

EFL Teaching

by Leffi Noviyenty

Submission date: 22-Sep-2022 10:30AM (UTC+0700)

Submission ID: 1905928038

File name: Buku_Utuh_EFL_Teaching.pdf (2.37M)

Word count: 36842

Character count: 197427

TEFL

TEACHING ENGLISH AS
A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

LEFFI NOVIYENTY, M. Pd

STAIN CURUP



TEFL

**TEACHING ENGLISH AS
A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

LEFFI NOVIYENTY, M. Pd

STAIN CURUP

Leffi Noviyenti

Teaching English as a Foreign Language

ISBN : 978-602-8772-61-7

Editor :Prihantoro

Hak Cipta 2013 Pada Penulis

Dilarang memperbanyak sebagian atau seluruhnya dalam bentuk apapun tanpa izin penerbit.

Diterbitkan pertama kali oleh LP2 STAIN Curup

Jl. AK. Gani No. 1 Curup

Rejang Lebong - Bengkulu

Cetakan pertama, Februari 2012

Cetakan kedua, februari 2014

Cetakan ketiga, September 2015

Alhamdulillah pu¹⁴²ukur kehadiran Allah SWT, yang selalu dan terus menerus melimpahkan rahmat dan hidayah-Nya sehingga buku ini dapat diselesaikan.

Buku ini diharapkan dapat membantu mahasiswa STAIN Curup khususnya mahasiswa Program Studi Tadris Bahasa Inggris dalam memahami dan menguasai teori dan teknik pengajaran bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing secara praktis baik secara lisan maupun tertulis. Disamping itu semoga buku ini juga dapat menjadi tambahan wawasan bagi para tenaga pengajar tidak hanya di Prodi PBI.

Penghormatan yang tinggi penulis tujukan kepada Ketua STAIN Curup atas dukungan kesempatan untuk mengembangkan potensi keilmuan penulis. Terima kasih kepada rekan-rekan dosen lainnya khususnya di Program Studi Tadris Bahasa Inggris atas *support*, ide, saran dan kritik yang berharganya. Juga kepada semua pihak yang telah meluangkan waktu demi selesainya buku ini.

Berbagai kekurangan dan kelemahan pada buku ini, penulis mohonkan semoga Allah mengampuni. Seiring dengan permohonan maaf atas kealpaan, penulis sangat mengharapkan saran dan kritik dari semua pihak agar selanjutnya akan jauh lebih baik. Besar harapan penulis agar buku ini bermanfaat bagi kita semua. Amin.

Curup, Oktober 2022,
Penulis
Dr. Leffi Noviyenty, M. Pd.

Big Hug and Deep kisses to My Heroes, My fresh breath, My fantastic sons:

Azzam Al Farras Fawwaz Ziddan (Ziddan)

Aufa Azka Sakha Az Zhaffir (Kaka)

and

Keynan Af Fathin Siraj (Key)

Huge thanks to My Love:

Fakhruddin, M. Pd. I

For his patient and understanding.

Sembah Sujud to:

Papa Ridwan and Mama Yani (almrmh)

For every single thing that they have done to me and I miss u much Mom.

CONTENT

Cover	i
Kata pengantar	ii
Content	iii

Introduction

A. Latar Belakang Penulisan	1
B. Sistematika dan Isi Buku	2

Part One

Teaching by Principles

Chapter 1

Teaching by Principles (Cognitive, Affective and Linguistic Principles)	12
---	----

Chapter 2

Integrating the Four skills	18
-----------------------------------	----

Chapter 3

Interactive Language Teaching	32
-------------------------------------	----

Chapter 4

Classroom Practicalities	47
--------------------------------	----

Chapter 5

Successful Teaching	66
---------------------------	----

Chapter 6

Communicative Competence in Language Teaching	91
--	----

Chapter 7

Language Learners' Strategies	95
-------------------------------------	----

Part Two

Teaching the Language	114
Chapter 1	
Teaching English grammar	115
Chapter 2	
Teaching English Vocabulary	123
Chapter 3	
Teaching Speaking	128
Chapter 4	
Teaching Reading	135
Chapter 5	
Teaching Writing	158

Part Three

Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching

Techniques in Teaching English 1

A. The Grammar Translation Method	166
B. The Direct Method	167
C. The Audio Lingual method	168
D. The Silent Way	169

Techniques in teaching English 2

A. Gestopedia	173
B. Community Language Learning	175
C. The Total Physical Response	177
D. The Communicative Approach	179

References	184
Biodata	189

Introduction

A. Latar Belakang Penulisan

Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing memerlukan strategi dan teknik khusus agar pemahaman mahasiswa berjalan searah dengan tujuan pengajaran Bahasa Inggris itu sendiri. Sebagai salah satu mata kuliah wajib dan prasyarat *Micro Teaching*, TEFL (*Teaching English as a Foreign Language*) memegang peranan penting dalam mengemban misi program studi yakni mendidik mahasiswanya menjadi pengajar Bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing serta mengaplikasikan tujuan pengajaran Bahasa Inggris itu sendiri baik secara langsung maupun tidak.

Banyaknya buku TEFL yang dijumpai di pasaran, baik yang berbahasa Indonesia, hasil terjemahan maupun yang berbahasa Inggris, masih mendiskusikan prinsip-prinsip dasar dan teori universal tentang pengajaran Bahasa Inggris, belum menggambarkan secara jelas dan sederhana poin-poin penting yang harus diperhatikan dan diterapkan dalam pengajaran, sehingga mahasiswa masih perlu menganalisa lebih dalam dan menemukan sendiri bentuk teknis tersebut. Selanjutnya mahasiswa perlu secara cerdas pula menyesuaikan prinsip dan teori tersebut secara kontekstual. Buku dasar TEFL ini menyajikan aplikasi teknis dan uraian singkat dari aspek-aspek teoritis dan universal tersebut, dengan menggunakan Bahasa Inggris sederhana yang cukup

mudah difahami. Bahkan di beberapa poin, penulis menggunakan Bahasa Indonesia untuk memperjelas pemahaman.

