PRFU (H02L01UN280120230001)

Handouts in

Didactics of English

For First Year Doctorate

semester One

Classroom Practice

Specialty: Didactics

By

Dr. Bouazid Tayeb

2022-2023

Foreword

This is the handout that doctorate first year students aspire to see. It embraces five chapters related to the most important elements in didactics-

1.Didactics and Language Teaching

2.Second Language Acquisition

3.Language Teaching Methods

4.Curriculum Design

5.Language Assessment

The five chapters are theoretically treated followed by a series of activities and exercises. The aim behind is to equip learners with the crucial elements that help them delve deep into the teaching realm. The activities catered will offer a wide chance to learners to practice individually and in pairs. The first two chapters tend to give a more theoretical view about the domain of teaching. However, the last three chapters are designed to offer a chance for learners to self-study, self-research and self-discovery. Students are supposed to design their own lessons, select their proper methods, devise their units and lesson plans and evaluate their students' work .

Wish you the best

Dr Tayeb Bouazid

Aim of the course

The Aims of the module are:

1. To develop a deep and advanced understanding of the theoretical foundations and practical applications of didactics and teaching methodologies in the context of English language education.

2. To foster the ability to critically analyze and evaluate various approaches, methods, and materials used in English language teaching, considering their effectiveness, cultural relevance, and alignment with contemporary educational trends.

3. To equip students with advanced research skills, enabling them to explore and contribute to the existing body of knowledge in the field of English language teaching, pedagogy, and curriculum development.

4. To encourage the development of innovative teaching practices, strategies, and techniques that cater to diverse learners' needs and leverage emerging technologies for effective language instruction.

5. To cultivate a habit of reflective teaching, where students can thoughtfully analyze their teaching practices, identify areas for improvement, and implement adjustments based on research and pedagogical theories.

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

1. Demonstrate Theoretical Proficiency:

2. Analyze and explain key theories and models of language acquisition and learning in relation to teaching English.

3. Describe the role of sociocultural, cognitive, and linguistic factors in language learning.

4. Evaluate Teaching Approaches and Materials:

5. Critically assess various teaching approaches (e.g., communicative, task-based, content-based) and evaluate their suitability for different learner contexts.

6. Analyze and critique language teaching materials, textbooks, and resources based on language learning theories.

7. Conduct Educational Research:

8. Formulate research questions related to English language teaching, didactics, and pedagogy.

9. Design and conduct small-scale research projects, employing appropriate research methods and data analysis techniques.

10. Design Effective Curriculum and Assessments:

11. Design learner-centered curricula that align with educational standards and address diverse learners' needs.

12. Develop a range of formative and summative assessment strategies that measure language proficiency and learning outcomes.

13. Integrate Technology and Multimodal Resources:

14. Integrate technology tools and digital resources to enhance language learning experiences.

15. Evaluate the benefits and challenges of incorporating multimedia, online platforms, and digital tools into language instruction.

16. Promote Inclusive Teaching:

17. Develop strategies to create an inclusive and culturally sensitive learning environment for English language learners from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

18. Address challenges related to language diversity and adapt teaching methods accordingly.

19. Engage in Reflective Practice:

20. Reflect on their own teaching practices through regular self-assessment and peer feedback.

21. Adjust teaching strategies based on reflection and evidence from educational research.

22. Synthesize and present their insights, findings, and innovations in English language teaching through academic writing, presentations, and discussions.

Time Allocation :   2hrs per week

      14 weeks in the semester

Materials Needed: Videos   PPT   Handouts----

Acknowledgements

The author of this booklet acknowledges having completed this work with the cooperation of Doctorate students who contributed in thriving the contents through their constant work in the activities assigned and in their oral participation through the lessons delivered.

My deepest acknowledgements go to all the teachers of English at Mohamed Boudiaf Msila University for their constant hard work, perseverance and support

Great Thanks for all their deeds.

The author

Dr. Bouazid

Outline

Chapter IV. Curriculum Design..**75**

Chapter One: Didactics and Language Teaching

Introduction

The field of language teaching and learning is constantly evolving, and one important aspect within this domain is the didactics of English teaching and learning. Didactics refers to the science and art of teaching, focusing on the principles, methods, and techniques employed to facilitate effective learning. In the context of English language education, didactics of English teaching and learning involves the study of how English is taught, the strategies used to impart language skills, and the principles guiding effective language learning.

1.Definition of Didactics of English Teaching and Learning:

Didactics refers to the principles, phenomena, forms, precepts, and law of teaching with no subject in particular (Stoker, 1964; in Navarro and Pinero, 2012). The concept of didactics has been defined in varying ways as reported by Harjanne and Tella (2007). According to (Dolch, 1965) didactics is the science and study of teaching and learning. Jank and Meyer (1991) expanded this definition to cover teaching content and methods.

Gundem (1998) defines didactics as a science and a theory of teaching and learning under any circumstances and in any form. All these definitions emphasize the importance of teaching and learning. Lund (2003) teaching subjects are important because through them, knowledge construction is made visible. Uljens (1997) enlarges the definition of didactics. He states that didactics is the science of the teaching-studying-learning process.

The didactics of English teaching and learning encompasses the theories, approaches, and practices related to teaching English as a second or foreign language. It involves understanding the linguistic, cognitive, social, and cultural aspects of language acquisition and developing

pedagogical techniques to facilitate effective English language instruction. This field explores various elements such as curriculum design, instructional materials, teaching methods, assessment strategies, and the role of technology in language learning.

The Didactics of English Teaching and Learning refers to the study and practice of teaching and learning the English language as a second or foreign language. It is a specialized field within the broader discipline of language education and focuses specifically on the methods, strategies, and principles used in the teaching of English to non-native speakers.

2.Principles of Didactics

Comenius (1640) set a series of classical principles among which we may account:

'– Didactics is both art and science.

– Teaching should have as its main aim the learning of everything by everyone.

– Teaching and learning should be characterized by speed and effectiveness, prioritizing the key role that language and images play in each of the two processes.' (Maggioli, nd: 8)

3.Didactics versus Pedagogy

Pedagogy comes from Latin and Greek, in which a pedagogue refers to a servant or a man who guards and supervises a child (Watkins & Mortimore, 1999; in Harjanne & Tella, 2007). The meaning of the concept of pedagogy has changed over the times. Kroksmark (1995) sees that the concept of pedagogy is significantly very similar to the concept of teaching, and therefore not far from the concept of didactics. Pedagogy is concerned with teaching young learners. However, Andragogy is related to teaching Adults. "Andragogy is the theory and practice of

education of adults. It arose from the practice to pedagogy to address the specific needs in the education of children." (Hodgson, 2017: 204)

4.Importance of Didactics of English Teaching and Learning:

4.1.Enhancing Language Proficiency:

Since English is the primary language of instruction and communication, and has become a Lingua Franca in all aspects of life, one must demonstrate an adequate level of proficiency in English, regardless the kind of citizenship status or country of origin he/she belongs to. This language requirement ensures that all students will have the opportunity for success in their chosen program.

4.2.Definition of Language Proficiency

The 2013 third edition of English Proficiency Index, reports that 60 countries and territories around the world claim:

> "Today, English proficiency can hardly be thought of as an economic advantage at all. It is certainly no longer a marker of the elite. Instead, it is increasingly becoming a basic skill needed for the entire workforce, in the same way, that literacy has been transformed in the last two centuries from an elite privilege into a basic requirement for informed citizenship."

Rao (2016) emphasized in her study that proficiency equates with fluency, but there is a distinction between both of them. Proficiency is regarded as a continuum (James, 1985, p.2.) which means proficiency can be considered as a scale of related skills of language slightly and continuously changing at each level.

For the use of language "function, context/content, and accuracy" are accepted as the three criteria. The function represents the individuals' ability to complete a task linguistically, like asking questions, or describing; context/content refers to the setting of the functions; and accuracy means the level of correctness of an individual's language use and each factor extends in breadth as the level of proficiency increases (Bragger, 1985, p. 80).

According to O'Sullivan (2012), it is difficult to define the limits of the language that is used in a context, although identification of the specific aspects of language use, like vocabulary or syntax, can be described in a given context to attain information about the needs analysis of the language use given in a specific context (O'Sullivan, 2006).

The didactics of English teaching and learning plays a crucial role in enhancing language proficiency among learners. By employing effective teaching methods and instructional techniques, educators can help students develop their listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in English. Learning about how to write Poetry can be a creative way of exposing English language learners to quality literature. Students can use these short, fun, non-threatening pieces of text to begin to learn how to apply reading strategies to increase their comprehension (Norris, 2011). Because it is so accessible to students, it is a genre that can easily be used to help students begin to increase their awareness of reading comprehension strategies (Hadaway, Vardell, & Young, 2001)

4.3.Promoting Communicative Competence:

4.3.1.Meaning of Competency:

Many educators and academics have defined competency as follows:

4

David McClelland (1993) [2], American scholar has said that competency is a personality hidden within a person that can drive that person to be responsible and have excellent performance to meet the specified standard. The competency in McClelland's perspective consists of five components:

1) Skills are something a person can do well along with regular practice until he becomes skillful such as a dentist who has the skill to fill a tooth without any pain at all.

2) Knowledge is the knowledge that each person possesses, which is specific to each individual.

3) Self-Concept in values and attitudes related to the image of a person or what a person believes that it is his unique such as a confident person having the belief that he or she can solve problems by himself or herself (Self-Confidence).

4) Trait is the thing that describes a person who may be a leader or a reliable and trustworthy person and so on.

5) Motive is a drive making a person act or lead himself to a goal such as a person aiming to succeed in his life (having Achievement Orientation); implying that he likes to set his goals and makes it successful including always trying to improve his working methods.

Scott (1988) [1] has stated that competency is a kind of knowledge, skills and attributes related to each other, affecting a job where they play the role in

4.3.2.Definition of Communicative Competence

Thitiya (2017) [19] has talked about English communicative competence that it is the students' ability regarding knowledge, skills and attributes when they use English for

communication, which is composed of speaking, listening, reading and writing skills, and the ability to use the language in all 4 areas in the communication: 1) Sociolinguistics competence 2) Grammatical competence 3) Strategic competence and 4) Discourse competence which are the students' skills to communicate and interact with others in the context or content that teachers have planned with the emphasis on thought processing and initiatives in order for students to be able to put the activities into practice and state a conversation, which is successful in accordance with the objectives where the students can survey themselves and reflect diverse forms of language practice with the values, beliefs and behaviors.

Kohn (2009) [8] has claimed that competence in English communication highlights the ability to use the language for communication and cultural exchange to communicate with others by using their native mother tongue. Byram (2012) [11] has given a definition of English communicative competence in relation to 21 st century education management as thinking, creating activities or language projects, supporting and empowering the learners to choose appropriate approach to improve the social worlds to keep up with the world in 21 st century.

4.3.3.Elements of Communicative Competence Hybrid Learning

Canale & Swain (1980) [9] have distinguished 4 components of communicative ability:

1) Grammatical competence: The mastery of the linguistic code (verbal or non-verbal) which includes vocabulary knowledge as well as knowledge of morphological, syntactic, semantic, phonetic and orthographic rules. This competence enables the speaker to use knowledge and skills needed for understanding and expressing the literal meaning of utterances.

2) Sociolinguistic competence: The knowledge of rules and conventions which underlie the appropriate comprehension and language use in different sociolinguistic and sociocultural contexts.

3) Discourse competence: The mastery of rules that determine ways in which forms and meanings are combined to achieve a meaningful unity of spoken or written texts.

4) Strategic competence: It is composed of knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that are recalled to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence in one or more components of communicative competence.

Communicative competence refers to the ability to use language appropriately and effectively in different contexts. Didactics of English teaching and learning emphasizes the development of communicative competence, enabling learners to express themselves fluently, understand others, and engage in meaningful communication.

Carman (2005) [7] has said that Hybrid Learning is the integration of online learning through a network and traditional classroom, learning face-to-face on site, both of which use facilities such as the internet as medium and other tools in the teaching surrounding to promote the lessons. The teachers focus on interactions from online teaching and participation in traditional teaching to develop challenging learning and respond to the individual needs of the learners to improve themselves for better competence.

Saliba, Rankine, and Cortez (2013) [4] has stated that Hybrid Learning is a systematic approach to teaching strategies or methods that combines time and teaching methods together, and it is also an integration between on-site classroom, online interaction and the use of technological information applied in the class.

Yaso (2017) [13] has discussed that Hybrid Learning is an educational innovation merging multiple learning modules together, such as using an online self-learning system or e-learning which emphasizes interaction and the ability to meet the objectives for the increasing potential in students and effective teaching methods.

4.3.4.Facilitating Language Acquisition:

4.3.4.1.Definition of Language Acquisition

Language acquisition is based on the neuro-psychological processes (Maslo, 2007: 41). Language acquisition is opposed to learning and is a subconscious process similar to that by which children acquire their first language (Kramina, 2000: 27). Hence, language acquisition is an integral part of the unity of all language (Robbins, 2007: 49).

Language acquisition is a complex process that involves exposure to comprehensible input, interaction, and practice. Didactics provides educators with the necessary tools and strategies to create language-rich environments, design communicative activities, and provide meaningful language input, thereby facilitating language acquisition **among learners.** Language acquisition is a complicated process, because it involves a wide range of social, psychological, cognitive, linguistic, physiological factors.

According to Chomsky (1965), he claimed the existence of innate properties of language to explain the child's mastery of a native language. Chomsky believed that people have inner knowledge about language learning. More recently, constructivism brings a new school of thought in language learning. Vygotsky (1978) proposed a new theory called ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development) which means that it is a distance between a child's actual cognitive capacity and the level of potential development

4.3.4.2.Definition of Language Learning

Language learning is a conscious process, is the product of either formal learning situation or a self-study programme (Kramina, 2000: 27). Hence, language learning is an integral part of the unity of all language (Robbins, 2007: 49).

