing a context for interpreting the meaning of words, appealing for help, and accurately assessing how well your interlocutor is understanding you.

#### **4. Steps of a Speaking lesson:**

The speaking lesson goes through three main stages:

**4.1. Pre- Speaking stage:** In this stage, learners are guided to think about a speaking activity, what it involves and what they can anticipate. The teacher provides vocabulary, expressions or discourse features and planning for an activity they will carry out in class. In this case, the teacher may use different media or technological devices.

**4.2. While Speaking:** In this stage, students practise a communicative speaking task with a focus on fluency. They examine their performance or look at other performances of the task, as well as transcripts of how the task can be carried out, and review different features of the task.

**4.3. Post- Speaking:** In this stage, students review and reflect on what they have learned and difficulties they encountered, while teacher provides feedback on their performance.

## **5. Types of Speaking activities:**

To help students develop communicative efficiency in speaking, teachers can use a balanced activities approach that combines language input (content-based and form-based), structured output, and communicative output. Speaking activities can be topic-based or task-based. In the first type, learners are asked to talk about a (controversial) topic, the main objective being the discussion process itself. In the second type, learners perform something, where the discussion process is a means to an end.

**5.1. Structured Output Activities :** They consist in the following :

- Information Gap Activities, such as Filling the gaps in a schedule or timetable.
- Jigsaw Activities; 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. For example, they have to complete a narrative story

## **5.2. Communicative Output Activities:**

**Role plays:** students are given roles and put into authentic situations that may be encountered in real life. They are asked to choose language that is appropriate to the situation and to the characters.

**Discussions:** similar role plays, they are efficient when the teacher prepares learners for the topic.

**Long turns:** such as telling stories or jokes, describing a person/place in detail, recounting the plot of a film/play/book, giving a short lecture/talk

## **6. Learner problems in Speaking and possible solutions**

In many EFL contexts, learners are reported to face different problems or difficulties. These are exemplified as follows:

- inhibition, shyness, or speaking anxiety
- having nothing to say, or lacking necessary background knowledge or necessary vocabulary and grammatical structures
- using the mother tongue
- low or uneven participation on the part of learners (lack of motivation).

Accordingly, teachers may attempt the following solutions:

- use pair and group work
- base the activity on easy language
- choose topics that may stimulate their interest
- give some instruction or training in discussion and debate skills
- encourage learners to speak extensively in the target language
- develop their listening skills

**Reflection question: Mention other learner problems related to EFL speaking and suggest other solutions.**

**LESSON 4:**  
**TEACHING PRODUCTIVE SKILLS:**  
**WRITING**

**LESSON 4: TEACHING PRODUCTIVE SKILLS:****WRITING****1. Writing Defined:**

Writing is the productive skill in the written mode. It, too, is more complicated than it seems at first, and often seems to be the hardest of the skills, even for native speakers of a language. It involves not just a graphic representation of speech, but the development and presentation of thoughts in a structured way according to the conventions of language (grammar, vocabulary use, handwriting, layout, and mechanics).

*Rhetorical modes* are narrative, descriptive, argumentative, and expository.

*Text types* include personal writing, social writing, public writing, study writing, institutional writing, and creative writing.

**2. Writing Purposes:**

Our writing corresponds to different purposes:

*for communicating:* letters, messages, e-mails

*for learning:* taking notes during lectures or while reading, reinforcing language mastery by practicing grammatical and vocabulary forms, developing thinking strategies, as well as enhancing learning strategies,

*for demonstrating learning:* demonstrating understanding of content or language mastery by answering reading /questions, tests/exams

**3. Micro and Macro Writing skills:**

**3.1. Micro- skills:** Learners have to

- use the orthography correctly, including the script, and spelling and punctuation conventions,
- use the correct forms of words, that express the right tense, or case or gender,

- arrange the words in correct order,
- use vocabulary correctly, and
- use clearly sentence elements, such as subject, verb, and object.

### **3.2. Macro-Skills:** Learners have to

- express main ideas distinctively from supporting information,
- write the text coherently, so that other readers can follow easily the development of the ideas,
- select a writing style that is convenient to the genre and audience,
- write according to the background knowledge the audience has on the subject and make clear what it is assumed they do not know.

## **4. Steps of a Writing Lesson:**

Teaching writing goes through three steps which correspond to the main steps of the *writing process*:

### **4.1. Pre-writing:**

In this step, learners get prepared for the writing task by thinking about the topic, gathering information and data, and by activating their background knowledge. This can be done through various pre-writing strategies: brainstorming, free-writing, mapping (or clustering), and outlining (that is organizing the gathered data into an outline).

### **4.2. Writing (or drafting):**

In this stage, learners use the information gathered and outlined in the previous stage in order to write the first draft of the written task. This version of writing is obviously not perfect and needs to be refined in the next stage.