Lebih jauh lagi, buku ini ditulis tidak hanya dengan merujuk pada banyak referensi saja tetapi juga berdasarkan pengalaman penulis sendiri sebagai dosen TEFL. Beberapa masalah yang selalu dipertanyakan mahasiswa tentang TEFL juga menjadi bagian pembahasan buku ini. Sebagai contoh, mahasiswa kesulitan menganalisa kelemahan dan kelebihan setiap metode pengajaran, maka pada bagian tiga buku ini, penulis menempatkan analisa penulis sendiri tentang hal tersebut. Perbandingan setiap metode dijelaskan melalui tabel-tabel.

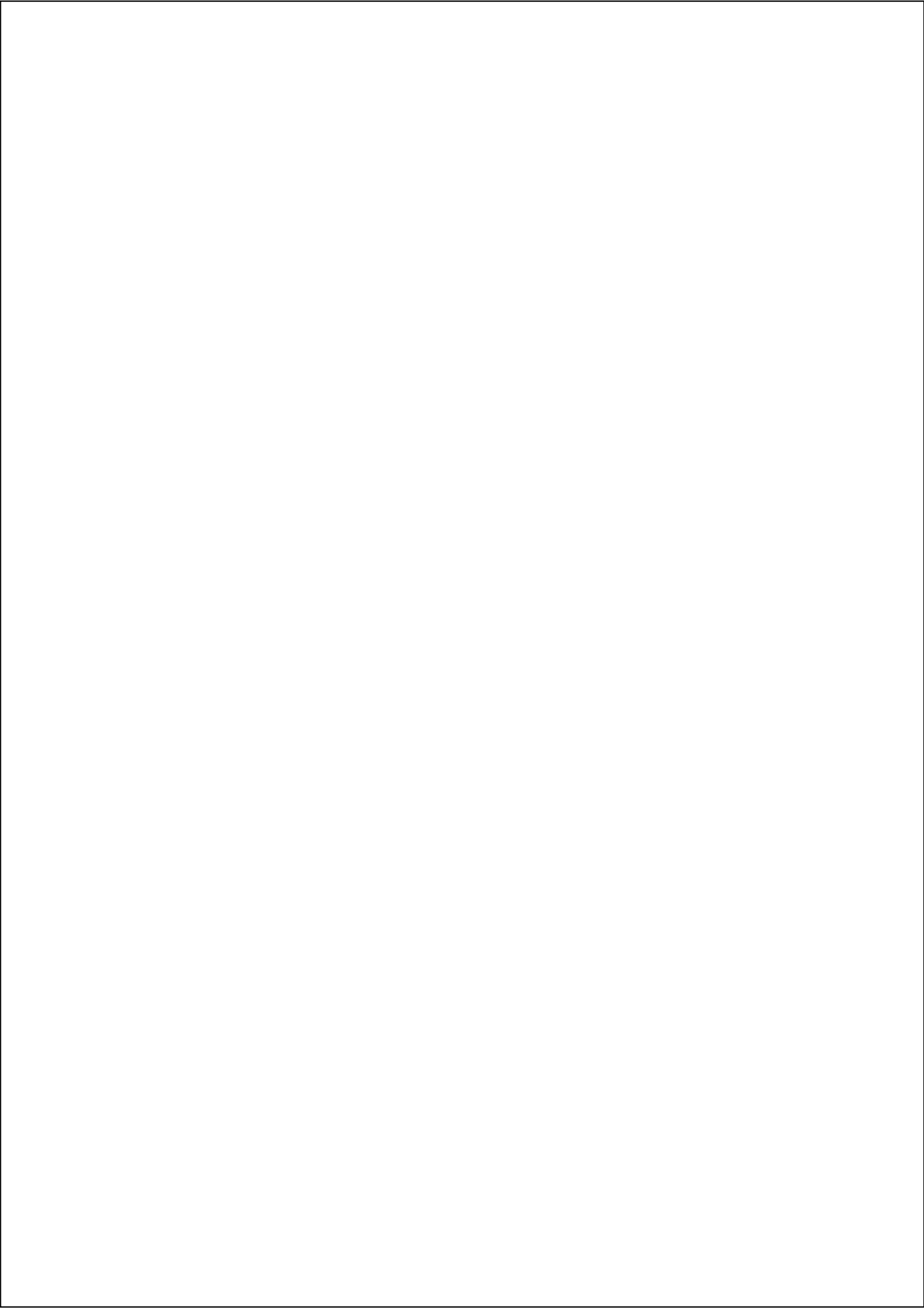
Akhirnya diharapkan agar buku dasar TEFL ini menjadi referensi yang lebih mudah difahami mahasiswa khususnya bagi mahasiswa Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris STAIN Curup.

B. Sistematika dan Isi Buku

Part One

Teaching by Principles

Bagian ini terdiri dari 7 *chapter* atau bab yang menguraikan dengan jelas dan rinci teori-teori dan prinsip-prinsip pengajaran Bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing. Teori dan prinsip tersebut meliputi metode, teknik dan aktivitas di kelas, yang melibatkan tidak hanya pembelajar (*learners*) tetapi juga pengajar (*teachers/educators*) serta materi (*lessons*).