4.3.5.Defining and Adapting to Diverse Learner's Needs:

Every learner is unique, with different learning styles, backgrounds, and abilities. The didactics of English teaching and learning acknowledges the importance of catering to diverse learner needs. It offers insights into differentiated instruction, instructional adaptations, and inclusive practices to ensure that all learners can engage with the language effectively. Nation and Macalister (2010)stated that needs analysis illustrates the obtained knowledge and what should be taught. The purpose of conducting needs analysis is to identify a learner's needs evidently and design an appropriate lesson plan accordingly

4.3.6.Embracing Technological Advancements:

Technology has significantly influenced language teaching and learning. The didactics of English teaching and learning explores the integration of technology tools, such as multimedia resources, online platforms, and language learning apps, to enhance engagement, provide authentic language input, and promote autonomous learning.

Conclusion:

In conclusion, the didactics of English teaching and learning provides educators with a theoretical foundation and practical guidelines to create effective learning environments, design meaningful language instruction, and facilitate language acquisition among learners. By

understanding and applying the principles of didactics, language teachers can contribute to the development of proficient English speakers who are equipped with the necessary skills to communicate confidently in a globalized world.

Practice: Activities Questions for self-study

Activity One: Questions for self-study

1. Match the following terms to their definitions:

1. target language   **a. has no immediate or necessary practical application, might be used later for travel or be required for school**

2. second language   **b. the aim or goal of language learning**

3. first language   **c. an officially or societally dominant language (not speakers' L1) needed for education, employment or other basic**

4. foreign language   **d. acquired during childhood**

2. The underlying knowledge of language is called _____.

3. Actual production of language is called _____.

Active learning

Activity Two:

1. List all of the languages that you can use. First classify them as L1(s) and L2(s), and then further classify the L2(s) as "second," "foreign," "library, ""auxiliary," or "for specific purposes." Finally, distinguish between the ways you learned each of the languages: through informal exposure, formal instruction, or some combination of these.

2. Do you think that you are (or would be) a "good" or a "poor" L2 learner? Why do you think so? Consider whether you believe that your own relative level of success as a language learner is due

primarily to linguistic, psychological, or social factors (social may include type of instruction, contexts of learning, or attitudes toward the L1 and L2).

3. Do you know people who don't feel like native speakers of their first language acquired? Or people who feel like native speakers of a language acquired later in life? What do you attribute this feeling to?

Adapted from: http://www.cambridge.org/cill   © Muriel Saville-Troike 2006

Activity Three: Concept Mapping

Here is a list of key concepts related to didactics and language teaching, such as

 "learner-centered approach," "communicative competence," "scaffolding," "authentic materials," etc. Read them then try to create concept maps that show the relationships between these concepts and how they interconnect.

Activity Four: Peer Teaching Observation:

Form two groups then Work in pairs .Take turns in teaching a short language lesson to the rest of the class. After each presentation, trigger a discussion where you as students try to provide feedback on the teaching methods used, their effectiveness, and how they align with didactic principles.

Activity Five: Designing a Lesson Plan:

Work individually and try to design a detailed lesson plan for teaching a specific language skill or grammar point in the form of a mini-lesson demonstration of 15 to 20 mns duration. In your plans, they should incorporate various didactic

strategies, such as setting clear objectives, selecting appropriate materials, incorporating interactive activities, and considering learners' needs.

Activity Six: Video Analysis:

After watching videos of language teaching sessions delivered by teachers or classroom interactions of students/ Teachers, try to critically analyze the videos, identifying instances where effective didactic strategies were employed and suggesting improvements where necessary.

Activity Seven: Debate:

1. Sit into two different groups with two opposing viewpoints related to language teaching methods, such as traditional vs. communicative approaches. Prepare arguments and counterarguments to hold a debate where you can articulate your positions and engage in constructive discourse.

Activity Eight: Reflection Journals:

2. Throughout the course, try to maintain reflection journals where you write about your experiences, observations, and thoughts on various didactic strategies you encounter.

References

B. P. Scott, "Evaluation the impact of Training Alexandria", VA: American Society for training and Development, 1998.

Bragger, J.D. (1985). Materials development for the proficiency-oriented classroom. C.J. James (Ed.), Foreign language proficiency in the classroom and beyond (79-116). Lincolnwood: National Textbook Company. https://www.jstor.org/stable/1476842. Accessed 20 December 2019.

Byram, M. (1997). Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence. Multilingual Matters.

D.C. McClelland, "Introduction. In: Spencer, L.M. and Spencer, S.M., Eds., Competence at Work: Models for Superior Performance", John Wiley and Sons, New York, 11, 1993.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior. Plenum Press.

G. Saliba, L. Rankine, and H. Cortez, "Learning and teaching unit 2013: Fundamentals of Hybrid Learning", Retrieved 2021, May 17, from https://www.westernsydney. edu.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0004/467095/Fundamentals_of_Blended_Learning.pdf/, 2013.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation. Edward Arnold.

Hadaway, N.L., Vardell, S.M., & Young, T. A. (2001). Scaffolding oral language development through poetry   for students learning English. The Reading Teacher, 54(8), 796-806. https://www.jstor.org/stable/20204994. Accessed 19 February 2022.

Harjanne, Pand Tella, S. (2007). Foreign Language Didactics, Foreign Language Teaching and TransdisciplinaryAffordances.http://www.researchgate.net/publication/274952557

Hodgson, C.(2017). Educational Psychology: Theory and Practice. New York Library Press.

J.M. Carman, "Blended Learning Design: Five Keys Ingredients", Retrieved 2021, May 17, from http://blended2010.pbworks.com/f/Carman.pdf/, 2005.

James, C. J. (1985). Learning from proficiency: the unifying principle. In C.J. James (Ed.), Foreign language   proficiency in the classroom and beyond (pp.1-8). Lincolnwood: National Textbook Company.

K. Kohn, "Computer assisted foreign language learning In K. Knapp & B. Seidlhofer (eds.)", Handbooks of Applied Linguistics: Vol. 6. Foreign Language Communication and Learning. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, 2009.

Kramiņa, I. (2000) Lingo – Didactic Theories Underlying Multi – Purpose Language Acquisition. University of Latvia

M. Canale, & M. Swain, "Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing". Applied Linguistics, vol.1, pp.1-47, 1980.

M. Yaso, "21st Century Learning". Retrieved 2021, May 15, from http://www.gotoknow .org/posts/542974/, 2017.

Maggioly, G.D (nd) Introducing Didactics. Self-Access Booklets. Uruguay. Programa de Politicas Linguisticas

Maslo, E. (2007) Transformative Learning Space for Life-Long Foreign Languages Learning. International Nordic-Baltic Region Conference of FIPLV Innovations in Language Teaching and Learning in the Multicultural Context 15- 16th June, 2007, Riga, Latvia.

Nation, I.S.P. and Macalister, J. (2010). Language Curriculum Design. Rout ledge: New York

Norris, J.M. (2011). Using poetry to teach reading comprehension strategies to English language learners. School of Education and Leadership Student Capstone Theses and Dissertations. 451. https://digitalcommons.hamline.edu/hse_all/451

O'Sullivan, B. (2012). Assessment issues in languages for specific purposes. Modern Language Journal, 96(11), 71-88. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2012.01298.x

O'Sullivan, B. (Ed.) (2006) Issues in Testing Business English: the revision of the Cambridge Business English   Certificates (Studies in Language Testing, volume 17), Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Piaget, J. (1954). The construction of reality in the child. Basic Books.

Rao, C.S.V. (2016). A Brief Study of English Language Proficiency: Employability. English for Specific   Purposes World, 17(49),1-9.

Robbins, D. (2007) Vygotsky's and Leontiev's Non-classical Psychology Related to Second Language Acquisition. International Nordic-Baltic Region Conference of FIPLV Innovations in Language Teaching and Learning in the Multicultural Context 15-16th June, 2007, Riga, Latvia

W. A. Almurashi, "The effective use of YouTube videos for teaching English language in classrooms as supplementary material at Taibah University in Alula", International Journal of English Language and Linguistics Research, vol.4, no.3, pp.32-47, 2016.

W. A. Almurashi, "The effective use of YouTube videos for teaching English language in

Chapter Two: Second Language Acquisition

Second Language Acquisition:

2.1.Definition

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is a dynamic and complex process through which individuals learn a language other than their native tongue. Whether acquired through formal instruction, immersion, or a combination of both, the acquisition of a second language has garnered significant interest among linguists, educators, and researchers alike. This phenomenon is characterized by its intricate interplay of cognitive, social, psychological, and environmental factors that shape the development of linguistic competence in a new language.

Gardner (2001) and Dörnyei (2003) mention that learning another language is different from much another learning that takes place in school. Other school subjects such as mathematics, history, and geography are generally all part of the student's local or national culture but "learning another language involves making something foreign a part of one's self" (Gardner, 2001, p.3).

Researchers have delved into various aspects of SLA, seeking to understand the mechanisms underlying this process and the factors that influence its success. As such, SLA has been a subject of extensive investigation across disciplines such as linguistics, psychology, education, and sociology. Insights from these fields contribute to our understanding of how individuals navigate the challenges and opportunities presented by SLA.

2.2. Theories of Second Language Acquisition:

Larsen-Freeman and Long [1] state that "at least forty' of SLA have been proposed" (p. 227) and it is my contention that none of these attempts to explain SLA present a thorough explanation for the phenomenon. Like any other type of learning, language learning is not a linear process, and therefore cannot be deemed as predictable as many models of SLA have hypothesized it to be. Countless theories have been developed to explain SLA, but most such theories focus merely on the acquisition of syntactic structures and ignore other important aspects

a) Behaviorist Theory

This theory suggests that language learning occurs through a process of habit formation, reinforcement, and conditioning. According to behaviorists, learners acquire language by imitating and repeating correct models, and they receive positive reinforcement when their language use is reinforced. Skinner's version of behaviorism continues to exert a significant influence on psychology and the culture at large. Reviewers who have conducted quantitative (Wyatt, Hawkins,& Davis, 1986) and qualitative assessments (Leahey, 1987) agree that Skinner's psychology is alive and well.

According to the Behaviorist Theory, Skinner (1985) equated learning a language to verbal behavior. Therefore, he believes that language acquisition like any other behavior can be observed, rather than trying to explain the mental systems underlying these types of behaviors. To him, children are born with a blank state of mind or tabula rasa. Children acquire L1 through stimuli given to them and the responses of children are conditioned through reinforcement. A positive response will be conditioned through positive reinforcement like reward or praise and vice versa for a negative response which is conditioned with punishment

b) **Innatist Theory (Chomsky, 1959):**

This theory posits that humans have an innate language acquisition device (LAD) that allows them to acquire language naturally. It emphasizes the role of universal grammar and internal language structures in language acquisition. Chomsky (1959) believed that children are equipped with an innate template or blueprint for language, which is called the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which accounts for the swift mastery of language among children despite the extremely abstract nature of language. It is believed that children do not start from scratch when it comes to language learning as they can acquire complex grammar quickly and without any particular help beyond the exposure to L1.

c) **Cognitive Theory (Piaget, 1954):**

Cognitive theorists argue that language development is closely intertwined with cognitive development. They emphasize the role of cognitive processes such as attention, memory, and problem-solving in language acquisition. Jean Piaget (1986-1980) spent around five decades determining the cognitive development of children (Passer & Smith, 2009). During his studies, he attempted to obtain the answer to some key questions such as: "Why does a child talk, and who is she talking to?" and "Why does she ask so many questions?" "Why children in the same age commit the same error?" (Passer & Smith, 2009; Butler-Bowdon, 2007).

Piaget applied structured observation (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister, &Zechmeister, 2012). During the observations, he wrote down everything about the participant's actions (Butler-Bowdon, 2007). After many years of hard work, he finally publicised his ideas and proposed four global cognitive developmental stages for children, including sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational, formal operational stage (Bernstein, Clarke-stewart, & Roy, 2008; Martin,

Carlson, & Buskist, 2010).Although Piaget's contributions have had a great influence to progress developmental psychology (Oates &Grayson, 2004), his works have not fully accepted due to several methodological issues (Lourenço & Machado,1996).

d) Sociocultural Theory (Vygotsky, 1978):

This theory emphasizes the importance of social interactions and cultural contexts in language learning. According to Vygotsky, learning is mediated through social interactions, and language development is influenced by the cultural environment. Vygotsky (1978) also supports this view by stating that the conversations that children have with adults and other children are important as these conversations constitute the origins of both language and thought, where thought is essentially internalized speech and speech emerges in social interaction.

The concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86), which is defined as: "the distance between the actual developmental levels as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers". Based on the definition of ZPD, it is clear that Vygotsky (1978) views language acquisition and learning occur from the interactions with other people, especially the more capable others, such as teachers or friends who are more fluent in the language.

As Windschitl (1999) notes, constructivism is based on the belief that learners work to create, interpret, and reorganize knowledge in individual ways: "These fluid intellectual transformations occur when students reconcile formal instructional experiences with their existing knowledge, with the cultural and social contexts in which ideas occur, and with a host of other influences that mediate understanding" (Windschitl, 1999, p. 752).

2.3.The importance of Motivation in Second Language Acquisition:

Ellis (2008) states "no single individual differences factor in language learning has received as much attention as MOTIVATION" (p. 677). Dörnyei (2005) claims that there were almost 100 studies published in 1990s. Masgoret and Gardner (2003) cited 75 independent studies involving more than 10,000 participants. Gardner (1985) identifies motivation as the single most influential factor in learning a new language.

Pulvermuller and Schumann (1994) argue that full knowledge of a language can only be achieved if two conditions are met-the learner is motivated to learn the language, and the learner possesses the ability to acquire grammatical knowledge. In his final comment on motivation, Ellis (2008) considers these two constructs as 'two big' (i.e. language aptitude and motivation) and suggests that they have been confirmed as the main psychological factors contributing to individual differences in learning a second language

2.3.1.Definition of Motivation

Dörnyei (1998) argues on the exact definition of 'motivation'. He comments, "Although 'motivation' is a term frequently used in both educational and research contexts, it is rather surprising how li Motivation in cognitive development theory developed by Piaget is perceived as " a built-in unconscious striving towards more complex and differential development of individual's mental structure (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p.23).