### **4.3. Rewriting:**

In this stage, learners correct the first draft and rewrite the assignment by going through these main sub-steps:

**Revising:** This concerns rewriting the first draft and considering mistakes relating to unity and coherence. **Unity** refers to checking relevance of the ideas to the topic. **Coherence** refers to the logical organization of ideas, the use of transitional devices, appropriate use of pronouns, parallel structure in sentences, and repetition of key words and phrases when necessary. This leads to writing the final draft.

**Editing (or proofreading):** This concerns rather checking mistakes relating to mechanics (punctuation and spelling), missing/extra words...

**Remark:** It is noteworthy that any written product has to meet the standards of layout presentation. For example, in any paragraph the first sentence is indented and the paragraph should be written as a block.

### **5. Some Writing Activities:**

There are various types of writing activities. The following are some examples:

- Write a paragraph or an essay on a given topic (describing a person/process; comparing and contrasting, expressing opinion...)
- Writing a report of a book they have just read.
- Writing a review of a book they enjoyed.
- Writing a narrative based on a picture or series of pictures.
- Writing or answer a letter.
- Writing a job application.
- Writing a story (creative writing)

### **6. Common Learner problems in writing:**

Writing in a foreign language is a challenging task; therefore, learners often report some difficulties such as the following:

- lack of basic information about the topic
- lack of necessary vocabulary
- difficulty to use appropriate grammatical, punctuation, or spelling rules
- including irrelevant information (difficulty to select ideas)

There are possible solutions:

- building the writing habit by writing regularly; learners can hold a writing diary on which they write every day and check their progress regularly.
- developing writing accuracy by working on grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics activities.
- using the computer to write in order to get instant feedback from the automatic corrector, on language accuracy or on sentence structure.
- developing intensive and extensive reading.

**Reflection question: *Mention other learner problems related to EFL writing and suggest other solutions.***

**LESSON 5:**

**TEACHING GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY**

## LESSON 5: TEACHING GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY

Knowledge about grammar and vocabulary is essential to achieve competence in the four language skills. Therefore, it is necessary to understand these two components and learn about their principles and teaching strategies.

### A/ TEACHING GRAMMAR

#### 1. Definition and Purpose

Grammar refers to structure. It is often defined as the way words are put together to form correct sentences. It is also applied to units smaller than a sentence. Grammatical terminology includes **language units** (sentences, clauses, phrases, words, and morphemes), **parts of speech** (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs and modals) and **parts of a sentence** (subject, verb, object, complement, and adverbial). Grammatical structures have (morphosyntactic) **form**; they express **meaning** (semantics), in context-appropriate **use** (pragmatics). Spoken and written grammars differ in many ways (use of contractions, shorter sentence structures, simple tenses).

Grammar has been the focus of different teaching methods and approaches. There is a renewed concern for grammar because of its perceived importance in language learning and teaching; however, there is still no agreement about the best way to teach grammar. Grammar teaching is not the transmission of knowledge but rather skill development (grammar is often considered as the fifth skill). The point is not teaching grammatical rules to be memorized but to enable students to use grammatical structures accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately.

#### 2. Principles for Grammar Teaching

In order to ensure an appropriate teaching of grammar, teachers have to consider three dimensions of grammar: *form*, *meaning* and *use*. Therefore, teachers have to use activities that focus not only on grammatical forms, but also on their meaning and their appropriate use. They also have to consider the learners' readiness to learn the structure and adapt grammar teaching to their needs, and build on learners' prior knowledge (including knowledge of their mother tongue). Another principle of grammar teaching

concerns the amount of time needed to teach a new structure which depends on learners' aptitude.

Additionally, teachers have to contextualise linguistic forms in situations of natural use (communicative and useful). They also have to vary the form and order of presentation of grammatical structures by attempting different approaches (to cater for different learning styles), and work on recycling structures in a course and repeating structures when necessary.

### **3. Approaches to Teaching Grammar**

#### **3.1. The Deductive Approach:**

It consists in teaching grammar from rules. Rules are explicitly presented in a short, clear and simple way, and illustrated with examples. Understanding is checked and learners have the opportunity to personalise the rules. Learners are then assigned practice activities (individual/pair/group)

#### **3.2. The Inductive Approach:**

It is a rule-discovery approach. The teacher uses a variety of means to present language structures and encourages learners to work out the rules for themselves. Learners move from particulars (examples) to generalisations (rules). The activities can involve the use of pictures, realia, or actions.

#### **3.3. Teaching grammar through texts (in-context):**

While the deductive and inductive approaches are rather decontextualized, grammar is found to be best taught and practiced in context. This means using texts and contexts (referring to particular situations or even to culture).