Akan dibahas juga strategi belajar (*learner strategies*) sebagai salah satu aspek penunjang keberhasilan pengajaran Bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing. Materi ini sekaligus menguatkan pendapat penulis bahwa sangat penting bagi guru bahasa asing untuk juga mengajarkan strategi belajar bahasa asing di kelas. Prinsip dasar pengajaran Bahasa Inggris di Indonesia yang dimuat dalam kurikulum sekolah menengah sebagai panduan utama, yakni kompetensi komunikatif (*Communicative Competence*) juga akan diuraikan dengan lebih sederhana dan jelas, sehingga pembaca faham tujuan pengajaran Bahasa Inggris yang sebenarnya.

Bagian satu buku dasar ini dirancang untuk mencapai tujuan pengajaran mata kuliah TEFL di Program Studi *Tadris* Bahasa Inggris yakni mahasiswa diharapkan menguasai teori-teori dan prinsip pengajaran Bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing (metode, teknik, aktivitas belajar, serta strategi belajar).

Secara rinci 7 *chapter* yang ada pada bab ini adalah sebagai berikut:

1. *Teaching by Principles*
(*Cognitive, Affective and Linguistic Principles*)
2. *Integrating the "Four Skills"*
3. *Interactive Language Teaching*
4. *Learner Strategy Training*
5. *Classroom Practicalities*
 - a. *Plan a lesson*
 - b. *Classroom management*
6. *Communicative Competence in Language Teaching*
7. *Successful Teaching*

- a. *Motivation, planning the classroom, and classroom activities*
- b. *Teaching materials, involving the students, homework*

Part Two

Teaching the Language

Bagian dua buku ini juga terdiri dari 7 *chapter* yang memuat teori dan aplikasi sederhana tentang bagaimana mengajarkan Bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing untuk tiap keahlian berbahasa yang meliputi tujuan, prinsip umum, dan strategi serta teknik mengembangkan tiap keahlian berbahasa tersebut. Bagian ini merupakan jabaran teknis teori dan prinsip pengajaran yang terdapat pada bab sebelumnya. Yang terpenting adalah contoh bentuk-bentuk aktivitas kelas sebagai performa pengajaran yang secara langsung dapat diterapkan, baik dari metode yang dipilih, teknik yang disesuaikan dengan konteks kelas serta variasi aktivitas yang disesuaikan dengan tema dan pokok bahasan tiap pertemuan.

Bagian ini akan membantu mahasiswa merancang model pengajaran terpadu (*integrated language teaching*) , karena akan juga diuraikan dengan jelas dan transparan bagaimana prinsip *Communicative Competence* (pada bab 1) diterapkan dalam pengajaran setiap keahlian berbahasa Inggris.

Bagian dua dirancang untuk memenuhi tujuan pengajaran mata kuliah TEFL yakni mahasiswa diharapkan mampu menerapkan metode mengajar Bahasa Inggris dan selanjutnya merancang strategi, teknik dan aktivitas kelas, sesuai dengan prinsip metode yang digunakan, baik untuk pengajaran tiap keahlian (*skill*) berbahasa maupun pengajaran Bahasa Inggris secara integratif.

Secara rinci 5 *chapter* yang ada pada bab ini adalah sebagai berikut:

1. *Teaching English Grammar*
2. *Teaching English Vocabulary*
3. *Teaching Speaking*
4. *Teaching Reading*
5. *Teaching Writing*

Part Three

Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching

Bagian ini akan terdiri dari 2 *chapter* yang tiap *chapter*nya memuat 4 metode beserta teknik dan contoh aplikasi keduanya pada aktivitas kelas. Ada 8 metode yang diuraikan berdasarkan urutan masa keemasan penggunaannya, yakni masa dimana diperoleh keberhasilan yang cukup signifikan saat diterapkan pada kelas Bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing. Akan dijelaskan juga kelebihan serta kelemahan tiap metode. Bagian tiga ini akan semakin memperkuat pemahaman mahasiswa akan definisi dan perbedaan metode, strategi dan teknik pengajaran Bahasa Inggris. Bagian ini juga akan memuat contoh aplikasi aktivitas kelas tiap metode dan teknik yang disesuaikan dengan tema dan pokok bahasan. Contoh-contoh tersebut akan membantu mahasiswa menguraikan prinsip dasar tiap metode dan teknik serta mengenali karakter tiap metode dan teknik itu sendiri.

Bagian tiga ini dirancang untuk membantu mencapai tujuan pengajaran mata kuliah TEFL yakni Mahasiswa diharapkan mampu menganalisa kelebihan dan kelemahan berbagai metode, teknik dan aktivitas

pengajaran Bahasa Inggris untuk dapat memilih metode dan teknik yang paling sesuai dengan konteks pengajaran yang mereka hadapi.

Secara rinci 2 *chapter* pada bagian ini sebagai berikut:

1. *Techniques in Teaching English (1)*
 - a. *The Grammar Translation Method*
 - b. *The Direct Method*
 - c. *The Audio-Lingual Method*
 - d. *The Silent Way*
2. *Techniques in Teaching English (2)*
 - a. *Suggestopedia*
 - b. *Community Language Learning*
 - c. *The Total Physical Response (TPR)*
 - d. *The Communicative Approach*

Part One

Teaching by principle

Chapter I

Teaching by Principles **(Cognitive, Affective and Linguistic Principles)**

In *Principle of Language Learning and Teaching* (Brown 2000), I note that the last two decades of research produced a complex storehouse of information on second language. We have discovered a great deal about how to best teach a second language in the classroom, and while many mysteries still remain about why and how learners successfully acquire second language, it is appropriate for you to focus on what we do know, what we have learned, and what we can say with some certainty about second language acquisition. We can then clearly see that a great many of a teacher's choices are grounded in establishing connection between practice and theory. By integrating both theory and practice, your teaching is likely "enlightened".