Gardner's (1985) statement about the concept of motivation is related to effort, want, desire, reason of behaviors and the affectivity that associated with learning a second language and has a close link with language learning. That is; motivation in SLA refers to the extent to which the language learner strives to achieve a particular goal (instrumental motivation) or to become

an indistinguishable member of the target community (integrative motivation). Motivation plays a vital role in second language acquisition, as it affects learners' engagement, effort, and perseverance. Various theories highlight the importance of motivation:

2.3.2.Types of Motivation

Self-determination Theory distinguishes two types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic.

a) Intrinsic Motivation

This theory suggests that individuals are intrinsically motivated when they engage in activities for their inherent satisfaction and enjoyment. Intrinsic motivation can foster long-term commitment to language learning. According to Noels et.al. (2000) Intrinsic motivation as a sub-scale of the self-determination theory, is of three kinds: a) intrinsic motivation knowledge (i.e. the pleasure of knowing new things), intrinsic motivation accomplishment (the pleasure of accomplishing goals), and intrinsic motivation stimulation (the pleasure in doing the task). Ehrman, Leaver, and Oxford (2003) state that intrinsically motivated learners find the reward in the enjoyment of learning activity itself and achieve a feeling of competence in doing the task. In other words, intrinsically motivated individuals are mostly internally driven rather than externally driven. Extrinsic

b) Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation refers to external factors such as rewards, grades, or social approval that drive language learning. Gardner's socio-educational model posits that motivation is influenced by factors like integrativeness (desire to integrate into the target language community) and instrumental orientation (desire to achieve practical goals through language learning). Extrinsic

motivation refers to "actions carried out to achieve some instrumental end such as earning reward or avoiding a punishment" (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p.39).

c) Amotivation

Amotivation in the self-determination theory refers to "lack of motivation resulting from realizing that there is no point" (Dörnyei 2001a, p. 143). Deci and Ryan (1985) define amotivation as "the relative absence of motivation that is not caused by a lack of initial interest but rather by the individual's experiencing feelings of incompetence and helplessness when faced with the activity" (cited in Dornyei, 2001a, p. 144). Vallerand (1997) mentions four major types of amotivation. First, amotivation can result from a capacity-ability belief, i.e. an individual may have amotivation because of lack of self-confidence; the second type is strategy beliefs, i.e., amotivation i.e. an individual may think that the undesired outcome may result from strategy misuse. The third type of amotivation, capacity-effort belief, results from this perception that the task is too demanding to do. The fourth type of amotivation, a helplessness belief, result from this perception that effort is inconsequential, and it cannot be of any help.

2.4.Interlanguage and Fossilization: definition of Fossilization

Interlanguage is a language system between the mother language and the target language (WU Ding'e.(2001)

Interlanguage fossilization is caused by many factors, and can come into shape as a result of a small deviation in the foreign language learning process LI XIaolan, XIAO Xi (2012) , WANG Sumin(2013) Interlanguage refers to the intermediate language system that learners develop as they progress towards target language proficiency. It is influenced by learners' first language, their exposure to the target language, and their individual learning strategies. Fossilization occurs when

certain errors or non-target-like features become permanent in a learner's interlanguage, despite extended exposure to the target language.

There are various definitions of fossilization. Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics puts it this way: fossilization (in second or foreign language learning) a process which sometimes occurs in which incorrect linguistic features become a permanent part of the way a person speaks or writes a language.

Larry Selinker, a famous American linguist, was the first to put forward the interlanguage fossilization theory. Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules and subsystems which speakers of a particular native language will tend to keep in their interlanguage relative to a particular target language, no matter what the age of the learner or the amount of explanations he receives in the target language.(Selinker, 1972)

According to the same author, Fossilization can also be classified into temporary fossilization and permanent fossilization, which is of great value in foreign language teaching. As their names show, the former is instable and changeable while the latter has been stabilized. Non-English major learners mostly belong to temporary fossilization, which can be improved when learners accept optimal input. In this paper, we mainly concentrate on this classification.

2.5..The Role and definition of Culture in Second Language Acquisition:

According to Scollon and Scollon, "culture" has two normal uses in English, i.e. high culture and anthropological culture. High culture, as Scollon and Scollon defined, "focuses on intellectual and artistic achievements. "It may refer to the intellectual refinement and artistic endeavor, or the appreciation of music, literature, the art, and so on." (Wang Lifei, 2000:p193).

"When culture is referred to in its anthropological sense, it means that culture is any of the customs, worldview, language, kinship system, social organization, and other taken-for-granted day-to-day practices of a people which set that group apart as a distinctive group." (Scollon & Scollon, 2000:p126).

Culture plays a significant role in language learning and shapes the way learners perceive, interpret, and use the target language. It affects communication patterns, social norms, and cultural conventions. Learners need to develop intercultural competence to navigate cultural differences and communicate effectively in the target language (Byram, 1997).

Activities

1. **Language Learning Timeline/ Table completion**

    Have a look at the timeline of key milestones in the history of SLA theories, such as Behaviorism, Innatism, and Connectionism. Try to read and research to fill the table with data about each important learning theory and theorists, and the concepts, and developments associated with each theory.

2. **Theoretical Debate:**

    Sit in Pairs and think of one SLA SLA theory (e.g., Behaviorism, Cognitive Approach, Sociocultural Theory). Try to prepare a presentation that explains the theory's main principles, how this explains language acquisition, and its implications for teaching. After presentations, hold a class debate on which theory is most valid.

    Language Diary:

     Try to document instances of language learning and use them in your daily lives. Reflect on how your experiences align with different SLA theories and discuss your observations in class.

    Error Analysis Task:

    Sit into two different groups. Each group prepares a set of sentences containing various language errors. Exchange them with your mates and try to identify the errors and then discuss why these errors might occur from the perspective of different SLA theories.

Reading Material: Principles and Characteristics of Second Language Acquisition

Read to reinforce your Knowledge

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers to the process through which individuals learn a new language after acquiring their first language (L1). SLA is influenced by various factors and is marked by several key principles and characteristics.

Principles of SLA: Input Hypothesis: This principle, proposed by Stephen Krashen, states that language learners acquire language most effectively when they are exposed to comprehensible input that is slightly above their current proficiency level.

Affective Filter Hypothesis: Also proposed by Krashen, this theory suggests that learners' emotions, motivation, and self-confidence play a crucial role in language acquisition. Positive affective factors facilitate learning, while negative emotions can create a "filter" that impedes language acquisition.

Monitor Model: This theory, also developed by Krashen, introduces the concept of the "monitor," which represents the conscious language processing system. Learners can use the monitor to self-correct and edit language, but overreliance on it can hinder spontaneous communication.

Characteristics of SLA:

Interlanguage: Learners develop an intermediate linguistic system called "interlanguage" as they progress towards fluency. This system may contain elements from both the target language and the native language.

Fossilization: Some learners reach a plateau in their language development where certain errors become ingrained despite other aspects of their language improving. This is known as fossilization.

Silent Period: Many language learners, particularly children, go through a "silent period" during which they actively listen and absorb the language before actively speaking.

Assets of SLA in Relation to L1:

Transfer: Positive transfer occurs when the knowledge of the first language helps learners understand or produce structures in the second language. Negative transfer (interference) involves the incorrect application of L1 patterns to the second language.

Cognitive Benefits: Bilingual individuals often exhibit enhanced cognitive abilities, such as problem-solving, multitasking, and creativity. This is referred to as the "bilingual advantage."

Metalinguistic Awareness: Learning a second language can lead to increased metalinguistic awareness – the ability to think about and manipulate language structures – which can improve overall language skills.

Matching Activity: Match the Term with Its Definition

- Affective Filter Hypothesis
- Input Hypothesis
- Fossilization
- Interlanguage
- Monitor Model

Definitions:

a. A theory suggesting that emotions and motivation affect language acquisition.

b. The idea that learners acquire language effectively when exposed to understandable input slightly beyond their current level.

29

c. The process where certain errors become ingrained despite progress in other areas of language.

d. An intermediate linguistic system that learners develop as they progress towards fluency.

e. A theory introducing the concept of a "monitor" for conscious language processing.

Questions:

    1. How does the Input Hypothesis explain effective language learning?

    2. What is the role of the "affective filter" in Second Language Acquisition?

    3. Describe the concept of "interlanguage" and its significance.

    4. How does the Monitor Model explain the role of conscious language processing?

List three cognitive benefits associated with learning a second language.

References

Bernstein, D. A., Clarke-stewart, A., & Roy, E. J. (2008). Psychology. USA: Houghton Mifflin

Butler-Bowdon, T. (2007). 50 Psychology Classics. London: Nicholas Breale

Capability of Second Language. Journal of Nanjing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics [J]. 2013.04:66-70

D. Larsen-Freeman and M. H. Long, "An Introduction toSecond Language Acquisition Research," Longman, NewYork, 1991

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientation, and motivation in language learning: advances in theory, research, and application. Language Learning, 53, 3-32.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The Psychology of the Language Learner: Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. Language Teaching, 31(3), 117-135.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001a). Teaching and researching motivation. Harlow, England: Longman.

Ehrman, M., Leaver, B. L., & Oxford, R. L. (2003). A brief overview of individual differences in second language learning. System, 31, 313-330.

Ellis, R. (2008). The Study of second language acquisition. New York: Oxford University Press.English [J]. 2012.02:7-8

Gardner, R. C. (2001). Integrative motivation: Past, present and future. Retrieved January, 2012. from publish.uwo.ca/~gardner/docs.

L. Selinker, "Interlanguage," International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, no. 10, pp. 209-231, 1972.Language Teaching [J]. 2001.02:17-22

Leahey, T. H. (1987). A history of psychology: Main currents in psycho-logical thought (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall

LI XIaolan, XIAO Xi. Causes of Fossilization in the Acquisition of Second Language. Overseas

Lourenço, O., & Machado, A. (1996). In defense of Piaget's theory: A reply to 10 common criticisms

Martin, G. N., Carlson, N. R., & Buskist, W. (2010). Psychology. Great Britain: Pearson

Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. Language Learning, 53,167-210.

Noels, K. A., Pelletier, L. G., Clement, R., & Vallerand, R. J. (2000). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. Language Learning, 50, 57-85.

Oates, J., & Grayson, A. (2004). Cognitive and Language Development in Children. Malden: MA: Blackwell

Oxford, R., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. Modern Language Journal, 78, 12-28.

Pulvermuller, F., & Schumann, J. (1994). Neurobiological mechanisms of language acquisition. Language Learning, 44(681-734).

Shaughnessy, J. J., Zechmeister, E. B., & Zechmeister, J. S. (2012). Research Methods in Psychology. USA:McGraw-Hill.

Vallerand, R. J. (Ed.). (1997). Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. New York: Academic Press.

WANG Sumin. On the Influence of Prominence, Feedback and Attention on the Output

Windschitl, M. (1999). The challenges of sustaining a constructivist classroom culture. Phi Delta Kappan, 80, 751-757.

WU Ding'e. Interlanguage and Its Fossilization in the Acquisition of Second Language. Foreign

Wyatt, W. J., Hawkins, R. P., & Davis, P. (1986). Behaviorism: Are reports of its death exaggerated? The Behavior Analyst, 9, 101-105.

Chapter Three: Language Teaching Methods

Introduction

Language teaching methods play a pivotal role in shaping how languages are effectively imparted to learners. These methods encompass a diverse range of strategies, techniques, and approaches that educators employ to facilitate the acquisition of a new language. Over the years, language teaching methods have evolved in response to advancements in linguistics, cognitive psychology, and pedagogical research. The choice of a particular method often depends on factors such as the goals of language learning, the characteristics of the learners, the context of instruction, and prevailing educational philosophies.

Effective language teaching methods go beyond simple transmission of vocabulary and grammar rules; they strive to create engaging and immersive learning experiences that foster linguistic competence and communicative proficiency. While traditional methods, such as Grammar-Translation and Direct Method, once dominated language classrooms, contemporary approaches like Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), and the use of technology have gained prominence. These modern methods prioritize meaningful communication, real-life language use, and cultural understanding, aligning with the needs of learners in today's interconnected world.

As the field of language teaching continues to evolve, educators often blend different methods to create a balanced and adaptable teaching environment. The understanding that no single approach suits every learner has led to the emergence of a "eclectic" or "integrated" approach, which draws upon the strengths of various methods to cater to the diverse learning styles and goals of students.

In this exploration of language teaching methods, we will delve into the key characteristics, principles, and practical applications of both traditional and contemporary methodologies. By understanding the underlying philosophies and techniques of these methods, educators can make informed decisions that contribute to the enhancement of language learning experiences and outcomes.

1.Grammar-translation method

Brown (2001:18-19) explained , class is taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language. The teacher uses the native language to help student to understand the material given in grammar lessons. According to Larsen (2000) "Translation consists of translating the meaning of the source language to a target language." The Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied *Linguistics, 4(1), 2019 :Grammar Translation Method: Current Practice In EFL Context* position of mother tongue is as same as the first language. Thus, by using grammar translation method teachers apply her or his first language as a media of instruction in teaching. It is related to the statement of Richards et al (2002:4) that "The students' native language is the medium of instruction."

Second is vocabulary, is taught in the form of lists of isolated words. To achieve the kinds of learning targets, vocabulary learning is needed to be learned by students (Thornbury, 2002:32). Without a vocabulary, it is hard to develop teaching approaches or pedagogies that are effective (Moseley, 2005:1).

In consequence, grammar is too important to be ignored because, with grammar, learners' language development will be controlled (Richards et al, 2002:145).

Grammar Translation Method is also becoming a preferable method for EFL to enhance students' competence and performance effectively, especially EFL students' in a basic level (Al Refaai, 2013). Some studies also prefer to combine between Grammar translation method and Communicative approach to improve the students' accuracy and fluency in acquiring their competence and performance in EFL classroom (Chang, 2011; Mondal, 2012).

Austin (2003) in his paper "The Grammar Translation Method of Language Teaching" states

"As a teacher, I liked using the grammar translation method because I could assume the intelligence of my students; I could talk to them like the intelligent people that they are, and we I could talk about the grammar and vocabulary that I was teaching. In another method, I would have had to use simple language and familiar phrases to communicate in the target language, and even then, I could not be sure that my students knew and understood what it was that they were saying."