### **4. Types of Grammar Activities:**

Different activities can be suggested while teaching grammar. The following are some examples: awareness-raising, gap-filling, sentence transformation, splitting sentences into their constituent, controlled or meaningful drilling, matching sentences to pictures, free practice including role play and interviews, as well as integrating grammar and writing (writing sentences or paragraphs to practise the studied forms)

## An example of a grammar activity about future tenses

### Activity Type

Reading and speaking activity, group work

### Focus

Future forms: present continuous, be going to, will, won't and would like to.

### Aim

To talk about various topics using the correct future form.

### Preparation

Make one copy of the game board for each group of three or four. Enlarge the game board to A3 if possible. You will also need to prepare some dice and counters.

### Level

Pre-intermediate (A2)

### Time

30 minutes

### Introduction

Here is a future simple board game to get your students talking about the future using the present continuous, be going to, will, won't and would like to.

### Procedure

Explain that the students are going to play a board game where they talk about various topics for 30 seconds using different future forms.

Divide the students into groups of three or four.

Give each group a copy of the game board, a dice and counters. Have one student keep the time in each group.

Students place their counters on the start square.

Students then take it in turns to roll the dice and move their counter along the board.

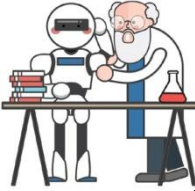

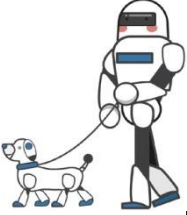


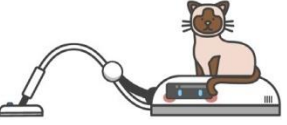
When a student lands on a square, they have to talk about the topic on the square for 30 seconds using the correct future form.

If a student can't think of anything to say, makes a grammar mistake, or stops talking before the 30 seconds are up, they go back two spaces.

The first student to reach the finish wins the game.

As an alternative, you could have the students miss a turn instead of going back to their previous square.

(<https://www.teach-this.com/images/resources/future-board-game.pdf> )

<b>Finish</b>		someone famous you would like to meet	how your town/city will change in the next ten years	your plans for this evening	what you will have for dinner
will robots ever replace humans		<b>Oh No! Go back to the start</b>		<b>Super skip! Move ahead</b>	an arrangement you have made in the future
your plan for next weekend		a place where you would like to live when you are old			three things that definitely won't happen to you this year
a job you would really like to do		a friend you are going to meet			a country you wouldn't like to visit
<b>Miss a turn</b>		how you will celebrate your next birthday		will humans ever meet aliens	
something you are planning to buy		something you are going to do tomorrow		afilm you plan to see	
your plans for next week		what the Earth will look like in 100 years		a place you are going to visit soon	
what you think your children will look like		<b>Oh no! Go Back</b>		what you are doing after class	
<b>Move forward 2 spaces</b>	something a friend is going to do soon	your plans for next month		<b>Start</b>	

## **B/ TEACHING VOCABULARY:**

### **1. Definition**

Learning vocabulary is essential in any language. Wilkins (1972) notes that “Without grammar very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed”. Vocabulary refers to words we use to communicate in oral and written language. We can distinguish *Receptive vocabulary* which refers to the words we understand through reading and listening, from *Productive vocabulary* which refers to the words we use to communicate through writing and speaking.

Words have shape /form, pronunciation, structure/parts, meaning, grammatical function, and use. Interestingly, languages are different in terms of word or vocabulary building. While teaching vocabulary, the idea of ‘root’, prefixes and suffixes helps learners build a larger vocabulary quickly, with a variety of words from one base form. It is important to point to these connections in order to expand the vocabulary they already know. In addition, relationships between words include definitions, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, polysemy, homonymy... Words may have different meanings according to the context they appear in; therefore, it is important to teach vocabulary in context.

### **2. Principles of Vocabulary Teaching**

First of all, teaching vocabulary can be done explicitly or implicitly. Teachers should primarily encourage learners to figure out the meaning of words according to their context and to avoid the reliance on direct translation from their mother tongue. In fact, teaching should direct attention to the sound of new words, particularly the way they are stressed. Accordingly, learners need multiple exposures to words and they need to retrieve words from memory repeatedly. It is important to note that memory of new words can be reinforced if they are used to express personally relevant meanings. It is equally important to link vocabulary teaching with language production, either in speech or in writing. Finally, classroom sources of vocabulary include lists of vocabulary definitions/synonyms/opposites, course books, dictionaries, the teacher, and other learners.

## **2. Strategies for Vocabulary Teaching**

Teachers can attempt a multitude of strategies to teach vocabulary. The following are a few examples:

- Using a picture or a real object: drawing on the board, or using textbook/magazine/newspaper.
- Using mime or gesture: engaging learners into a guessing practice or to check that they understand.
- Giving examples of the words in a different context and asking students to guess. For example, this example could be given: ‘The boat was propelled across the water by the wind.’ The students can guess the meaning of the word ‘propelled’ in this given context.
- Explaining what the word means in English: teachers ask questions to make sure that their students understand the meaning.
- Finding or matching words with definitions, synonyms, antonyms...
- Encouraging students to use the dictionary.
- Using word games: crosswords, classifying words in tables, word networks
- Asking learners to write sentences or paragraphs using specific words.