73

We will now take a broad, sweeping look at twelve overarching principles of second language learning that interact with sound practice and on which your teaching can be based. These principles form the core of an approach to language teaching. It may be helpful for you, as you are reading, to check referenced sections of PLLT (Brown 2000) to refresh your memory of certain terms and background information

Cognitive principles¹

We will call the first set of principle "cognitive" because they relate mainly to mental and intellectual functions. In this resume spill across somewhat arbitrary cognitive, affective and linguistic boundaries.

Principle 1:

Automaticity

We will call our first principle of language learning and teaching the principle of automaticity and include under this rubric the importance of:

1. subconscious absorption of language through meaningful use,
2. efficient and rapid movement away from a focus on the forms of language to a focus on the purposes to which language is put,
3. efficient and rapid movement away from a capacity-limited control of a few bits and pieces to a relatively unlimited automatic mode of processing language form, and
4. resistance to the temptation to analyze form.

The principle of automaticity may be stated as follow²: Efficient second language learning involves a timely movement of the control of language forms into the automatic processing of a relatively unlimited number of language forms. Overanalyzing language, thinking too much about its forms, and consciously lingering on rules of language all tend to impede this graduation to automaticity.

¹ Brown, H. Douglas. *Teaching by Principles*. 1994. Prentice Hall Inc. New York. P. 16.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 17

What does this principle, which ordinarily applies to adult instruction, mean to you as teacher? Here are some possibilities:

1. Because classroom learning normally begins with controlled, focal processing there is no mandate to entirely avoid overt attentions to language systems (grammar, phonology, discourse, etc.)
2. Make sure that a large proportion of your lessons are focused on the "use" of language for purposes that are as genuine as a classroom context will permit. Students will gain more language competence in the long run if the functional purposes of language are the focal point
3. Automaticity isn't gained overnight, therefore, you need to exercise patience with student as you slowly help them to achieve fluency

Principle 2:

Meaningful learning³

Closely related to the principle of automaticity are cognitive theories of learning, which convincingly argue the strength of meaningful as opposed to rote learning (Ausubel 1963). Meaningful learning "subsumes" new information into existing structures and memory system, the resulting associative link create stronger retention. Rote learning-taking in isolated bits and pieces of information that are not connected with one's existing cognitive structures- has little change of creating long-term retention. The principle of meaningful learning is quite simply stated: Meaningful learning will lead toward better long-term retention than rote learning.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 18

The principle of meaningful learning tells us that some aural-oral drilling is appropriate, selected phonological element like phonemes, rhythm, stress, and intonation, for example, can indeed be taught effectively through pattern repetition. But drilling and rehearsal easily lends itself to rote learning.

Some classroom implications of the principle of meaningful learning:

1. Capitalize on the power of meaningful learning by appealing to students' interest, academic goals, and career goals.
2. Whenever **90** new topic or concept is introduced, attempt to anchor it in student's existing knowledge and background so that it becomes associated with something they already know.
3. Avoid the pitfalls of rote learning:
 - a. too much grammar explanation
 - b. too many abstract principles and theories
 - c. too much drilling and/ memorization
 - d. activities whose purposes are not clear
 - e. activities that do not contribute to accomplishing the goals of the lesson, unit, or course.
 - f. techniques that are so mechanics instead of on the language or meanings.

Principle 3:

The anticipation of reward⁴

The basic idea of this principle is that rewards have significant impact on one's behavior. As a matter of fact, any activities we do are driven by a sense of purpose or goal. Thus, anticipating rewards will be a powerful factor in

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 19

directing behavior. The principle of anticipation of reward can be stated as follows: Human beings are universally driven to act or “behave,” by the anticipation of some sort of reward-tangible or intangible, short term or long term-that will ensue as a result of the behavior.

Considering all sides of the reward principle, the following constructive classroom implications may be drawn:

1. Provide an optimal degree of immediate verbal praise and encouragement in them as a form of short-term reward (just enough to keep them confident in their ability but not so much that your praise simply becomes verbal gush)
2. Encourage students to reward each other with compliments and supportive actions
3. In classes with very low motivations, short-term reminders of progress may help students to perceive their development.
4. Display enthusiasm and excitement yourself in the classroom. If you are dull, life less, bored, and have low energy, you can be almost sure that it will be contagious
5. Try to get learners to see the long-term reward in learning English by pointing out what they can do with English where they live and around the knowing English, jobs that require English, and so on.

Principle 4:

Intrinsic motivation

The intrinsic motivations are the most powerful rewards are those that are intrinsically motivated within the learner. Because the behavior stems from needs, wants, or

desires within oneself, the behavior itself is self-rewarding., therefore, no externally administered reward is necessary.

Why such a principle is listed among: cognitive” principle? The development of intrinsic motivation does indeed involve affective processing, as most of these first five principles do, and so the argument is appropriate. But reward-directed behavior in all organisms is complex to the point that cognitive, physical, and affective processing are all involved.

Principle 5:

Strategic investment

Strategic investment is successful mastery of the second language will be due to a large extent to a learner’s own personal” investment” of time, effort, and attention to the second language in the form of an individualized battery of strategies for comprehending and producing the language.

Where practical classroom applications are made? For the time being, however, ponder two major pedagogy implications of the principle (122a) the importance of recognizing and dealing with the wide variety of styles and strategies that learners successfully bring to the learning process and therefore. (b) the need for attentions to each separate individual in the classroom.