Brown (1994) attempts to explain why the Grammar Translation Method is still „alive and kicking" in many countries worldwide by stating three main reasons: 1. This method requires few specialized skills on the part of the learner. 2. Grammar rules and translation tests are easy to construct and can be objectively scored. 3. Many standardized tests of foreign languages still do not attempt to test communicative abilities, so students have little motivation to go beyond grammar analogies, translations and other written exercises.

Alexander (1967) draws an analogy between a language learner and a pianist, he notes and concludes that, Learning a language has much in common with learning a musical instrument. The drills and exercises a student does have one end in sight: to enable him to become a skilled performer. A student who has learnt a lot of grammar but who cannot use a language is in the position of a pianist who has learnt a lot about harmony but cannot play the piano. The students command of a language will therefore be judged not by how much he knows but how well he can perform in public. (Alexander, 1967, p. vii)

Practical Activities

The Grammar-Translation Method:

1. What is the primary goal of the Grammar-Translation Method in language instruction?

2. Describe the role of the native language in the Grammar-Translation Method.

3. What is the emphasis on language skills like speaking and listening in this method?

4. How does the Grammar-Translation Method typically approach vocabulary acquisition?

5. Discuss the type of texts and materials commonly used in this teaching approach.

6. Explain the role of grammar in the Grammar-Translation Method. How is it taught and practiced?

7. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the Grammar-Translation Method in language learning?

2.The Direct method

The Direct Method is a result of the grammar translation method, and it shifts from literary language to spoken language [5] and it gives more emphasis to teaching aural-oral skills [6]. One of the advantages of this method is that learners practice the target language to enhance their aural-oral skills while they are comfortable with their mother tongue language [7]. This is the natural method and anti-grammatical method developed as a response to the method of translation of the grammar [8].

The basic purpose of this method is concerned the meaning of word, expression gestures and language achievement which directly related the picture something in your mind you think of it and have such a clear memory or idea of it that you seem to be able to see it (Larson-Freeman 1986). "It is successful in releasing students from the inhibitions all too often associated with speaking a foreign tongue, particularly at the early stages" (Rivers).

The direct method is one of the teaching methods that teachers use to teach a non-native language. Hence, if some students do not understand some of the spoken words by the teacher, it is not permissible for the teacher to translate, but he can display clear visual means (based on the direct method) for these words, which help students to learn English oral communication in a fun way.[11]

Practical activities

The Direct Method:

1. What is the main principle behind the Direct Method in language teaching?

2. How is the native language used in the Direct Method? What is its role?

3. Describe the importance of oral communication in the Direct Method.

4. What kinds of materials and activities are used to promote speaking and listening skills in the Direct Method?

5. Explain how grammar is approached in the Direct Method compared to traditional grammar-focused methods.

6. What are the challenges that teachers might face when implementing the Direct Method in a classroom?

7. Compare the Direct Method with the Grammar-Translation Method in terms of their goals and approaches.

3. The Audio-lingual method

   This method was used by the United States Army; to teach soldiers foreign languages used in the case of directing instructions during the war or the occurrence of certain incidents, and that was during the Second World War, and because of poor performance and scientific output for this method, it is rarely the main means of teaching the second language, but it is used as an aid to education and for training on exam patterns in international language exams (Anabokay

According to [15], there are some principles related to this method.

- English language skills are presented gradually.

- The best teacher of the language is the native speaker.

- The texts are presented in the form of dialogues.

- It relies on the principle of commonality in providing vocabulary and structures.

- Vocabulary is offered in a limited number.

- Learning vocabulary is from context.

- Learning Aids are used a lot.

- It is interested in practicing the language.

- It cares about correct linguistic and pronunciation of sounds.

   Teachers remain the guides for students in training them in English oral communication skills by repeating those sentences many times (Khan and Radzuan (2019). The Audio Lingual

Method helps learners to be highly efficient and courteous in communication with others, as well as quick reaction in talking to others (Brown 2001).

Zuhroton and Saifieddin study that states the positive effect of using the audio-lingual method in teaching speaking skills, Amelia (2012) study that showed the importance of using audio-lingual method to improve the students' listening skill through phonetic symbols, (Freeman 2000) that proved the benefits of using Audio-Lingual method in teaching speaking skills, Eda,Yulius et al (2017) who declared that the audiolingual method focuses on repetition some words to memorize which helps students to build their oral communication.

Their study proved that the audio-lingual method can enhance speaking skills like the topics that need comprehending being communicated fluently; selecting the suitable vocabularies for the blanks in the conversations; pronouncing the vocabularies and expressing sentences in good intonation and pronunciation; and using the correct structures during applying the audio-lingual method; Richards and Rodgers (1999) study that stated that this method is a perfect method to be used in teaching foreign or second language as it gives the priority to listening and speaking before reading and writing in teaching language skills.

Activities

The Audio-Lingual Method

Questions on the Characteristics of the Audio-Lingual Method:

a. What is the primary focus of the Audio-Lingual Method?

b. How does the method view language learning?

c. What role does repetition play in this method?

d. What type of drills are commonly used in this approach?

e. How are errors treated in the Audio-Lingual Method?

Questions on the Principles of the Audio-Lingual Method:

a. Explain the importance of mimicry and imitation in this method.

b. How does the Audio-Lingual Method promote habit formation?

c. Describe the structural view of language that this method follows.

d. What is the significance of the "overlearning" principle in this approach?

e. How does the method encourage learners to respond to stimuli?

Questions on the Advantages of the Audio-Lingual Method:

a. Discuss how the Audio-Lingual Method promotes accurate pronunciation.

b. How does the focus on listening comprehension benefit language learners?

c. Explain the effectiveness of the method in teaching specific language structures.

d. How can the intensive drilling help learners gain confidence in using the language?

e. What role does the avoidance of native language interference play in this method's advantages?

Questions on the Disadvantages of the Audio-Lingual Method:

a. Describe the potential limitations of using excessive drilling in the classroom.

b. How might the exclusive use of pattern drills hinder learners' ability to communicate spontaneously?

c. Discuss the criticism of not providing explicit explanations of grammar rules in this method.

d. Explain the challenges that learners might face when transitioning from controlled exercises to real-life communication.

e. How might the lack of focus on cultural context be a disadvantage of this approach?

Exercises on the Audio -Lingual Method

1.Matching Exercise:

Match the following principles to their descriptions.

Principles:

1.   Habit formation

2.   Repetition and mimicry

3.   Structural view of language

4.   Overlearning

5.   Focus on listening and speaking

Descriptions:

a. Emphasizes learning through extensive exposure to language input.

b. Aids in automating correct language responses through repetition.

c. Considers language as a system of rules and patterns.

d. Reinforces learning beyond the point of mastery to ensure retention.

e. Promotes language learning through imitation and echoing.

2. Discussion Exercise:

In pairs, discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the Audio-Lingual Method in comparison to other language teaching approaches. Share your insights and experiences, and come up with suggestions to address the method's limitations.

3.Application Exercise:

Design a 30-minute lesson plan for teaching a specific grammar point using the Audio-Lingual Method. Include various types of drills (e.g., substitution, transformation, repetition) and activities to engage learners in active participation.

4.Communicative language teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is an approach to teaching language which is defined many writers (Cannale, 1983; Cook, 1991; Littlewood, 1981; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Richards and Rodgers 2001; Rivers, 1987). According to Richards, et al. in the Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics defined CLT as "an approach to foreign or second language teaching which emphasises that the goal of language learning is communicative competence" (1992: 65). Other authors in the field have defined and characterized CLT in various ways (Littlewood, 1981). Littlewood explains that "one of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view" (1981:1)

Richards and Rodgers (1986), on the other hand, claim that the origins of communicative language teaching are to be found in the changes of situational language teaching approaches, which influenced the British language teaching tradition till the late 1960s. Meanwhile, Savignon (1991) asserts that the emergence of CLT can be traced to concurrent developments on both sides of the Atlantic, i.e. in Europe and the United States. Educators and linguistics such as Candlin (1981) and Widdowson (1978) saw the need to focus in language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures.

They felt that students were not learning enough realistic, whole language in those methods, i.e., Situational Language Teaching, Audio-lingual or Grammar Translation method (Richards and Rodgers 1986; Savignon 1987, 1991; Galloway 1993). Students did not know how to communicate in the cultures of the language studies. In respect of this point (Widdowson, 1972).Communicative Language Teaching is a "hybrid approach to language teaching, essentially 'progressive' rather

than 'traditional'…" (Wright, 2000). CLT can be seen to derive from a multidisciplinary perspective that includes, at least, linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology and educational research (Savignon, 1991).

It is generally accepted that proponents of CLT see it as an approach, not a method (Richards and Rodgers 1986). For Brown, for instance, "Communicative Language Teaching is a unified but broadly – based theoretical position about the nature of language and language learning and teaching" (1994: 244-245). Students regularly work in groups or pairs to transfer (and if necessary to negotiate) meaning in situations where one person has information that others lack (Celce - Murcia 1991).

A teacher may use formal evaluation i.e., he/she is likely to use a communicative test, which is an integrative and has a real communicative function (e.g., Madsen 1983; Hughes 1989). The students' native language has no role to play (Larsen Freeman1986).

"the teacher should be able to use the target language fluently and appropriately" (Celce-Murcia1991:8). However, for others (e.g., Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983) judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible. Teachers may provide directions of homework, class work and test directions by using the native language.

Activities

Communicative Language Teaching

Questions:

1. What is the main focus of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)?

2. How does CLT differ from traditional grammar-based approaches to language teaching?

3. What are the key principles of CLT?

4. Explain the role of authentic communication in CLT.

5. How does CLT promote learner-centeredness in the language classroom?

6. What are some potential challenges or limitations of implementing CLT?

7. Give an example of a communicative activity that encourages pair or group interaction.

8. How does CLT address the development of both linguistic and pragmatic competence?

9. What is the role of error correction in CLT?

10. How can technology be integrated into CLT-based language instruction?

Activities:

1.Role-Play Scenarios:

Think of situations where you must interact using the target language in a specific context, such

as booking a hotel room or ordering food at a restaurant.

2.Story Building:

 Listen and follow the teacher telling a story then try to take turns adding sentences to continue

the narrative using the target language.

3.Problem-Solving Discussions:

Teacher Presents a real-life problem or dilemma and have students discuss and come up with

solutions in the target language.

4.Interview a Partner:

 Students take turns interviewing each other using a list of questions to gather information and

then share what they've learned with the class.

5.Opinion Exchange:

teacher Provides a topic and have students express their opinions, discussing and justifying their

viewpoints in pairs or small groups.

Consolidate what you know and sit in pairs to add other information if you want

CLT Principles:

CLT emphasizes the importance of meaningful communication, interactive activities, and the use of language in real-life contexts. It aims to develop both fluency and accuracy in language learners.

Authentic Communication:

CLT emphasizes using the language for real communication purposes, rather than focusing solely on grammar drills and vocabulary memorization.

Learner-Centeredness:

CLT places learners at the center of the language learning process, encouraging them to take an active role in their own learning and providing opportunities for self-expression.

Add to your Knowledge

Famous Figures:

Michael Canale and Merrill Swain developed the concept of communicative competence.

Stephen Krashen introduced the theory of input hypothesis.

Diane Larsen-Freeman emphasized the importance of learner-centeredness and interaction.

Assets of CLT:

CLT encourages active participation, enhances communication skills, prepares learners for real-world language use, promotes cultural awareness, and creates a dynamic and engaging classroom environment.

5.Task-based language teaching

Introduction

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is an innovative approach to language education that places emphasis on practical communication skills and real-world language use. Unlike traditional methods that focus primarily on grammar and vocabulary drills, TBLT centers around the completion of meaningful tasks as the driving force for language acquisition. These tasks can range from problem-solving activities to role plays, debates, and simulations that mirror real-life situations where language is actually used.

TBLT is built upon the idea that language is best learned when it serves a purpose, and learners are engaged in authentic communication rather than just memorizing isolated language components. This approach encourages learners to use the language creatively, fostering their ability to comprehend and produce meaningful speech in various contexts. By working through tasks that require negotiation of meaning, collaboration, and interaction, learners develop not only linguistic skills but also critical thinking, problem-solving, and social skills.

In a TBLT classroom, the teacher assumes the role of a facilitator, guiding students through the tasks while providing necessary language support. The focus shifts from explicit instruction of grammar rules to more implicit acquisition through exposure and practice. Assessment in TBLT is often based on how well learners accomplish the given tasks, evaluating their ability to communicate effectively rather than simply testing their knowledge of grammar rules and vocabulary.

Task-Based Language Teaching represents a learner-centered approach that promotes the integration of language skills in a meaningful context, preparing learners for authentic language use in the real world.

5.1.Definition of Task

An early definition of task comes from Old North French tasque, which meant a duty,a tax, or a piece of work imposed as a duty. Tasque originated from the Latin taxāre,to evaluate, estimate, or assess (Barnhart 1988, p. 1117)

Long (1985) defined a task as "... a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others,freely or for some reward . . . [B]y 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between" (p. 89)

Breen (1987) defined a language task as a structured language endeavor which has a specific objective, appropriate content, a particular working procedure, and a range of possible outcomes for those who undertake it. Breen suggested that language tasks can be viewed as arrange of work plans, from simple to complex, with the overall purpose of   learning. In fact, he asserted, "All materials for language teaching . . . can be seen as compendia of tasks" (Breen, 1987, p. 26).

Drawing on Activity Theory, Coughlin and Duff (1994, p.175) distinguished between an L2 task and an L2 activity. In their view, task refers to the "behavioral blueprint provided to students in order to elicit data" for research or assessment. Coughlin and Duff defined activity as "the behavior that is actually produced when an individual (or group) performs a task" (1994, p. 175)

5.2.Task Types

Many types of L2 tasks exist, particularly in the realm of communicative instruction. Here is a listing of some key task types found in the literature: problem-solving(Nunan, 1989; Pica et al.,

1993; Willis, 1996a); decision-making (Foster & Skehan,1996; Nunan, 1989; Pica et al., 1993); opinion-gap or opinion exchange (Nunan,1989; Pica et al., 1993); information-gap (Doughty & Pica,1986; Nunan, 1989;Oxford, 1990; Pica et al., 1993); comprehension-based (Ikeda & Takeuchi, 2000;Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Tierney et al., 1995); sharing personal experiences, attitudes, and feelings (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Oxford, 1990; Willis, 1996a, 1996b);basic cognitive processes, such as comparing or matching (Nunan, 1989; Willis,1998), listing (Willis, 1998), and ordering/sorting (Willis, 1998); language analysis(Willis, 1996a, 1996b, 1998); narrative (Foster & Skehan, 1996); reasoning- gap(Nunan, 1989); question-and-answer (Nunan 1989); structured and semi-structured dialogues (Nunan, 1989); and role-plays and simulations (Crookall & Oxford, 1990;Richards & Rodgers, (2001).