Therefore vocabulary teaching can involve the integration of different language skills.

### **Examples of Vocabulary activities**

(<https://education.missouri.edu/wp-content/uploads/sites/21/2012/10/Vocabulary-Lesson-Classroom-Ideas.pdf>)

## 20 Vocabulary Lesson Ideas

1. **Anything Goes** (Richek & McTague, 2008)
  - This is used as a quick review of words that moves students from hesitation to rapid use.
  - Teacher presents students with a list of words (board, overhead or word wall).
  - Teacher or student points to a word and asks:
    - i. What part of speech is \_\_\_\_\_?
    - ii. What is the definition of \_\_\_\_\_?
    - iii. Give another form of \_\_\_\_\_.
    - iv. Spell (a derivative or inflected form of) \_\_\_\_\_.
    - v. Use \_\_\_\_\_ in a sentence.
    - vi. Use \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ in a sentence.
    - vii. What do \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ have in common?
    - viii. Find two words that have to do with \_\_\_\_\_.
    - ix. Find a (the) root (or prefix, suffix) in \_\_\_\_\_.
  
2. **Brain Power Words** (Richek & McTague, 2008)
  - Ask small groups of students to preview sections of a text and identify difficult words.
  - For long chapters, assign different sections to different groups.
  - Students place a Post-it next to the words in the text they identify as potentially difficult.
  - After identifying the words, the group goes back and uses context clues to hypothesize what the words might mean.
    - i. *Clues of substitution*: A known word would make sense in the context and is probably a good definition.
    - ii. *Clues of definition*: The word is defined in the text (many textbooks do this).
    - iii. *Clues of opposition*: Words “not, unlike” etc. are excellent clues to what a word is not and thus help define the words.
  - After Brain Power Words list is identified and definitions sought, the students check their work with the teacher.
  
3. **Concept Cube** (Montgomery, 2008)
  - Students receive six-square pattern on tagboard that can be folded up and taped into a three-dimensional cube, which will be 4” on each side.
  - Before folding, students write clearly in each square following directions below.
  - Each student is given one challenging vocabulary word from a recent reading and asked to:
    - i. Write the assigned vocabulary word in one square.
    - ii. Write a synonym (word or phrase) in another square.
    - iii. Write an antonym (word or phrase) in another square.
    - iv. Write a category or categories it could belong to.
    - v. Write the essential characteristics of the concept of this word.
    - vi. Give one example.
  - Cut, fold, and tape the cube.
  - Roll the cube and read what comes up on the “top”; the student must tell the relationship of that word or phrase to the original word.
  - Teachers scaffold as necessary.
  - After students know their own cube without any errors, they exchange with a peer.
  
4. **Concept Definition Map**
  - A graphic organizer that has students draw an illustration representing their text to help them think about it in terms of definitions, related concepts, and examples.
  - Helps them to learn new vocabulary and concepts in a more holistic way.
  - May be used for a single concept or for an entire passage.

**LESSON 6:**

**INTRODUCING LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT CONCEPTS**

**LESSON 6: INTRODUCING LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT CONCEPTS**

Instruction and evaluation are inseparable, mainly in formal settings where assessment is a compulsory pedagogical and administrative component. The purpose of classroom assessment is to provide information about learners' progress and achievement so as both teachers and learners know the extent to which they have attained their teaching/learning goals.

**1. Definition of key words:**

Evaluation, assessment, and testing are terms that are used interchangeably, though they refer to different concepts:

**Testing** is a subset of assessment; it is one way to assess learning. In education, a test is a series of questions or problems designed to measure (quantitatively) a specific skill or knowledge. Tests and exams are most of the time synonymous; they are designed to determine knowledge, intelligence or ability. While tests can be at the end of lessons, exams are more formal and concern many lessons, a whole term, or a whole year.

**Assessment** has a wider scope and involves gathering over a period of time information, and making judgments on learners' knowledge and their ability to use it. Judgments are made over learners' level and progress.

**Evaluation** is a broader concept than testing and assessment. It involves collecting information, including data obtained from testing and assessment and interpreting that information in order to take appropriate decisions about the effectiveness of a particular course/ programme. Evaluation judges not only learners' progress but also efficiency of teaching methods, textbooks, syllabus, in order to devise appropriate solutions.