As research on successful language has dramatically shown, the variation among learners poses a theory pedagogical dilemma. Learning styles signal numerous learner preferences that a teacher needs to attend to. For example, visual vs. auditory preference and individual vs. group work preference are highly significant factors in a classroom. In a related strain of research, we are finding that learners also employ a multiplicity of strategies for

sending and receiving language and that one learner's strategies for success may differ markedly from another's

A teacher's greatest dilemma is how to attend to each individual student in a class while still reaching the class as a whole group. In relatively large classes of 30 to 50 student, individual attention becomes increasingly difficult, in extra-large classes it is virtually impossible. The principle of strategic investment nevertheless is a reminder to provide as much attention as you can each individual student

Affective Principles⁵

1. *Language Ego*

The Language Ego Principle can be summarized in a well-recognized claim:

As human beings learn to use a second language, they also develop a new mode of thinking, feeling, and acting a second identity. The new "language ego," intertwined with the second language, a defensiveness, and a rising of inhibitions.

The language ego principle might also be affectionately called the "warm and fuzzy" principle: all second language learners need to be treated with affective tender loving care. When you first learning a second language and how you sometimes felt silly, if not humiliated, when the lack of words or structures left you helpless in face-to-face communication. Otherwise highly intelligent adults can be reduced to babbling infants in a second language.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 22

How can you bring some relief to this situation and provide affective support? Here are some possibilities.

1. Overtly display a supportive attitude to our students. Your “warm and fuzzy” patience and empathy need to be openly and clearly communicated, for fragile language egos have a way of misinterpreting intended input.
2. On a more mechanical, lesson-planning level, your choice of techniques and sequences of techniques needs to be cognitively challenging but not overwhelming at an affective level.
3. Considering learner’s language ego states will probably help you to determine
 - a. Who to call on
 - b. Who to ask to volunteer information
 - c. When to correct a student’s speech error
 - d. How much to explain something
 - e. How structured and planned an activity should be
 - f. How to place in which small groups or pairs
 - g. How “tough” you can be with a student.
4. If your students are learning English as a second language, they are likely to experience a moderate identity crisis as they develop a “second self. Help such students to understand that the confusion of developing that second self in the second culture is a normal and natural process.

2. *Self-Confidence*

While self-confidence can be linked to the Language Ego Principle above, it goes a step further in emphasizing the importance of the learner’s self-

assessment, regardless of the degree of language-ego involvement. Simply put, we are saying⁶:

65

Learner's belief that they indeed are fully capable of accomplishing a task is at least partially a factor in their eventual success in attaining the task.

Some immediate classroom applications of this principle emerge. First, give ample verbal and nonverbal assurances to students. It helps a student to hear a teacher affirm a belief in the student ability.

Second, sequence the teaching techniques from easier to more difficult. As a teacher you are called on to sustain self-confidence where it already exists and to build it where it doesn't. Your activities in the classroom would therefore logically start with simpler technique and simpler concept.

3. *Risk-taking*

If learners recognize their own ego fragility and develop the firm belief that, they can indeed do it, then they are ready to take those necessary risks. They are ready to try out their newly acquired language, to use it for meaningful purposes, to ask questions, and to assert themselves⁷.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 23

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 24

Successful language learners, in their realistic appraisal of themselves as vulnerable beings yet capable of accomplishing tasks, must be willing to become “gamblers” in the game of language, to attempt to produce and to interpret language that is a bit beyond their absolute certainty.

This principle strikes at the heart of educational philosophy. Many instructional contexts around the world do not encourage risk-taking; instead they encourage correctness, right answers, and withholding “guesses” until one is sure to be correct. How can your classroom reflect the Principle of Risk-Taking?

1. Create an atmosphere in the classroom that encourages students to try out language, to venture a response, and to wait for someone else to volunteer language.
2. Provide reasonable challenges in your techniques-make them neither too easy nor too hard.
3. Help your students to understand what calculated risk-taking is, lest some feel that they must blurt out any old response
4. Respond to students „risky attempts with positive affirmation, praising them for trying while at the same time warmly but firmly attending to their language.

4. *The Language-Culture Connection*

This principle focuses on the complex interconnection of language and culture:

Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a complex system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling, and acting.

Classroom applications include the following:

1. Discuss cross-cultural differences with your students, emphasizing that no culture is “better” than another, but that cross-cultural understanding is an important facet of learning a language.
2. Include among your techniques certain activities and materials that illustrate the connection between language and culture.
3. Teach your students the cultural connotations, especially the sociolinguistic aspects of language.
4. Screen your techniques for material that may be culturally offensive.
5. Make explicit to your students what you may take for granted in your own culture.

A second aspect of the Language-Culture Connection is the extent to which your students themselves be affected by the process of **acculturation**, which will vary with the context and the goals of learning. In such cases, acculturation, social distance, and psychological adjustment are factors to be dealt with. This aspect of the principle may be summed up in this way:

Especially in “second” language learning context, the success with learners adapt to a new cultural milieu will affect their language acquisition success, and vice versa, in some possibly significant ways.

From the perspective of the classroom teacher, this principle is similar to the Language Ego and Self-Esteem principle, and all the concomitant classroom implications apply here as well.

In the classroom, you can:

1. Help students to be aware of acculturation and its stages.
2. Stress the importance of the second language as a powerful tool for adjustment in the new culture.
3. Be especially sensitive to any students who appear to be discouraged, then do what you can to assist them.

Linguistics Principles⁸

1. The Native Language Effect

Most of the time, we think of the native language as exercising an **interfering** effect on the target language, and indeed the most salient, observable effect does appear to be one of interference.

The principle of the Native Language Effect stresses the importance of that native system in the linguistic attempts of the second language learner.

The native language of learners exerts a strong influence on the acquisition of the target language system. While that native system will exercise both facilitating and interfering effects on the production and comprehension of the new language, the interfering effects are likely to be the most salient.