In addition, task types include picture stories (Nunan, 1989); puzzles and games(Nunan, 1989); interviews, discussions, and debates (Nunan, 1989; Oxford, 1990;Richards & Rodgers, 2001); and everyday functions, such as telephone conversations and service encounters (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Richards and Rodgers (2001) cited a range of input materials for L2 tasks, including books, newspaper, video, TV, and so on. Interest level of the learners in the material is particularly crucial. If materials are perceived as boring or as too easy or too difficult, learners will be unmotivated to do the task (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

(Ellis, 2003a) presented a sequence of tasks for helping learners become more grammatical, rather than for attaining the elusive goal of mastery. The sequence includes:• Listening task, in which students listen to a text that they process for meaning).• "Noticing" task, in which students listen to the same text, which is now gapped, and fill in the missing words.• Consciousness-raising task, in which students discover how the target grammar structure works by analyzing the "data"

provided by the listening text.• Checking task, in which students complete an activity to check if they have understood how the target structure works.• Production task, in which students have the chance to try out or experiment with the target structure by producing their own sentences

<u>**Activities**</u>

Task-based language Teaching

Add to your Information:

Principles of TBLT:

Focus on Meaningful Tasks:

TBLT centers on real-world tasks that learners might encounter outside the classroom, such as solving a problem, making a plan, or completing a project.

Communication as the Goal:

The main objective is effective communication. Learners engage in tasks that require them to use language to accomplish a goal rather than just practicing language forms.

Language Use Emerges:

 Language is acquired through the process of completing tasks. Grammar and vocabulary naturally emerge as learners try to express themselves in order to complete the task successfully.

Collaborative Learning:

TBLT often involves collaboration among learners. They work together to complete tasks, share ideas, negotiate meaning, and learn from each other.

Error Tolerance:

 Errors are seen as a natural part of the learning process. While accuracy is important, the primary focus is on meaningful communication.

Characteristics of TBLT:

Task Complexity:

Tasks should be appropriately challenging, encouraging learners to use a range of language forms and skills.

Authenticity:

Tasks should reflect real-world language use, allowing learners to practice language in context.

Feedback:

Immediate feedback helps learners improve their language use during and after completing tasks.

Learner Autonomy:

Learners take an active role in selecting, planning, and executing tasks, fostering autonomy in their learning process.

Classroom Tasks:

Problem-Solving Task:

Provide a scenario or situation where learners must work together to solve a problem using the target language.

Information-Gap Task:

Design a task where learners have different pieces of information and need to communicate to complete a task, such as planning a vacation.

Opinion Exchange Task:

Have learners discuss a controversial topic, express their opinions, and support their viewpoints using the target language.

Role-Play Task:

Assign roles to learners and have them engage in a simulated conversation, such as a job interview or a customer-service interaction.

Project-Based Task:

Assign a project that requires research, planning, and presentation, allowing learners to use language for a purpose.

Teachers' Activities

1.Prepare a list of questions related to a specific task or topic. Ask students to interact with their peers to find someone who can answer each question.

Descriptive Drawing: Provide students with a picture and have them describe it in detail to a partner. The partner then recreates the image based on the description.

Spot the Differences: Give students two similar pictures with slight differences. They need to communicate to identify and describe the differences.

Map Route Planning: Provide a map with different locations. Students work in pairs to plan a route from one location to another, using directions and landmarks in the target language.

Restaurant Menu Creation: Students work in groups to create a restaurant menu in the target language, including descriptions of dishes and prices.

Questions:

1. What is the main focus of Task-Based Language Teaching?

2. How does TBLT differ from traditional language teaching approaches?

3. What are the key principles of TBLT?

4. How does TBLT encourage the development of communicative competence?

5. What role does collaboration play in TBLT?

6. How does TBLT handle errors in language learning?

7. Describe an example of an authentic task in a language classroom.

8. How does TBLT promote learner autonomy?

9. What is the relationship between task complexity and language development?

10. Explain the idea of language emergence in TBLT.

Gap-Filling Exercises:

1. TBLT focuses on _____ tasks that learners might encounter in real life.

2. In TBLT, the main goal is to promote _____ rather than focusing solely on linguistic accuracy.

3. TBLT emphasizes collaboration among learners, encouraging them to work together to complete _____.

6.Content-based instruction

Introduction

Content-Based Instruction (CBI) is an innovative and immersive approach to language learning that places a strong emphasis on integrating language acquisition with the exploration and understanding of meaningful subject matter. Unlike traditional language teaching methods that often focus only on isolated language skills, CBI interelates language learning and the study of diverse content areas, fostering both language proficiency and subject knowledge simultaneously. This approach recognizes that language is not merely a set of grammar rules and vocabulary, but a tool for meaningful communication and engagement with real-world concepts.

CBI shifts the classroom dynamic from being solely teacher-centered to a more student-centered approach, where learners actively participate in the exploration of engaging topics such as science, history, literature, and more. Through this integration of content, language learners not only acquire essential language skills but also develop critical thinking, problem-solving abilities, and a deeper understanding of the subject matter itself. This approach aligns with the belief that language learning is most effective when it occurs within a context that holds personal relevance and interest for the learners.

In a Content-Based Instruction setting, educators carefully select subject matter that is relevant to the students' academic, professional, or personal interests. The goal is to create a rich and authentic environment where language is used purposefully to access, understand, and communicate complex ideas. This approach often utilizes a variety of materials such as textbooks, articles, videos, and other resources related to the chosen content area. Additionally, instructors

incorporate language-focused activities that support vocabulary acquisition, grammatical comprehension, and communication skills, all within the context of the chosen content.

Content-Based Instruction is not only beneficial for language learners, but it also promotes a holistic approach to education.. This integration enhances both linguistic and cognitive abilities, preparing students to effectively communicate and engage in diverse academic, professional, and social settings.

6.1.Definition

Richards and Rodgers (2001)say that "Content-Based Instruction refers to an approach to second language teaching in which teaching is organized around the con-tent or information that students will acquire, rather than around a linguistic or other type of syllabus" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 204)

Content usually refers to the subject matter that people learn or transmit using language(Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Content-based instruction is "the teaching of language through exposure to content that is interesting and relevant to learners" (Brinton, 2003, p. 201). Snow(2001) goes beyond when defining the concept of content. Snow (2001) said: Content... is the use of subject matter for second/foreign language teaching purposes. Subject matter may consist of topics or themes based interest or need in an adult EFL setting, or it may be very specific, such as the subjects that students are currently studying in their elementary school classes.(Snow, 2001, p. 303

6.2.Characteristics of CBI

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), CBI is based on two relevant principles: (1) People learn a second language more successfully when the use the language as a means of

acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself. (2) CBI better reflects learners' needs for learning a second language

Brinton (2003) points out that CBI" allows the choice of content to dictate or influence the selection and sequencing of language items" (Brinton, 2003,p. 206). CBI also claims that comprehensible input is not enough to acquire the target language successfully unlike other approaches and theories(Brinton, 2003)

Brinton (2003)provides a list of the most common techniques and activities found in the CBI classroom. techniques and tasks are similar to the ones used in CLT in the sense that they involve learners' active participation. These classroom techniques and tasks are listed here: Pair and group work, information gap, jigsaw, graphic organizers, discussion and debate, role-plays, and others. Stryker and Leaver (1997) point out that the philosophy of CBI "aims at empowering students to become independent learners and continue the learning process beyond the classroom" (Stryker & Leaver, 1997, p. 3)

6.3.Models of CBI

The first one is theme-based language instruction. In this model the syllabus is arranged around themes or topics, here are several ways to introduce a theme: Video and audio material, reading, and/or vocabulary. The materials used to introduce these themes or topics will usually integrate all skills (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The second model is called sheltered content instruction. The main objective is that learners understand the content. The fact that students are still learning the target language makes the teacher modify the lesson (vocabulary, speed, pace, and others) in order for   grasp the material. The teacher also devotes some class time to explain linguistic elements related to the content of a specific lesson (Brinton, 2003)

Adjunct language instruction is the third model. Basically, students take two courses, paired or adjuncted courses. These are linked courses. One is a course based on a specific content, and the other course is based on specific linguistic features of the target language. Both courses are complementary (Richards & Rodgers, 2001)

Stryker and Leaver (1997) say that "adjunct courses can enhance students' self-confidence with a feeling of using the new language to accomplish real tasks" (Stryker & Leaver, 1997, p.4). Sustained- content language teaching is a recent and innovative model of CBI. It is indeed very similar to theme-based instruction. The difference is that theme-based instruction covers several topics and in SCLT learners work on one topic. The content is "sustained" (Brinton,2003, p. 205

<u>Activities</u>

Content-based Instruction

<u>Reading for Leisure: Add to Your Knowledge</u>

<u>Definition of Content-Based Instruction (CBI):</u>

Content-Based Instruction (CBI) is an approach to language teaching that integrates the learning of language and subject content. It involves using subject matter from academic disciplines as the basis for language instruction, allowing learners to simultaneously develop language skills and acquire knowledge in a particular area.

<u>Characteristics of CBI:</u>

Content-Driven: The primary focus is on teaching subject matter content, which serves as the context for language learning.

Language as a Tool: Language is not taught in isolation but is used as a tool to access, understand, and communicate about subject matter content.

Integrated Skills: CBI emphasizes the integration of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in the context of meaningful content.

Authentic Materials: Authentic texts, materials, and resources related to the subject matter are used to expose learners to real-world language use.

Critical Thinking: CBI encourages learners to engage in higher-order thinking skills by analyzing, evaluating, and synthesizing information.

Cultural Awareness: Learners are exposed to the cultural aspects embedded in the subject matter content.

Task-Based Activities:

Activities and projects related to the subject matter are used to promote language use and content understanding.

Principles of CBI:

Language and Content Integration: Language and content are taught simultaneously to enhance both linguistic and cognitive development.

Meaningful Context: Learning occurs in a meaningful context where language is used to convey information and ideas.

Language as a Social Process: Language learning is seen as a social and interactive process, mirroring real-world communication.

Authentic Communication: Emphasis is placed on using language authentically for communication purposes.

Scaffolded Support: Teachers provide necessary support to help learners understand and engage with content.

Multidisciplinary Approach: CBI draws on various subject areas to expose learners to a range of vocabulary and concepts.

Advantages of CBI:

Language Proficiency: Learners develop both language skills and content knowledge simultaneously, leading to more well-rounded proficiency.

Real-World Relevance: CBI connects language to real-life contexts and prepares learners for authentic language use.

Motivation: The engagement with interesting subject matter can motivate learners to actively participate and learn.

Cultural Understanding: Learners gain insight into the culture and perspectives associated with the subject content.

Critical Thinking: CBI promotes critical thinking skills by challenging learners to analyze and process complex information.

Effective Communication: Learners learn to use language effectively for communication rather than just memorizing grammar rules.

Matching Table:

Match the following characteristics with their corresponding principles in Content-Based **Instruction (CBI):**

Characteristics of CBI	Principles of CBI
Language as a Tool	Language and Content Integration
Authentic Materials	Meaningful Context
Integrated Skills	Language as a Social Process

Cultural Awareness   Authentic Communication

Task-Based Activities   Scaffolded Support

Multidisciplinary Approach   Multidisciplinary Approach

Teachers' Activities:

Subject-Related Presentations: Have students research a specific subject matter and then give presentations in the target language to their peers.

Reading and Analysis: Provide authentic texts related to a subject. Students read, analyze, and discuss the content using the language.

Content-Based Discussions: Organize class discussions around subject-specific topics, encouraging students to express their opinions and ideas.

Project-Based Learning: Assign projects that require students to apply both language and content knowledge to create something meaningful.

Comparative Analysis: Have students compare and contrast content-related concepts or ideas using language.

Exercises:

Fill in the blanks to complete the sentence about Content-Based Instruction:

Content-Based Instruction (CBI) integrates the learning of _____ and _____ content.

Explain the following characteristics in your own words

(a) Using authentic materials: ....

(b) Developing integrated skills:...

 (c) Emphasizing cultural awareness:..

True or False:

In CBI, language learning occurs in isolation from subject matter.........True   False

Complete the principle:

In CBI, teachers provide _____ support to help learners engage with content and language.

List two advantages of Content-Based Instruction for language learners.

1...

2...

References

Al Refaai, K.I. (2013). Suggested Guidelines for Using Translation in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching. Educational Research. Internasional Research Journal, 4(1) Pp 12-20

Amelia, Putrinda Dwi, ―The Implementation of Audio Lingual Method In Teaching Speaking To The Eighth Year Students of MTs Al-Ikhlas Mayung – Cirebon‖, Thesis. English Study Program Tarbiyah, Faculty Syekh Nurjati State Institute For Islamic Studies, IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon, (2012).

Anabokay, Y. M, ―TEF Method in Indonesia‖, International Journal of Linguistics, Literature, and Culture, 5(2): 13-24, (2019)..https://sloap.org/journals/index.php/ijllc/.

Arnold, J. (1998). Affective language learning. Cambridge: Cambridge UniversityPress.

Austin, J.D. The Grammar Translation Method of language Teaching london: longman, 2003.

Barnhart, R.K. (1988). Dictionary of etymology. Edinburgh: Chambers.

Breen, M. (1987). Learner contributions to task design. In C. Candlin and D. Murphy(Eds.), Language learning tasks (pp. 23-46). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Brinton, D. (2003). Content-Based Instruction. In Nunan, D. (Ed.), Practical English Language Teaching. McGraw-Hill Contemporary

Brown, H.D, ―Teaching by Principles: An interactive Approach to Language pedagogy‖; 2nd Ed. New York: Pearson Education Company, (2001).