**Formative Vs. Summative Assessment:** *Formative assessment* is a process of evaluating learners' knowledge while they are learning. It is a method of on-going assessment in which the teacher uses quizzes, discussion, or interviews in order to monitor learners' progress during the course, analyse their needs and

provide them with appropriate feedback. *Summative assessment* is the process of measuring learners' knowledge, proficiency, and performance at the end of a term/year/course by comparing what they know with what they should have learned. The teacher plans for summative assessments and allocates grades, after which learners pass/fail or are allowed to move to the next learning level.

## **2. Types of tests:**

The appropriateness of a test in any given context depends on the reason the test is being given and the uses to which the test results may be put. Tests have different aims: diagnosing learners' strengths and weaknesses, placing them into specific groups, or checking their progress in or achievement of the instructional goals. Accordingly, there are different types of test:

**2.1. Diagnostic Tests** enable teachers to identify any areas of weakness or difficulty, so that they can then plan and implement an appropriate remedial teaching program. They may be used to assess the knowledge and skills of learners in particular aspects of language before the start of a course.

**2.2. Progress Tests** measure how well learners have mastered the material [or skills] taught in class and [or] how well they have improved in a given area. These tests are usually used by the teacher to answer questions such as

*Have the students learnt the target language well?*

*Have I taught it effectively?*

*Can we go on to the next part of the course?*

Progress tests are often given to motivate learners and to reinforce learning.

**2.3. Achievement Tests** refer to more formal tests that have been designed to show mastery of a particular syllabus or corpus of language. They include end-of-term and end-of-year tests, end-of-course tests, school leaving examinations for certification.

**2.4. Proficiency Tests** are different in that they are not usually based on a particular syllabus but are used to measure achievement in relation to a specific [future] task that the candidate may be required to perform at a subsequent point of time. For example, the test may set out to determine whether the candidate has sufficient English to follow a course of Chemical Engineering for which the medium of instruction is English, or to do a job that requires the use of English. Examples of proficiency tests are IELTS and TOEFL.

**2.5. Placement Tests** are a special type of proficiency test. They give an indication of the language levels of learners so that they can be placed in an appropriate class for English.

### **3. Characteristics of a good test**

**3.1. Validity:** There are three aspects for validity. *Face validity:* A test has face validity if it is appropriate to the objectives and instructional goals. *Content validity:* A test has content validity if it samples adequately the content of the subject-matter. The sample must be adequate in terms of the points covered in the test; it should represent a good percentage of the course. *Construct validity:* A test has construct validity if its results correlate with other results obtained in another test which is accepted as being a valid test (mainly for tests which have never been used before).

**3.2. Reliability:** A reliable test is one which produces consistent scores; on which we can rely for any decision about levels. Two aspects are related to reliability: consistency of the score which remain the same even if the conditions in which the test is given are normal for its administration and use; as well as consistency of the scores even if the test is corrected by different teachers independently. Reliability refers to the precision with which a test measures what it is supposed to measure.

**3.3. Practicability:** A test is practical when it is easy to administer; that is all the conditions of time and space are existent, and easy to score/correct(within the possible time and capacity of the corrector).

**LESSON 7:**

**ASSESSING RECEPTIVE SKILLS**

**LESSON 7:****ASSESSING RECEPTIVE SKILLS**

The aim of assessment in both receptive and productive skills is to check learners' understanding and mastery of the different micro and macro skills (see preceding lessons). In order to ensure effective assessment of the different skills, three principles have to be respected:

- To use assessment activities which rely on the types of texts the learners are likely to use in real life situations,
- To design tasks which accurately reveal the learners' ability, and
- To have a reliable way to score the learners' performance.

Note that teachers use assessment results (either formative or summative assessment) to uncover students' weaknesses and needs in all skills, and take appropriate decisions for lessons content or teaching methodology accordingly. It is equally important to train learners into peer-assessment and self-assessment in order to improve their learning awareness

**1. Assessing Listening:**

In order to ensure an effective listening of assessment, the assessor should take the following items: size of the room, seating arrangement, acoustics of the room, equipment used, quality of the recording of the listening input, quality of the rendering of the listening input in terms of volume, clarity, intonation, and pace.

The guidelines of test administration include the following:

- Selecting time and date of assessment;
- Planning seating and arrangement in advance;
- Deciding exactly the time each task requires;
- Respecting the time specified for each of the three phases (pre-, while-, and post-listening);
- Including a variety of tasks in the listening and grading them according to the length of the task and the difficulty level;

- Students will hear a set of recordings on the listening input or listen to a reading of the listening input;
- Each of the recordings will be played twice. Students will have to answer a set of questions on the listening input;
- Students may fill in worksheets to answer the different questions (multiple choice, true/false, filling in the blanks, close-ended or open-ended questions....)

It is noteworthy that the listening test may require a period of 30-35 minutes and that at the end of the test, the answer sheets should be collected and marked according to a marking key.

## 2. Assessing Reading :

Assessing reading enables teachers to identify learners' skills and difficulties, and so to monitor their progress. Reading tasks may vary according to the age and level of learners. The tasks have to target different reading texts and different reading sub-skills in gradual difficulty. It is also important to start with reading passages that best approximate learners' level.