Some classroom suggestions stemming from the Native Language Effect.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 26

1. ⁴ Regard learners' errors as important window to their underlying system and provide appropriate feedback on them.
2. ²⁹ Ideally, every successful learner will hold on to the facilitating effect of the native language and discard the inference.
3. ²⁹ Thinking directly in the target language usually helps to minimize interference errors. Try to coax students into thinking in the native language system will cause error.

2. Interlanguage

The Interlanguage Principle tells us

⁴ **Second language learners tend to go through a systematic or quasi-systematic developmental process as they progress to full competence in the target language. Successful interlanguage development is partially a result of utilizing feedback from others.**

A number of general classroom implications deserve your attention:

1. Try to distinguish between a student's systematic interlanguage errors and other errors.
2. Teacher need to exercise some tolerance for certain interlanguage forms that may arise out of a student's logical developmental process.
3. Don't make a student feel stupid because of an interlanguage error, quietly point out the logic of the erroneous form.
4. Your classroom feedback to students should give them the message that mistakes are not "bad" but

that most mistakes are good indicators that innate language acquisition abilities are alive and well.

5. Try to get students to self-correct selected errors.
6. In your feedback on students' linguistic output, make sure that you provide ample affective feedback-verbal or nonverbal-to encourage them to speak.
7. As you make judicious selection of which error to treat, do so with kindness and empathy so that the student will not feel thwarted in future attempts to speak.

3. Communicative Competence⁹

While communicative competence (CC) has come to capture a multiplicity of meanings depending on who you ask, it is nevertheless a useful phrase. In its skeletal form, CC consists of some combination of the following components (Bachman 1990, Canale & Wain 1980):

1. Organizational competence (grammatical and discourse)
2. Pragmatic competence (functional and sociolinguistic)
3. Strategic competence
4. Psychomotor skills

The array of studies on CC provides what is perhaps the most important linguistic principle of learning and teaching:

121

Given that communicative competence is the goal of a language classroom, instruction needs to point

1989. ⁹ **toward all its components: organizational, pragmatic, strategic, and psychomotor. Communicative goals are best achieved by giving due attention to language use and not just usage, to fluency and not just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts, and to students' eventual need to apply classroom learning to previously unrehearsed context in the real world.**
- Tarigan, Henry Guntur. *Pengajaran Kompetensi bahasa*. Angkasa Bandung: P. 31

To attempt to list all the applications of such a principle to the language classroom would be an exhaustive endeavor! But for the sake of closure and simplicity, consider the following six classroom teaching “rules” that might emerge¹⁰:

1. Remember that grammatical explanations or drills or exercise are only part of a lesson or curriculum; give grammar some attention, but don’t neglect the other important components.
2. Some of the pragmatic aspects of language are very subtle and therefore very difficult.
3. In your enthusiasm for teaching functional and sociolinguistic aspects of language, don’t forget that the psychomotor skills (pronunciation) are an important component of both.
4. Make sure that your students have opportunities to gain some fluency in English without having to be constantly wary of little mistakes.
5. Try to keep every technique that you use as authentic as possible

¹⁰ Brown, H. Douglas. *Op. Cit.*, p. 30

6. Some day your students will no longer be in your classroom. Make sure you are preparing them to be independent learners and manipulators of language “out there.”

Chapter 2

Integrating the Four Skills

Why Integration?¹¹

No	Reasons why courses weren't integrated	why Integration
1	in the pre CLT, curriculum designers put the skills separately	production and reception are quite simply two sides of the same coin, cannot be split in two
2	language teaching still focus on forms	interaction means sending and receiving messages
3	administrative considerations separate in reading and speaking	written and spoken language often bear a relationship to each other
4	students' purposes in studying English only focus on one skill	interrelationship of written and spoken language motivate a reflection of language and culture and society
5		invite all skills in one classroom arena
6		one skill reinforce another

This summary has been made a ²⁸ guide for teachers of English as a foreign language ⁹⁸ to develop the students' abilities in the language. It is the application of an integrating approach for the development of communicative skills in the classroom, in which the four skills in the acquisition of knowledge of a foreign language

¹¹ Brown, H. Douglas. *Op. Cit.*, p. 220

can be taught in a coherent way, and practiced together, with a distinction⁹⁷ of the importance of one upon the other. One image for teaching English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) is that of a tapestry. The tapestry is woven from many strands, such as the characteristics of the teacher, the learner, the setting, and the relevant languages (i.e., English and the native languages of the learners and the teacher). For the instructional loom to produce a large, strong, beautiful, colourful tapestry, all of these strands must be interwoven in positive ways. For example, the instructor's teaching style must address the learning style of the learner, the learner must be motivated, and the setting must provide resources and values that strongly support the teaching of the language. However, if the strands are not woven together effectively, the instructional loom is likely to produce something small, weak, ragged, and pale--not recognizable as a tapestry at all.

In addition to the four strands mentioned above--teacher, learner, setting, and relevant languages--other important strands exist in the tapestry. In a practical sense, one of the most crucial of these strands consists of the four primary skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. This strand also includes associated or related skills such as knowledge of vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, syntax, meaning, and usage. The skill strand of the tapestry leads to optimal ESL/EFL communication when the skills are interwoven during instruction. This is known as the integrated-skill approach.

If this weaving together does not occur, the strand consists merely of discrete, segregated skills--parallel threads that do not touch, support, or interact with each other. This is sometimes known as the segregated-skill approach. Another title for this mode of instruction is the language-based approach, because the language itself is the

focus of instruction (language for language's sake). In this approach, the emphasis is not on learning for authentic communication.

By examining segregated-skill instruction, we can see the advantages of integrating the skills and move toward improving teaching for English language learners.