Brown, H. (1994). Teaching by Principles – An Interactive Approach to LanguagePedagogy. Prentince Hall.

Brown, H. Douglas. (2001). Teaching by Principles an Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy 2nd ed. Pearson ESL Addison-Wesley Longman http:/ /let590 .files.wordpress.com/2013/01 /teaching-by-principles-do uglas-brown. pdf accessed on December 281 \ 2018

Canale, M. (1983). "From communicative competence tocommunicative languagepedagogy." In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.),Language and Communication (pp.pp. 2-27). Harlow: Longman.

Celce-Murcia, M. (1991) Grammar pedagogy insecond and foreign language teaching. TESOL Quarterly 25,459–480

Chang, Shih-Chua.(2011). A Contrastive Study of Grammar Translation Method and Communicative Approach in Teaching English Grammar. BLT Journal, 4(2), Pp. 13-24

Cook, V. (1991).Second language learningandlanguageteaching.(2need.).London: Arnold

Coughlin, P. and Duff, P.A. (1994). Same task, different activities: Analysis of SLAtask from an Activity Theory perspective. In J. Lantolf and G. Appel (Eds.),Vygotskian perspectives on second language research (pp. 173-193).

Eda Maaliah, Yulius Harry Widodo, and Muhyiddin Aziz Politeknik Negeri Madiun, ―USING AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD TO IMPROVE THE STUDENTS' SPEAKING SKILL‖,. Journal Bahasa Inggris Terapan Vol 3/Number 1/February 2017.

Ellis, R. (2003a). Becoming grammatical. Impact Series, Pearson Education, 1997-1999, website 1999-2003. http://www.impactseries.com/grammar/becoming.html,Retrieved July 5, 2006.

Ellis, R. (2003b) Task-based language learning and teaching. Oxford: OxfordUniversity Press.

Finocchiaro, M., and Brurnfit. (1983). The Functional Notional Approach: FromTheory to Practice. New York: Oxford University Press.

Freeman, D. L,(2000) ―Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching (Second ed.)‖,. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gay, L.R. & Airasian, P, ―Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application‖ (7th Ed.), Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson education, Journal of Language Teaching and Research 5(3): 559–565, (2003).

Khan, R. M. I., Radzuan, N. R. M., Shahbaz, M., & Ibrahim, A. H, ―Efficacy of methodological practices undertaken by Saudi English teachers in public schools during their formative phase‖, English Review: Journal of English Education, 7(2): 47-54, (2019).

Larsen, Diane and Freeman. (2000). Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching 2nd ed. London: Oxford University Press

Littlewood, W. (1981). Communicative Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Monda}, K.N. (2012). English Language Learningn through the Combination of Grammar Translation Method and Communicative Languge Teaching. Academia Arena, 4(6) Pp. 20-24

Moseley. (2005). Learning styles and pedagogy in post-16 learning: a systematic and critical review. London : Learning & Skills Research Centre

Nunan, D. (1989). Designing tasks for the communicative classroom. Cambridge:Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (2004). Task-based language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge UniversityPress.

O' Malley, J. & Chamot, A. (1990).Language strategies in second language acquisition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

O'Malley, J. M. and Chamot, A.U. (1990). Learning strategies in second languageacquisition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.Oxford,

Oxford, R.L. (1990). Using and learning languages throughsimulations, Part II. Simulation and Gaming: An International Journal of Theory,Design, and Research, 21(1), 73-4.

R. L. (1990). Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know.Boston:

Raja, B. W. D., & Selvi, K,. ―Causes of problems in learning English as a second language as perceived by higher secondary students‖, i-manager's Journal on English Language Teaching, 1(4), 40-45, (2011).

Richard, J. C., & Rodger, T. S, ―Approaches and Method in Language Teaching: Communicative Language Teaching‖, Cambridge University Press, (1999).

Richards, Jack C. and Rodgers, Theodore S, (2001)―Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. New York: Cambridge University Press,

Richards, Jack. C., Renandya, Willy.A., (2002). Methodology in Language Teaching an Anthology of Current Practice. New York: Cambridge University Press

Rivers, W. M. & Temperly, M. S. A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as aSecond Language. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1978. Accessed 30 Mar.2019

Cagri Tugrul Mart, ―The Direct-Method: A Good Start to Teach Oral Language,‖ International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, November 2013, Vol. 3, No. 11,2013.

Rivers, W.(1987).Interactive Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Scarcella, R.C. and Oxford, R.L. (1992). The tapestry of language learning: Theindividual in the communicative classroom. Boston:

Skehan, P. (1996b). Second language acquisition research and task-based instruction.In J. Willis and D. Willis (Eds.), Challenge and Change in Language Teaching. (pp.17-30). Oxford: Heinemann.Page 29

Skehan, P. (1998). Task-based instruction. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 18,268-286.

Snow, M. (2001). Content Based and Immersion Models for Second and Foreign Language-Teaching. In Celce-Murcia, M. (Ed.), Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language. Third Edition. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Thompson Learning Stryker, S. & Leaver, B. (1997). Content-Based Instruction in Foreign Language Education. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press

Widdowson, H.(1978).Teaching language as communication. London. Oxford University Press.

Wiley.Pica, T., Kanagy, R. and Falodun, J. (1993). Choosing and using communicationtasks for second language instruction and research. In G. Crookes and S. Gass Page 28

Willis, J. (1996a). A flexible framework for task-based learning. In J. Willis and D.Willis (Eds.), Challenge and Change in Language Teaching. (pp. 52-62). Oxford:Heinemann.

Willis, J. (1996b). A framework for task-based learning. Harlow, Essex, U.K.:Longman/Addison-Wesley.

Willis, J. (1998b). Task-based learning? What kind of adventure? Retrieved April 22,2005 from http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac/jp/jalt/pub/tlt/98/jul/willis.htmlYoung, D. J. (ed.). (1998). Affect in L2 learning: A practical guide to dealing withlearner anxieties. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Xia Y, ―Language theories and language teaching‖: From traditional grammar to functionalism, (2014).

Zuhrotun Samawiyah and Muhammad Saifuddin, ―Phonetic Symbols through Audiolingual Method to Improve the Students' Listening Skill‖ DINAMIKA ILMU. Vol. 16 No. 1, (2016).

Chapter Four: IV. Curriculum Design

4.1.Definition of Curriculum

Curriculum can be defined as a "web of interrelated and aligned activities" working together to achieve certain learning outcomes. Stenhouse (1975) states that "a curriculum is an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice". John Kerr defines curriculum as "all the learning which is planned and guided by the school, whether it is carried on in groups or individually, inside or outside the school (cited in Kelly,1983:10). 'A curriculum is an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice' (Stenhouse, 1975: p.4). In other words, a curriculum is a proposal for action that is not necessarily right, but reasonable (Toulmin, 2001).

4.2.Principles of curriculum design

Ralph Tyler proposed that the curriculum should be seen as a means to an end, rather than an end in itself. He identified 'four fundamental questions which must be answered in developing any curriculum and plan of instruction' (Tyler, 1949: p.1

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?

2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes

3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organised?

4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

One of Tyler's colleagues, Hilda Taba, elaborated Tyler's model, and in Curriculum development: theory and practice (Taba, 1962: pp.347-378) she proposed a seven-step model for curriculum development. The steps were:

• Diagnosing needs

• Formulating specific objectives

• Selecting content

• Organising content

• Selecting learning experiences

• Organising learning experiences

• Evaluating

Sir Richard Livingstone, president of Corpus Christi College at Oxford University, wrote over 70 years ago: 'The test of a successful education is not the amount of knowledge that a pupil takes away from school, but his appetite to know and his capacity to learn. If the school sends out children with a desire for knowledge and some idea of how to acquire and use it, it will have done its work. Too many leave school with the appetite killed and the mind loaded with undigested lumps of information. The good schoolmaster is known by the number of valuable subjects that he declines to teach.' (Livingstone, 1941: p.28)

4.3.Approaches to curriculum design

Hilda Taba's prescription went much further. She suggested that in addition to understanding what the student already knows, 'it is necessary to know something about students' cultural backgrounds, motivational patterns, and the content of their social learning, such as the particular

meanings they bring to school, their particular approach to learning tasks, and the expectations they have of themselves and of others.' (p.234)

Kerr (1968) suggested that the curriculum was based on four elements: objectives, evaluation, knowledge, and school learning experiences, with the explicit expectation that the elements interact with each other, so that a change in one leads to changes in the others.

Kerr proposed that the term curriculum should denote 'all the learning which is planned or guided by the school, whether it is carried on in groups or individually inside or outside the school' (p.16).

4.4. Definition of 'a syllabus'

There are many definitions of the term "syllabus' in literature Educationalists differentiate between two terms, namely "syllabus" and "curriculum". The curriculum is "all the relevant decision-making processes of all the participants" the syllabus is its result (Johnson, 1989, p. 33). According to Brown (1995, p.7) "A syllabus provides a focus for what should be studied, along with a rationale for how that content should be selected and ordered." Similarly, Richards (2001) defines syllabus as "A specification of the content of a course of instruction [which] lists what will be taught and tested" (p.2). Robertson (as cited in Yalden, 1987) states that: Curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school and community through classroom instruction and related programs. (P.18)

Robertson defines syllabus as "A statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum, excluding the element of curriculum evaluation itself." (As cited in Yalden 1987, p.18). Robertson concludes that "Syllabuses should be viewed in the context of an ongoing curriculum development process."

(Yalden 1987, p.18). Pienemann (1985, p.23) sees the syllabus as "the selection and grading of linguistic teaching objectives", while for Breen (1984, p.47) it "is a plan of what is to be achieved through our teaching and our students' learning".

Candlin (1984) defines syllabuses as: Syllabuses are concerned with the specification and planning of what is to be learned, frequently set down in some written form as prescriptions for action by teachers and learners. They have, traditionally, the mark of authority. They are concerned with achievement of ends, often, though not always, associated with the pursuance of particular means. (p 30)

Syllabi can be divided into two different types: Product-Oriented Syllabi and Process Oriented Syllabi. (Long & Crookes, 1992; Long & Robinson, 1998). Brown (1995) lists seven basic syllabus types: "structural, situational, topical, functional, notional, skills-based and task-based and these can be linked to specific teaching approaches and methods." (p.7)

4.5.Types of Syllabi:

4.5.1.Product-Oriented Syllabi

4.5.1.1.Structural Syllabi (Ellis 1993, p.199)

Structural syllabi are one of the most common types of syllabi and still today we can see the contents pages of many course books set out according to grammatical items. The grammatical syllabus has been defined as one which consists of a list of grammatical items selected and graded in terms of simplicity and complexity (Nunan, 1988). Wilkins (1976) as cited in Baleghizadeh (2012) defines this kind of approach to syllabus design as synthetic. A synthetic language teaching strategy is one in which the different parts of language are taught separately and step-by-step so

that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built up. (p.2)

Structural syllabus is based on the assumption that language rules are learned in a linear fashion and learners should demonstrate complete mastery of one rule before moving on to the next (Nunan, 2001). Nunan (1899) states "In the process-oriented syllabuses, however, the focus shifts from the 'outcomes of instruction, i.e., the knowledge and skills to be gained by the learner, to the processes through which knowledge and skills might be gained" (p.40)

Ellis (2003) points out "If learners know about a particular feature they are better equipped to detect the difference between what they themselves are saying and how the feature is used in the input they are exposed to." p.149. Similarly, Cullen (2008) states that "without any grammar, the learner is forced to rely exclusively on lexis and the other prosodic and non-verbal features, to communicate his/her intended meaning." (p.221). Two terms, grading and sequencing, are related to structural Nunan (1988) pinpoints that "it could be argued that any proposal failing to offer criteria for grading and sequencing can hardly claim to be a syllabus at all." (p. 47)

Situational Syllabus Both Situational Syllabus and Notional Syllabus are types of semantic syllabus. Linguistic underpinning of this syllabus is that language is always used in context, never in isolation. (Yalden, 1983, p.35). Ur (2000) defines a situational syllabus as "A syllabus in which the contents are organized according to situations in which certain language is likely to be employed." (p.178) According to Yalden (1987) The situational model will comprise units indicating specific situations, such as 'At the Post Office', 'Buying an Airline Ticket', or 'The Job Interview'. The topical or thematic syllabus is similar, but generally employs the procedure of grouping modules or lessons around a topic, something like barnacles clinging to the hull. (p. 35)

4.5.1.2..Lexical Syllabus Design (Willis, 1990) and (Nunan, 1988)

The Notional Syllabus One of the pioneers in writing about notional syllabus was Wilkins. Thus, most of the information of notional syllabus is based on his book "The Notional Syllabus Revisited" (1981). Notions are meaning elements that may be expressed through nouns, pronouns, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, adjectives or adverbs. Notions are general concepts such as, "time, space, cause and effect." Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983 (cited in Brown, 2000, p.91). Wilkins (1981) pinpoints that notional syllabus helps learners to use language communicatively, leading to better learners' competence. Functional / Notional Syllabus

Cited in Richards (2001), Wilkins states that: A notional-functional syllabus should comprise three categories of meaning: semantico -grammatical meaning (including time and quantity), modal meaning (including an indication of the certainty and attitude of the speaker) and communicative function (including requests, complaints, and compliments, among a vast array of others). The major emphasis of the Functional-Notional Approach is on the communicative purpose(s) of a speech act. This redefined lexicon-structural syllabus is what Wilkins refers to as the "notional –functional syllabus. (p.37)

Topic-Based Syllabus Based on what (Bourke, 2006); and (Richards & Rodgers, 1994) state, this syllabus is the third type of Semantic Syllabi besides the Lexical and Situational Syllabi. Often, this syllabus is built around certain topics and themes, such as: Travel, drugs, religious Persuasion, advertising, modern architecture, sport as so on.

4.6.Process-oriented syllabuses

4.6.1.Task based Syllabus

"Task" being "anything the learners are given to do (or choose to do) in the language classroom to further the process of language learning." (Williams & Burden, 1997: p.167). Some of task-based syllabus proponents is Willis 1996. Nunan (1988) suggests that a syllabus might specify two types of tasks: real-world tasks or communication tasks such as using the telephone and Pedagogical tasks like information-gap task.