More precisely, the focus of the reading tests may be on

*Accuracy*(reading aloud a short passage or isolated words clearly)

*Fluency* (reading a passage aloud for a short period of time)

*Reading comprehension*(answering factual questions through skimming and scanning, or inferential questions to find implied information)

*Linguistic knowledge*(identifying words or recognizing the type of text or discourse)

Standardized reading assessment task types include the following examples: Gap-filling, Text segment ordering, Identifying ideas in paragraphs, Multiple-choice, Sentence completion, Matching pairs, Classification into groups, Dichotomous items (True / False / Not Mentioned), Editing, Short/ long answer, Summary, Information transfer (graphs, tables, flow charts, outlines, maps), Skimming, Scanning.

**LESSON 8 :**

**ASSESSING PRODUCTIVE SKILLS**

**LESSON 8 : ASSESSING PRODUCTIVE SKILLS****1. Assessing Speaking**

The following guidelines have to be taken into consideration:

- The speaking test can be designed for individual learners or pairs, groups or whole class
- The physical conditions should be adequate (quiet rooms and good acoustics)
- The psychological conditions should be respected too: learners should be encouraged to speak in a relaxed and reassuring atmosphere.
- The assessor should vary the types of questions to make learners produce different types of answers.
- The assessor has to use of an assessment grid (rubric) which indicates different levels of students' skills. There exist many types of assessment grids according to the type of test and level of learners. One sample of speaking assessment grid includes the following items:

***Pronunciation***(clarity, intonation, speed)

***Fluency and coherence*** (being comfortable, finding words easily without long pauses or gaps)

***Lexical resource***(vocabulary comprehension and production)

***Grammar and accuracy***(correct use of grammar, word order, ...)

***Interaction*** (understanding and answering questions appropriately, leading conversation)

***Creative use of language*** (creative ideas and thoughtful choice of words and examples)

There are different types of activities to assess speaking skills:

***Intensive Speaking*** (reading aloud a text/ a table, completing a dialogue)

***Responsive Speaking*** (answering questions, giving instructions, paraphrasing)

***Interactive Speaking*** (interview, role play, discussions and conversations, games)

***Extensive Speaking*** (oral presentations, picture-cued storytelling, re-telling a story/news event)

## 2. **Assessing Writing**

The teacher should administer different types of writing tasks in order to assess micro and macro skills. One should note that using a correction grid helps both teacher and learners to identify their weaknesses and needs. A possible paragraph assessment grid may include the following items:

***Format*** (title, indentation)

***Mechanics*** (punctuation, capitals, spelling)

***Content*** (relevant, interesting)

***Organization*** (topic sentence, supporting sentences, concluding sentence)

***Grammar and sentence accuracy*** (correct use of tenses, correct and balanced sentences)

Therefore, it is advisable that the teacher familiarizes learners with the assessment grids/scales during formative assessment tasks. Also, depending on the age and level of learners, the teacher devises assessment tasks that target different types of writing performance:

***Imitativewriting*** concerns writing letters, words, punctuation, and very brief sentences.

***Intensivewriting*** is about producing appropriate vocabulary and correct grammatical features.

***Responsive writing*** refers to writing sentences or paragraphs with focus on context and meaning.

***Extensivewriting*** is about writing essays, research projects, or a thesis. This type includes paraphrasing, guided answers, paragraph construction tasks, developing main and supporting ideas across paragraphs

In order to grade students' writings, teachers can use a scoring rubric that targets both form and content items. The following is an example:

### A Scoring Rubric for Tests (*Adapted from Oshima and Hogue, 2007, p. 196*)

#### Example: The paragraph

	Maximum score	Actual score
Format	5	.....
Punctuation and mechanics	5	.....
Content	20	.....
Organization	35	.....
Grammar and sentence structure	35	.....
Total	100	.....

Teachers should also train learners into self-assessment using appropriate grids.

The following is an example: (<https://www.readingrockets.org/article/simple-ways-assess-writing-skills-students-learning-disabilities> )

#### Using a five-step conceptual model for student and teacher observation of the writing process

MyComments			TeacherComments
<b>Plan</b>			
I chose a good topic	Yes	No	
I read about my topic	Yes	No	
I thought about what the readers will want to know	Yes	No	
I wrote down all my ideas on a "think sheet"	Yes	No	
<b>Organize</b>			
I put similar ideas together	Yes	No	
I chose the best ideas for my composition	Yes	No	