SEGREGATED-SKILL INSTRUCTION¹²

In the segregated-skill approach, the mastery of discrete language skills such as reading and speaking is seen as the key to successful learning, and language learning is typically separate from content learning. This is contrary to the integrated way that people use language skills in normal communication, and it clashes with the direction in which language teaching experts have been moving in recent years. Skill segregation is reflected in traditional ESL/EFL programs that offer classes focusing on segregated language skills. Why do they offer such classes? Perhaps teachers and administrators think it is logistically easier to present courses on writing divorced from speaking, or on listening isolated from reading. They may believe that it is instructionally impossible to concentrate on more than one skill at a time.

Even if it were possible to fully develop one or two skills in the absence of all the others, such an approach would not ensure adequate preparation for later success in academic communication, career-related language use, or everyday interaction in the language. An extreme example is the grammar-translation method, which teaches students to analyze grammar and to translate (usually in writing) from one language to another. This method restricts language

¹² Brown, H. Douglas. *Op. Cit.*, p. 217

learning to a very narrow, non communicative range that does not prepare students to use the language in everyday life.

Frequently, segregated-skill ESL/EFL classes present instruction in terms of skill-linked learning strategies: reading strategies, listening strategies, speaking strategies, and writing strategies. Learning strategies are strategies that students employ, most often consciously, to improve their learning. Examples are guessing meaning based on context, breaking a sentence or word down into parts to understand the meaning, and practicing the language with someone else.

Very frequently, experts demonstrate strategies as though they were linked to only one particular skill, such as reading or writing. However, it can be confusing or misleading to believe that a given strategy is associated with only one specific language skill. Many strategies, such as paying selective attention, self-evaluating, asking questions, analyzing, synthesizing, planning, and predicting, are applicable across skill areas. Common strategies help weave the skills together. Teaching students to improve their learning strategies in one skill area can often enhance performance in all language skills.

Fortunately, in many instances where an ESL or EFL course is labelled by a single skill, the segregation of language skills might be only partial or even illusory. If the teacher is creative, a course bearing a discrete-skill title might actually involve multiple, integrated skills. For example, in a course on intermediate reading, the teacher probably gives all of the directions orally in English, thus causing students to use their listening ability to understand the assignment. In this course, students might discuss their readings, thus employing speaking and listening skills and certain associated skills, such as pronunciation, syntax, and

social usage. Students might be asked to summarize or analyze readings in written form, thus activating their writing skills. In a real sense, then, some courses that are labelled according to one specific skill might actually reflect an integrated-skill approach after all.

The same can be said for ESL/EFL textbooks. A particular series might highlight certain skills in one book or another, but all the language skills might nevertheless be present in the tasks in each book. In this way, students have the benefit of practicing all the language skills in an integrated, natural, communicative way, even if one skill is the main focus of a given volume.

In contrast to segregated-skill instruction, both actual and apparent, there are at least two forms of instruction that are clearly oriented toward integrating the skills.

TWO FORMS OF INTEGRATED-SKILL INSTRUCTION

Two types of integrated-skill instruction are content-based language instruction and task-based instruction. The first of these emphasizes learning content through language, while the second stresses doing tasks that require communicative language use. Both of these benefit from a diverse range of materials, textbooks, and technologies for the ESL or EFL classroom.

1. "Content-Based Instruction." In content-based instruction, students practice all the language skills in a highly integrated, communicative fashion while learning content such as science, mathematics, and social studies. Content-based language instruction is valuable at all levels of proficiency, but the nature of the content might differ by proficiency level. For beginners, the content often involves basic social and

interpersonal communication skills, but past the beginning level, the content can become increasingly academic and complex. The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), created by Chamot and O'Malley (1994) shows how language learning strategies can be integrated into the simultaneous learning of content and language.

At least three general models of content-based language instruction exist: theme-based, adjunct, and sheltered. The theme-based model integrates the language skills into the study of a theme (e.g., urban violence, cross-cultural differences in marriage practices, natural wonders of the world, or a broad topic such as change). The theme must be very interesting to students and must allow a wide variety of language skills to be practiced, always in the service of communicating about the theme. This is the most useful and widespread form of content-based instruction today, and it is found in many innovative ESL and EFL textbooks. In the adjunct model, language and content courses are taught separately but are carefully coordinated. In the sheltered model, the subject matter is taught in simplified English tailored to students' English proficiency level.

2. "Task-Based Instruction." In task-based instruction, students participate in communicative tasks in English. Tasks are defined as activities that can stand alone as fundamental units and they require comprehending, producing, manipulating, or interacting in authentic language while attention is principally paid to meaning rather than form.

The task-based model is beginning to influence the measurement of learning strategies, not just the teaching of ESL and EFL. In task-based

instruction, basic pair work and group work are often used to increase student interaction and collaboration. For instance, students work together to write and edit a class newspaper, develop a television commercial, enact scenes from a play, or take part in other joint tasks. More structured cooperative learning formats can also be used in task-based instruction. Task-based instruction is relevant to all levels of language proficiency, but the nature of the task varies from one level to the other. Tasks become increasingly complex at higher proficiency levels. For instance, beginners might be asked to introduce each other and share one item of information about each other. More advanced students might do more intricate and demanding tasks, such as taking a public opinion poll at school, the university, or a shopping mall.