4.6.2.Three Types of Task-Based Syllabus

 1. Procedural Syllabus   2. Process syllabus   3. Skill-Based Syllabus

 4.6.2.1. Procedural Syllabus

   The Procedural syllabus is associated with Prabhu, Ramani and others at the Regional Institute of English in Bangalore, India. To Prabhu (1992) "Teaching through communication, rather than for communication is an important aspect of this syllabus." (p.19). Prabhu (1992) also argues A task in a procedural syllabus should be intellectually challenging enough to maintain students' interest, for that is what will sustain learners' efforts at task completion, focus them on meaning and, as part of that process, engage them in confronting the task's linguistic demands" (p.24).

4.6.2.2. Process Syllabus A Process Syllabus addresses the overall question: 'Who does what with whom, on what subject- matter, with what resources, when, how, and for what learning purpose(s)?' (Breen, 1987, p. 56)

4.6.2.3.3. Skill-Based Syllabus

4.7.The Content-Based Syllabus Krashen's theory, cited in Brown (1995,2000), focuses on the fact that for learning languages to happen, sufficient opportunity to engage in meaningful use of

that language should be provided. The content-based syllabus is the teaching of content or information with little effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught

Stoller (2002) states: In a content-based approach, the activities of the language class are specific to the subject matter being taught, and are geared to stimulate students to think and learn through the use of the target language.

4.8..The Relational Syllabus As reported in White (1988), relational syllabus is based on items like "notional relations such as cause-effect; or discourse relations, such as question-reply; or clause structure...."(p. 78)

4.9..The Communicative Syllabus It is a syllabus which specifies the semantic-grammatical categories (e.g., frequency, motion, and location) and the categories of communicative function that learners need to express (Brown, 1995, p. 95).

How to Write a Syllabus? Bill and Gower (cited in Tomlinson 1998, 116-124) suggested some guidelines of the process of writing syllabuses and materials. In the Pre-Writing Stage, the teaching situation and the intended learner group should be analyzed. Then, Decisions should be made on the type of assessment, resources/ staffing available should. Next, the syllabus designer should have intensive information about the learners' needs, their age, level, interests, and purpose of their learning English, their weaknesses and their strengths. This information can be obtained by administering placement tests and need analysis, and surveying students' descriptive analysis.

4.10.Syllabus Design: Materials development and adaptation

4.10.1.Definition of Material Adaptation

Materials adaptation "a general term for the process that involves making changes to existing materials to better suit specific learners, teachers and contexts for the purpose of facilitating effective learning. This may mean reducing mismatches between materials, learners, teachers and contexts or making fuller use of the potential value of existing materials" (Tomlinson & Misuhara, 2018, p. 82)

4.10.2.What is Material Development?

Materials development is a very complex process consisting of several other noticeable and important processes. "materials development' refers to all the processes made use of by practitioners who produce and/or use materials for language learning, including materials evaluation, their adaptation, design, production, exploitation and research" (Tomlinson, 2012).

"Materials development and evaluation is a relatively young phenomenon in the field of language teaching. In the practical sense, it includes the production, evaluation and adaptation of materials." (Riazi and Mosallanejad (2010))

McDonough, Shaw, and Masuhara (2013) state, "Adaptation, then, is a process subsequent to, and dependent on adoption. Furthermore, whereas adoption is concerned with whole coursebooks, adaptation concerns the parts that make up that whole" (p. 64)

4.10.3.The purpose of adaptation

According to McDonough, Shaw, and Masuhara (2013): "to maximize the appropriacy of teaching materials in context, by changing some of the internal characteristics of a coursebook to suit our particular circumstances better."

The Purpose of Adaptation from McGrath's point of view: "to make the material more suitable for the circumstances in which it is used; to compensate for any intrinsic deficiencies in the materials" (McGrath 2002: 62). Tomlinson (2012) also mentions another objective of adaptation: "to make the materials of more value to the students using them."

4.10.4.The Rationale behind the adaptation of Material

Adapting materials is an inevitable process as it is always carried out as part of classroom practice. The simple fact of using a piece of teaching/learning materials inevitably means adapting it to the particular needs of a specific teaching and learning scenario. In the practice of language teaching, this has been accepted for quite a long time now. (Madsen and Bowen, 1978). There is no textbook or set of materials which is likely to be perfect. This is inevitable 'as the needs, objectives, backgrounds and preferred styles of the participants differ from context to context' (Tomlinson, 2003c: 15).

McGrath (2002) points out that non-compatibility is inherent when the materials are not written for particular teaching and learning context. He also argues for the benefits of adaptation: appropriate and relevant adapted materials are likely to increase learner motivation and therefore contribute to enhanced learning. "Adaptation of materials is generally acknowledged as important for meeting learners' needs" (McGrath, 2002).For Tomlinson, no matter how good the materials are, they will not by themselves manage to cater to the different needs, wants, learning styles, attitudes, cultural norms and experiences of individual learners. (Tomlinson, 2006: 1)

"It is more realistic to assume that, however careful the design of the materials and the evaluation process, some changes will have to be made at some level in most teaching contexts" (McDonough, Shaw, and Masuhara, 2013, p. 64).

4.10.5.Experts and adaptation:

➢ Willis (1996), on ways of changing classroom management and sequencing to maximize the value of task-based materials.

➢ Nunan (1999), on procedures for making materials more interactive.

➢ White (1998), on ways of increasing student participation when using listening materials.

4.10.6.Critics towards the used materials

Many criticized materials for not being communicative. Candlin & Breen (1980) are among those who made such claims.Tomlinson (2012) states, "Candlin and Breen (1980) criticize published communicative materials and suggest ways of adapting them so as to offer more opportunities for communication." ✓ "Grant (1978) suggests and illustrates ways of making materials more communicative"(Tomlinson, 2012).

4.11.Questions on Material Adaptation

4.11.1.Is achieving good adaptation too demanding?

The good teacher is constantly striving for congruence among several related variables: teaching materials, methodology, students, course objectives, the target language and its context, and the teacher's own personality and teaching style (Madsen and Bowen, 1978: ix)

As O'Neill (in Rossner and Bolitho 1990:155-6) suggests: Textbooks can at best provide only a base or a core Of materials. A great deal of the most important work in a class May start with the textbook but end outside it, an Improvisation and adaptation, in spontaneous Interaction in the class, and the development of that interaction

4.11.2.Why do we Adapt Materials?

McDonough, Shaw, and Masuhara (2013) offer this list:

✗ Not enough grammar coverage in general

 ✗ Not enough practice of grammar points of particular difficulty to these learners

✗ Reading passages contain too much unknown vocabulary

 ✗ Not enough guidance on pronunciation

✗ Photographs and other illustrative material not culturally acceptable

 ✗ Dialogues too formal and not representative of everyday speech

Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004: 12) summarize what factors may trigger feelings of incongruence among teachers and offer the following list to take into account when considering possible adaptations to materials:

✗ Teaching contexts (e.g. national, regional, institutional, cultural situations)

✗ Course requirements (e.g. objectives, syllabus, methodology, assessment)

✗ Learners (e.g. age, language, level)

✗ Teachers (e.g. teaching style, belief about learning and teaching)

✗ Materials (e.g. texts, tasks, activities)

However, The list of potential reasons for adaptation by Islam and Mares (2003) focuses heavily on learner factors.

✗ To add real choice

✗ To cater for all sensory learning styles

✗ To provide more learner autonomy

✗ To encourage higher level cognitive skills

✗ To make language input more accessible

✗ To make language input more engaging

4.11.3.What material should be adapted?

McGrath (2013: 62-3) produces a list of potential elements that could be adapted:

✗ Language (the language of instructions, explanations, examples)

✗ Process (forms of classroom management or interaction)

✗ Content (topics, contexts, cultural references)

✗ Level (Linguistic and cognitive demands on the learner)

4.11.4.How should material should be adapted?

According to McGrath (2013: 62-3) a list of potential elements that could be adapted:

✗ Language (the language of instructions, explanations, examples)

✗ Process (forms of classroom management or interaction)

✗ Content (topics, contexts, cultural references)

✗ Level (Linguistic and cognitive demands on the learner)

4.12.Principles of Adaptation

There are some principles behind adaptation:

✓ We take 'Personalizing' to refer to increasing the relevance of content in relation to learners' interests and their academic, educational or professional needs.

✓ 'Individualizing' will address the learning styles both of individuals and of the members of a class working closely together.

✓ 'Localizing' takes into account the international geography of English language teaching and recognizes that what may work well in Mexico city may not do so in Edinburgh or in Kuala Lumpur. (McDonough, Shaw, and Masuhara, 2013, p. 69).

4.13.Process of materials adaptation

1. A teacher-centred approach to adaptation: materials adaptation, in the great majority of cases, is still left to the teachers' hands, and it is largely based simply on their intuition and experience.

2. A learner-centred approach to adaptation: Clarke (1989) provides a typical example of a learner-centered approach to adaptation: he acknowledges the importance of learner involvement in the adaptation process and he distinguishes what he calls a Negotiated Syllabus, from an Externally Imposed Syllabus. The former is internally generated and it is a result of the product of negotiation between teacher and students. The latter is a syllabus imposed by an external body such as the teacher, the institution or any other administrative authority

4.14.Techniques of adaptation

According to (McDonough, Shaw, and Masuhara, 2013) the following terms can be used:

Adding

Two types of addition: 1. Extending: supply more of the same material, in the existing framework 2. Expanding: add to the methodology, developing new directions, out of the framework of current materials

Deleting

Two types of deletion: 1. Subtracting: reducing the length 2. Abridging: has greater change

Modifying

Two types of modifying: 1. Rewriting: when some of the content needs modification 2. Restructuring: applies to classroom management

Simplifying

and Reordering

could be named as the techniques of adaptation.

Materials should be flexible, in the sense that they should provide learners with the possibility of choosing different activities, tasks, projects and approaches, thus of adapting the materials to their own learning needs. (Tomlinson. 2013). So, according to Crawford (1995), "Materials need to be flexible enough to cater for individual and contextual differences," he continues, "it is essential for teachers to recognize the different backgrounds, experiences and learning styles that students bring to the language classroom."

4.15. Authentic VS Non-Authentic Material

Bacon and Finnemann (1990) also state that authentic materials are those texts which are made by native speakers for non-pedagogical purposes. At the same time, there should also be a combination of authentic and non-authentic tasks, based on realistic scenarios, in order to expose the learners to realistic input. In my view a significant role is played by the use of non-authentic tasks with authentic texts. For example, tasks which aim at drawing the learners' attention to certain linguistic features of the input with activities based on texts selected from authentic sources, can be beneficial for language awareness development.

Akbari and Razavi (2015) carried out a study about the attitudes of teachers toward using authentic materials and supported the effectiveness of authentic materials in the process of teaching and learning. 75 "The results revealed that all of the teachers had positive attitudes toward providing authentic input in their classes….the reason for such an attitude was to improve students' skills and expose them to the real English language" (Akbari and Razavi, 2015).

<u>Activities</u>

<u>Curriculum Design</u>

<u>Curriculum Design:</u>

1. What is curriculum design, and why is it a critical aspect of educational planning?

2. How does the process of curriculum design ensure alignment with learning objectives and educational standards?

3. How can technology and digital resources be integrated into curriculum design to enhance learning experiences?

4. Explain the concept of interdisciplinary curriculum design and its benefits for students.

5. How does a student-centered approach influence the decisions made during curriculum design?

6. Discuss the importance of ongoing assessment and reflection in refining and improving a curriculum.

Curriculum Designers:

1. Who are curriculum designers, and what role do they play in shaping educational programs?

2. Describe the key skills and qualities that effective curriculum designers should possess.

3. How do curriculum designers collaborate with educators, subject matter experts, and other stakeholders to create comprehensive curricula?

4. Provide examples of how curriculum designers incorporate pedagogical research and educational theories into their work.

5. What ethical considerations might curriculum designers face while making decisions about content, resources, and assessments?

6. Explain the challenges and opportunities associated with designing curricula for online or blended learning environments.

Types of Curricula:

7. Define and differentiate between the hidden, formal, and enacted curricula.

8. Explain the concept of a "spiral curriculum" and how it contrasts with a "linear curriculum."

9. Describe the characteristics of a subject-centered curriculum and discuss its advantages and limitations.

10. What is a problem-based curriculum, and how does it encourage critical thinking and problem-solving skills?

11. Provide examples of interdisciplinary and integrated curricula, highlighting how they connect various subjects.

12. How does a competency-based curriculum differ from a content-centered curriculum?

13. Discuss the importance of cultural responsiveness when designing curricula for diverse student populations.

References

Akbari, O. & Razavi, A. (2015). Using Authentic Materials in the Foreign Language Classrooms: Teachers' Perspectives in EFL Classes. (2016, 5.2)

Baleghizadeh, S. (2012). Grammatical syllabus and EFL textbooks: the need for consciousness raising activities. Per-Linguam28(1):111-116 http://dx.doi.org/10.5785/28-1-123. Bourke, J. (2006). Designing a topic-based syllabus for young learners. ELT Journal 60 (3) July 2006

Brown, D. (1995). Teaching by Principles-An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy. Prentice Hall.

Candlin, C. (1984): "Syllabus Design as a Critical Process." in Brumfit, C. J. (Ed): General English Syllabus Design, ELT Documents 118. London, Pergamon Press/British Council. 29 -46. Cullen, R. (2008). Teaching grammar as a liberating force. ELT Journal. 62:221-230.

Clarke, D. F. (1989), 'Materials adaptation: why leave it all to the teacher?', ELT Journal, 43 (2), 133–41

Crawford, J. (1995). The Role of Materials in the Language Classroom: Finding the Balance. TESOL in Context 5.1

Crawford, J. (1995). The Role of Materials in the Language Classroom: Finding the Balance. TESOL in Context 5.1

Cunningsworth, A. (1995). Choosing Your Coursebook. London: Longman

Ellis, R. (1993). The Structural Syllabus and Second Language Acquisition. TESOL Quarterly, 27 (1). pp. 91-113. doi: 10.2307/3586953.