I numbered my ideas in logical order	Yes	No	
<b>Write</b>			
I wrote down my ideas in sentences	Yes	No	
When I needed help I... _____did the best I could _____looked in a book _____asked my partner _____asked the teacher			
<b>Edit</b>			
I read my first draft to myself	Yes	No	
I marked the parts I like	Yes	No	
I marked the parts I might want to change	Yes	No	
I read my first draft to my partner	Yes	No	
I listened to my partner's suggestions	Yes	No	
<b>Rewrite</b>			
I made changes to my composition	Yes	No	
I edited for correctness	Yes	No	
I wrote the final draft in my best writing	Yes	No	

**SUGGESTED TASKS WITH ANSWERS**

## SUGGESTED TASKS WITH ANSWERS

**TASK 1:** *One of the main criticisms against the direct method is that it failed to consider classroom realities. Discuss*

### **ANSWER**

The direct method is that it failed to consider classroom realities because mainly of the numerous differences between first and second language learning; among these differences:

1. **age:** child (his first language) vs. adolescent (his second or even third language\_ the factor of brain plasticity)
2. **time:** unlimited time of exposure for first language vs. 3 hours a week for second language learning.
3. **kind of exposure:** rich and authentic in the first vs. poor and not authentic at all in the second,
4. **motivation:** a child learns the he finds in his immediate environment while an adolescent is not equally motivated to learn a foreign language as it is imposed in the school curriculum.
5. **needs:** a child needs to learn the first language in order to communicate with his surrounding whereas an adolescent does not perceive the necessity of learning a foreign language which does not exist out of the school setting; in addition, all his communicative needs are expressed in L1.
6. **formality:** L1 takes place at home with family members while the second or foreign language is taught at school with the possible anxiety of formal evaluation

**TASK 2:** *The Grammar-Translation Method and the Audiolingual Method had different principles, and they failed for different reasons. Explain.*

**ANSWER*****Differences between GTM and ALM:***

- GTM derived from no approach while ALM derived from the Structuralist-Behaviourist approach.
- GTM focuses on developing written skills while ALM focuses on oral skills.
- GTM makes use of the mother tongue by the teacher and students while ALM forbids its use.
- In GTM, the purpose of language learning is to be able to read its literature while in ALM, the purpose is to understand and speak the target language correctly (listening and speaking proficiency)

***Causes of failure :***

- GTM develops written skills at the expense of oral skills/ learning the target language is a means to learn literature and fine arts, highly teacher-centred; the teacher showed no creativity; passive learners
- ALM's drilling limits students' creativity/ the Structuralist and Behaviourist views of language and language learning on which ALM is built were largely criticized in research studies; inability of ensuring the same learning conditions as those provided for officer or spies (adequate teaching materials and equipment, a rich/ intensive exposure to the target language, highly motivated 'adult' learners)

**TASK3: Compare and contrast between the GTM, ALM, and C.A in terms of teacher and learner roles and in terms of the importance given to the four skills.**

**ANSWER*****Similarities:***

- The three methods suggested strategies and techniques for teaching foreign languages.
- GTM and ALM were similar in that errors are forbidden, teachers are authority, and focus on memorisation

- ALM and CA are similar in the development of fluency (oral skills) and on interaction (using everyday life language)

***Differences:***

- The teacher is authority in ALM and GTM while in CA a guide, facilitator, and counsellor.
- Learners are passive in GTM, reactive in ALM, and active in CA.
- In terms of skills, in GTM, reading and writing are of primary importance, in ALM, listening and speaking are more important, while in CA, the four skills are given equal importance.

**TASK4:***The weaknesses of the different teaching approaches and methods led to the emergence of Post-method pedagogy. Explain and illustrate.*

**ANSWER**

Many methods were adopted, but no one was fully satisfying for all teachers and learners as every method had weaknesses. These are a few weaknesses of the different methods:

GTM :neglecting oral skills, teacher-centredness, and passiveness of learners

ALM: repetition (prevalence of behaviourism)

DM: banishing L1

CA: weak evaluation practices

*Eclecticism* was suggested to remedy the problem. It consisted in selecting and combining best strategies from different methods. However, it was randomly applied, and so it was rejected.

*Post-method pedagogy* is based on teacher's prior knowledge and potential. This pedagogy marked a shift from method to teacher. The teacher is then seen as a needs analyst and decision-maker. Therefore, teacher- training has become crucial.

**TASK 5:***What would achieve a more successful language instruction: individual or pair- and group- work? Say why, making reference to the concepts of learner autonomy and collaborative learning.*

**ANSWER**

*Individual work:* It encourages self-reliance, learner autonomy, discovering individual weaknesses and needs by teacher and learners themselves. However, it may be anxiety-raising because of learners' self-consciousness. In addition, weak learners may just give up when the given task is too difficult.

*Pair- and group-work:* sharing responsibility and so less anxiety, exchanging ideas and learning strategies, cooperative work and mutual help and respect, reducing dependency on the teacher. However, the teacher may not evaluate individual capacities or diagnose individual weaknesses and needs. Work may be done just by one learner and so other learners become passive.