Ellis, R. (2003) Task-based language learning and teaching. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Grant, N. (1978). Making the most of your textbook. Harlow, UK: Longman.

Islam, C. and C. Mares (2003). Adapting classroom materials. In B. Tomlinson (ed): Developing Materials for Language Teaching. London: Continuum, 86-100.

Kerr, J.F. (1968), The problem of curriculum reform. In J.F. Kerr (Ed.), Changing the curriculum (pp. 13-38). London, UK: University of London Press.

Livingstone, R.W. (1941), The future in education. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press

Long, M. & Crookes, G. (1992). Three Approaches to Task-Based Syllabus Design. TESOL Quarterly, 26 (1), spring 1992, Pages 27–56

Madsen, K. S. and Bowen, J. D. (1978), Adaptation in Language Teaching. Boston: Newbury House.

Madsen, K. S. and J. D. Bowen (1978). Adaptation in Language Teaching. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Materials and methods in ELT: a teacher's guide/ Jo McDonough, Christopher Shaw, and Hitomi Masuhara. -Third edition(2013)

McGrath, I. (2002). Materials Evaluation and Design for Language Teaching. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

McGrath, I. (2002).Materials evaluation and design for language teaching. Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.

McGrath, I. (2013). Teaching Materials and the Roles of EFL/ESL Teachers. London: Bloomsbury.85

Nunan, D. (1988). Syllabus Design. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Pages 34-38 | Published online: 23 Aug 2006.

Nunan, D. (1999). Second language teaching and learning. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.

Nunan, D. (2001). Teaching grammar in context. In Candlin, C & N Mercer (Eds.). English language teaching in its social context. London, UK: Routledge. 191-199.

O'Neill,Robert.1982.Whyusetextbooks?ELT Journal36(2).Reprinted in Richard Rossner and RodBolitho,eds.1990.CurrentsofChangein English Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford UniversityPress.148-156.

Prabhu, N. (1992). "The Dynamics of the Language Learning Lesson." TESOL Quarterly, 26(2).

Riazi, M. and Mosallanejad, N. (2010). Evaluation of Learning Objectives in Iranian High-School and Pre-University English Textbooks Using Bloom's Taxonomy. TESL-EJ 13.4

Richards, J. (2001). Curriculum development in language teaching. New York, Cambridge University Press.

Stenhouse, L. (1975), An introduction to curriculum research and development. London, UK: Heinemann. 40. Taba, H. (1962), Curriculum development: Theory and practice. New York, NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich. 41. Toulmin, S. (2001), Return to reason. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. 42.

Tyler, R. W. (1949), Basic principles of curriculum and instruction. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Tomlinson, B. (1998). Materials Development in Language Teaching. 2nd edition. Cambridge University Press, UK.

Tomlinson, B. (2003c): Materials evaluation. In B. Tomlinson (ed) Developing Materials for Language Teaching. London: Continuum, 15-36.

Tomlinson, B. (2012). Materials Development for Language Learning and Teaching:: Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Tomlinson, B. and H. Masuhara (2004): Developing Language Course Materials. Singapore: RELC.

Tomlinson, B., & Masuhara, H. (2018). *The complete guide to the theory and practice of materials development for language learning*. John Wiley & Sons, Incorporated.

Ur, P. (2000). A course in language teaching: practice and theory. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

White, G. (1998). Listening. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Willis, J. (1996). A framework for task-based learning. Harlow, UK: Longman Pearson.

Chapter Five: Assessment

5.1. Definition of Assessment

(O"Farrel, 2009, p. 23) explains that assessment can be defined as the systematic and ongoing method of gathering, analyzing and using information from measured outcomes to improve student learning in terms of knowledge acquired, understanding developed, and skills and competencies gained. According to (Nasab, 2015, p.166), assessment is an informal gathering of information about the students' state-of-the-art knowledge through various ways of collecting information at various times and in different contexts

By using assessment, teachers can monitor and help students" learning progress. It also provides students with evidence of their progress and improves motivation, monitors teacher"s performance and plan next work and enables to provide information for parents, colleges, school authorities (Georgiou & Pavlou, 2003 p.5-6)

Assessment is an integral part of the teaching and learning process. Didactics of English teaching and learning emphasizes the importance of using various assessment methods and techniques to evaluate learners' progress, provide constructive feedback, and inform instructional decisions. This helps teachers monitor individual and group performance, identify areas for improvement, and design appropriate interventions.

According to Collins and O"Brien (2003), assessment in the broad sense means any methods used to better understand the current knowledge that a student possesses. In addition, Crooks 2 (2001) stated that assessment is any process that provides information about the thinking, achievement or progress of students. Davidge-Johnston (2007) observes, however, that using traditional assessment models can be problematic because it is difficult to measure validly learning

model as tools designed for a completely different model. Hodges (2008) states „these aspects of learning do not fit neatly into proscribed and specific learning outcomesʻ

5.2.The Role of Assessment

Assessment plays a crucial role in the education process it determines much of the work students undertake, affects their approach to learning and, it can be argued, is an indication of which aspects of the course are valued most highly (Rust, 2002, p. 2). Frank (2012, p. 32) holds that "it should be seen as a means to help them guide students on their road to learning"

(OʻʻFarrel, p. 3) states that the role of assessment are as follows:

1) To determine that the intended learning outcomes of the course are being achieved.

2) To provide feedback to students on their learning, enabling them to improve their performance.

) To motivate students to undertake appropriate work.

4) To support and guide learning.

5) To describe student attainment, informing decisions on progression and awards.

6) To demonstrate that appropriate standards are being maintained.

7) To evaluate the effectiveness of teaching

5.3.Types of Assessment : In general, there are several types of assessment, they are:

5.3.1.Informal assessment

Brown stated that Informal assessment can take a number of form, starting with incidental, unplanned comments and responses, along with coaching and other impromptu feedback to the student (Brown,2003)

5.3.2.Formal assessment

They are systematic, planned sampling techniques constructed to give teacher and student an appraisal of students achievement.

5.3.3.Summative Assessment

Summative assessment is kind of assignment or task that conducted at the end of learning process. Summative assessment is used for grading. Some functions of summative assessment include grading or ranking students, passing or failing students and telling students what they have achieved, (McAlpine & Higgison, 2001, as cited in Iahad, et al., 2004)

5.3.4.Formative Assessment

As mention in May (2000), McAlpine & Higgison (2001) and Brown et al. (1997) as cited in Iahad et al. (2004), they argued that formative assessment is sets at first or during learning process; on the other hand, formative assessment is assessment that promotes learning. It is designed to assist the learning process by providing feedback to the learner, which can be used to highlight areas for further study and performance improvement.

5.3.5.Traditional Assessment

5.3.5.1. Definition of Traditional Assessment

The term of Traditional assessment is pencil-and-paper based test. Traditional assessment can be defined as evaluations that include standardized and classroom achievement tests with mostly closed-ended items, such as true/false, multiple choice, and fill-in-the blanks **(Belle, 1999).** Generally, Frank (2012, p. 3) traditional assessment is "the most common way to measure achievement and proficiency in language learning"

5.3.5.2. Types of Traditional Assessment

a. Multiple-choices

Davis (2009) describes multiple-choice items can be used to measure both simple knowledge and complex concepts. Since multiple choice questions can be answered quickly, you can assess students' mastery of many topics on an hour exam

b. Essay

The essay is most common in writing class.**(Rust 2002, p.3)** claims that two dangers with essays are easy to plagiarize, and that undue weight is often given to factors such as style, handwriting and especially in language class that also focus on grammar of target language.

c. True-false Tests

d. Matching Tests

e. Short-answer question

5. 3.6.Alternative Assessment

5.3.6.1.1. Definition of Alternative Assessment

According to Janisch et al. (2002, p.221) that Alternative assessment is situated in the classroom with teachers making choices in the measures used and also based on a constructivist view of learning whereby the student, the text, and the context impact learning outcomes. The term alternative assessment also refers to "almost" any type of assessment other than standardized tests (Brawley, 2009, p. 1)

Alternative assessment came into vogue as the effect of testing on curriculum and instruction was visualized (**Dietel, et al., 1991 as cited in Nasab, 2015**) Furthermore, Nasab (2015) cited Lew & Eckes (1995) reveals that alternative assessment presents new ways of motivating and inspiring learners to explore and exploit dimensions of themselves as well as the world around them.

5.3.6.2.Types of Alternative Assessment

a. Computer-Based test

b. Portfolio

Depending on the educational context and task requirements, portfolios can take the form of an electronic 21 text, a digital recording, an artistic production, a clinical journal, or any number of other appropriate media formats (Lombardi, 2008). This kind of assessment calls for more responsibility on the part of the students and more commitment on the part of the teachers (Bailey, 1998, as cited in Nasab, 2015).

C. Project

Dikli (2003) point out that project can be created individually or as a group. They can possess authenticity and real life related concepts as well as prior experience of the learners. Any type of method that display what student know about a specific topic, i.e. development of plans, art work, research proposals, multimedia presentations, is considered as project. They present with various forms, such as multimedia presentation, role-play, and written report.

Activities

Assessment:

Formative Assessment Activities:

Act One: Think-Pair-Share: Try to focus on the lesson of today, prepare a question , think about it individually, then discuss your thoughts with a partner, and finally share your ideas with the whole class.

Act Two: At the end of a lesson, try to write down one thing you learned or one question you can formulate on the lesson

Act Three: Concept Mapping: create a concept map that illustrates the relationships between key concepts in the lesson you have been taught.

Act. Four: Peer Teaching: Prepare a part of a lesson that you will teach to your peers.

Act Five: Formative Assessment Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the main points you've learned from today's lesson?

2. Can you explain some of the concepts you learnt in your own words?

3. How could you apply what you've learned in a real-life situation?

Act Six: Summative Assessment Activities:

2. **Multiple-Choice Test:**

Create a test with multiple-choice questions that cover the key concepts of the entire Lesson.

3. Project Presentation:

Work in Pairs and try to create a presentation that showcases your understanding of the subject matter. This could include visuals, explanations, and real-world examples.

4. Portfolio Submission:

Compile a portfolio mirroring your individual work throughout the lesson, demonstrating your progress and understanding of the presented material.

Performance Task: Assign a task that requires students to apply their knowledge and skills in a practical, hands-on way.

Summative Assessment Questions:

1. Explain the main concepts covered in this unit.
2. Compare and contrast two key theories or approaches related to this topic.
3. Analyze the significance of [specific event or concept] in the context of the material we've covered.
4. Apply the theories we've learned to a real-world scenario and describe the potential outcomes.
5. Evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of [specific concept, theory, or approach].

Questions on Syllabus and Syllabus Design

1. What is the purpose of a syllabus, and why is it important for both teachers and students?

2. How does a well-structured syllabus contribute to effective classroom management and student learning?

3. What key components should be included in a syllabus to provide students with a clear understanding of the course?

4. How can a syllabus be designed to align with learning objectives and instructional methods?

5. Why is it important to communicate grading policies, assessment methods, and expectations in the syllabus?

6. How might you adapt a syllabus to accommodate diverse learning needs and different student backgrounds?

7. In what ways can a syllabus foster a positive classroom environment and encourage student engagement?

Activities on Evaluation vs. Assessment:

1. Explain the difference between assessment and evaluation in an educational context.

2. How do formative and summative assessments differ in terms of purpose, timing, and impact on learning?

3. Describe how assessment can be used to guide instruction and improve learning outcomes.

4. What role does feedback play in both evaluation and assessment processes?

5. How might evaluation focus more on assigning grades, while assessment focuses on understanding students' progress and learning?

6. Provide examples of how assessment can inform instructional decisions to meet students' individual needs.

7. Discuss the ethical considerations and potential challenges associated with high-stakes evaluations.

Questions/Activities on the Curriculum:

1. What is the significance of a well-designed curriculum in an educational setting?

2. How does curriculum development relate to learning objectives and educational standards?

3. Explain the difference between a traditional, skills-based, and competency-based curriculum.

4. How can a curriculum be adapted to address the needs of diverse learners, including those with different abilities and backgrounds?

5. Why is it important for a curriculum to evolve and adapt over time?

6. Provide examples of how real-world issues and current events can be integrated into a curriculum to enhance relevance and engagement.

References

Belle, D. (1995). Traditional Assessment Versus Alternative Assessment. Journal of Education. Retrieved from http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED431012.

Brown H. Douglas. (2003). Language Assessment Principles and Classroom Practice. White Plains, NY:Pearson Education.

Brawley, N. (2009). Authentic Assessment Vs. Traditional Assessment: a Comparative Study. Journal of Education. Retrieved from https://www.coastal.edu/media

Dikli, S. (2003). Assessment at Adistance: Traditional Vs Alternative Assessment. Journal of Educational Technology, 2(3) 13-19. Retrieved from http://www.tojet.net/articles/232.pdf.

Davis, B., G. (2009). Types of Tests. Retrieved from: http://www.trincoll.edu

Davidge-Johnston, N. L. (2007). Conceptions of curriculum in co-operative education: A framework for analysis of the co-op preparatory curriculum (Doctoral dissertation, Faculty of Education-Simon Fraser University).

Frank, J. (2012). The Roles of Assessment in Language Teaching. Retrieved from: http://files.eric.ed.gov/

Iahad, N (2004, May). Evaluation of online assessment: the role of feedback in learner-centered e-learning. Proceedings of the 37th Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences, Hawaii.

Lombardi, M. M (2008). Making the grade: the role of assessment in authentic learning. Educause Learning Initiative, 1, 1-16.

Nasab. G., F. (2015). Alternative Versus Traditional Assessment. Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research. 2(6) 165-178. Retrieved from http://www.jallr.ir.

O"farrel, C. (2002). Enhancing student learning through assessment. Dublin: Irlandia, Dublin Institute of Technology.

Rust, C. (2002). Purposes and Principles of Assessment. Retrieved from: https://www.brookes.ac.uk/services/.../p_p_assessment.pdf

Card, N. A., & Hodges, E. V. (2008). Peer victimization among schoolchildren: Correlations, causes, consequences, and considerations in assessment and intervention. School psychology quarterly, 23(4), 451

Georgiou-Loannou, S., & Pavlou, P. (2003). Assessing Young Learners.