*Solution:* the teacher should vary between both types of instruction, depending on the type of task or activity and on learning objectives. The aim is to ensure a varied and rich instruction.

***TASK6: The procedure of preparing a lesson plan and defining objectives is essential for a successful classroom management and interaction; however, it is not accepted by all educationalists. Discuss.***

**ANSWER**

- Explaining briefly lesson planning and the definition of objectives.
- Explaining the importance of lesson planning and the definition of objectives for successful classroom interaction and management, selection of materials and media, facilitating assessment and evaluation.
- Explaining the opposing point of view which considers both concepts as limiting the scope of teaching and learning
- Come to a conclusion that the teacher should be a needs analyst, flexible imaginative, and ready to adapt lesson plans and objectives according to learners' needs, abilities, and preferences.

## **OTHER SUGGESTED TASKS**

### OTHER SUGGESTED TASKS

- 1) Match each teaching approach with its corresponding principles. (Write beside each approach the letters corresponding to your chosen answers)

1/ The GTM.....

2/ The Direct Method.....

3/ The Communicative Approach.....

4/ CBA.....

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <p><b>a-</b> errors are part of the learning process</p> <p><b>b-</b> inductive teaching of grammar</p> <p><b>c-</b> the four skills are given equal importance</p> <p><b>d-</b> deductive teaching of grammar</p> <p><b>e-</b> favours problem-solving</p> <p><b>f-</b> supremacy of writing</p> | <p><b>g-</b> teacher-centred</p> <p><b>h-</b> task-based</p> <p><b>i-</b> learner-centred</p> <p><b>j-</b> emphasis on accuracy</p> <p><b>k-</b> refrains from using L1</p> <p><b>l-</b> meaning is paramount</p> |
|---|---|

- 2) Compare and contrast the Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method, and the Competency Based Approach, concerning teacher and learner roles.
- 3) Explain the importance of the pre-, while-, and post-stages in the teaching of EFL language Skills. Illustrate with reference to one receptive skill and one productive skill of your choice.
- 4) What are the features of a good instruction in speaking?
- 5) What are the implications of the three main approaches to grammar teaching on both teachers and learners?
- 6) Effective EFL vocabulary learning relies on three important steps. Explain and illustrate briefly.
- 7) Suggest a few solutions for learners to overcome their difficulties in reading.
- 8) What are learners' difficulties in writing micro and macro skills?
- 9) Suggest classroom interactional activities to develop learners' competence in speaking.
- 10) Testing, assessment, and evaluation are different though interrelated concepts. Explain.

**FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTED ANSWERS**

## **FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTED ANSWERS**

### **1) What is the difference between didactics and pedagogy?**

Didactics is the theory and practice of teaching and learning. Pedagogy refers to teaching, learning, curriculum, content, and educational goals

### **2) What is the difference between strategies, methods, and process?**

Method is a plan, strategies are techniques, and process is a number of organised steps

### **3) What are the most important characteristics of a teacher?**

Qualities of a good teacher: competence in the subject-matter, knowledge and consideration of learners' differences and needs, creativity, diversity of teaching methods, facilitating learning, training learners to become autonomous.

### **4) Should future teachers study the field of psychology to become great teachers?**

Yes, they should. This is why most universities include educational psychology or psychopedagogy in their programmes

### **5) How can learners acquire and develop the necessary qualities of learners?**

To be active, autonomous, creative, problem solver, culturally tolerant, learn the use of ICTs

### **6) Concerning the assessment, how can it be different from testing and evaluation in (ongoing or summative way)?**

Testing is one form of assessment. Assessment aims at checking understanding and progress. Evaluation judges not only learners' progress but also efficiency of teaching methods, textbooks, syllabus, in order to devise appropriate solutions.

**7)What is considered to be the most effective method concerning the teaching and learning experience a "Teacher-centered" or a "Learner-centered" one? and Why?**

Teacher centredness has long prevailed in the teaching/learning field. It has been found to lead to unsatisfactory results. Therefore, learner-centredness is rather favoured in modern approaches to language teaching. However, in some contexts, teacher-centredness is favoured/chosen; eg lecturing at university level.

**8)What should be taught and learned?To what purpose or intention should something be taught and learned?**

What should be taught: Knowledge, skills, values, cultural principles.

Why: To improve learners' level and pass on knowledge and cultural principles to following generations; to prepare future citizens

**9) What are the differences among modern methods of teaching and traditional methods of teaching?**

The traditional and the modern methods differed in terms of approach to language teaching and learning, teaching principles and techniques, teacher and learner roles, evaluation norms...

**10)In which way do techniques, methods, and approaches differ?**

An approach refers to philosophical principles determining the general guidelines to teaching and learning, a method is a prescribed plan to put the approach into practice, a technique is the concrete application of the method in the classroom in the form of teaching steps and learning tasks.