Five models of integrated-skills Approaches¹³

1. Content Based Teaching

Characteristics:

- a. Also known as content-centered,
- b. Integrates the learning of some specific subject-matters content with the learning of a second language.
- c. Nature rather than language forms and sequences
- d. Meaningful learning principles
- e. Allow the subject-matter to control the selection and sequencing of language items
- f. Can apply team-teaching models
- g. Allows for the complete integration of language skills

¹³ Brown, H. Douglas. *Op. Cit.*, p. 220

2. Theme-based teaching

Characteristics:

- a. Structuring a course around themes and topics
- b. Principles: automaticity, meaningful learning, intrinsic motivation, and communicative competence
- c. Real-life issues arranged from simple to complex
- d. Focus on the improvement of linguistic skills
- e. Use environmental statistics, facts, for classroom reading, writing, discussion and debate
- f. Conduct research and writing projects
- g. Have students create their own environmental awareness material
- h. Conduct field trip that involve a pre trip module
- i. Simulation games for class activities

3. Experiential Learning

Characteristics:

- a. Includes activities that engage both left and right brain processing
- b. Contextualize language
- c. Integrate skills
- d. Point toward authentic, real world purposes.
- e. Inductive Learning by doing
- f. Learner centered by nature
- g. Tends to put an emphasis on the psychomotor aspects of language learning by involving learners in physical actions into which language is subsumed and reinforced
- h. Multiple skills active

4. The episode Hypothesis

Characteristics:

- a. Also known as series method, present the language in sequence

- b. Presented in either written and/or spoken form, requiring reading and/or writing skills
 - c. Encourage student to build their own episodes
 - d. Possible ways to practice this model:
 - Stories or episode challenge
 - Drama
5. Task-Based Teaching
- Characteristics: 72
- a. An emphasize on learning o communicate through interaction in the target language
 - b. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation
 - c. The provision of opportunities for learner to focus, not only on language but also on the learning process itself 98
 - d. An enhancement of the learner"s own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning
 - e. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom

ADVANTAGES OF THE INTEGRATED-SKILL APPROACH

The integrated-skill approach, as contrasted with the purely segregated approach, exposes English language learners to authentic language and challenges them to interact naturally in the language. Learners rapidly gain a true picture of the richness and complexity of the English language as employed for communication. Moreover, this approach stresses that English is not just an object of academic interest nor merely a key to passing an examination; instead, English becomes a real means of interaction and sharing among people. This approach

allows teachers to track students' progress in multiple skills at the same time. Integrating the language skills also promotes the learning of real content, not just the dissection of language forms. Finally, the integrated-skill approach, whether found in content-based or task-based language instruction or some hybrid form, can be highly motivating to students of all ages and backgrounds.

ANALYSIS OF THE TEACHING PLAN

1. A brief introduction of textbook.

The textbook used I New College English, which is compiled by the experts and the teachers of Zhejian University and issued by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press. Contains four parts of well-designed : 1. Preparation 2. Listening – centered activities 3. Reading-centered activities 4. Further Development.

2. Ideas for the rearrangement of activities

The integration of skills can be basis for whole lesson plans.

3. ⁴⁷egration should be task – oriented

Communicative task as a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The inclusion of the four components :

- a. Goals: goals are one of the components of a task. Reevaluate the goals in designing the teaching plan, goals are actually the vague general intentions that is the goal of the tasks is not explicitly stated because the tasks may cover more than one goal.
- b. Input : step I and II are the input that forms the point of departure for the entire tasks. Step I leads

in the topic and arouses the students interest then activity their related knowledge on the them. Step II provides students with the listed points of advantage of Email and Letter writing as elicitation for more information from students and also as a reading materials for students to base on to expand their thoughts a wide view when they think about the topic.

- c. Activities: activities form step III to step VII are involving the integration of the four skills.

Step III – Reading / writing activities

Step IV –

1. Listening / speaking activities and writing activities
2. Listening / speaking activities

Step V – Listening / reading / writing activities

Step VII – reading / writing activities

- d. Roles for teachers students: in the activities, both teachers and students are participant and their roles shifted accordingly.

BUILDING STRATEGY TECHNIQUES

78

1. To lower inhibitions
2. To encourage risk taking
3. to build students self confidence
- 48 to help them to develop
5. to promote cooperative learning
6. to encourage them use right-brain processing
7. to promote ambiguity
8. to help them use their intuition
9. to get students to make their mistakes work for them
10. to get students to set their own goals

INTEGRATING THE LANGUAGE SKILLS

In order to integrate the language skills in ESL/EFL instruction, teachers should consider taking these steps:

1. Learn more about the various ways to integrate language skills in the classroom (e.g., content-based, task-based, or a combination).
2. Reflect on their current approach and evaluate the extent to which the skills are integrated.
3. Choose instructional materials, textbooks, and technologies that promote the integration of listening, reading, speaking, and writing, as well as the associated skills of syntax, vocabulary, and so on.
4. Even if a given course is labelled according to just one skill, remember that it is possible to integrate the other language skills through appropriate tasks.
5. Teach language learning strategies and emphasize that a given strategy can often enhance performance in multiple skills.

CONCLUSION

With careful reflection and planning, any teacher can integrate the language skills and strengthen the tapestry of language teaching and learning. When the tapestry is woven well, learners can use English effectively for communication.

Chapter 3

Interactive Language Teaching

What is interaction?

69

Interaction is the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feeling, or ideas between two or more people resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. In the era of communicative language teaching, interaction is the heart of communication. Theories of communicative competence emphasize the importance of interaction as human beings use language in various contexts to “negotiate” meaning or simply stated, to get one idea out of your head and into the head of another person and vice versa.

From the very beginning of language study, classroom should be interactive, Wilga Rivers puts in this way.

Through interaction, students can increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic linguistic material, or even the output of their fellow students in discussions, skits, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals. In interaction, students can use all they possess of the language—all they have learned or casually absorbed – in real-life exchanges,... Even at an elementary stage, they learn in this way to exploit the elasticity of language (1987:4-5)

Interactive Principles

Most of the 12 Principles listed and discussed in Chapter 2 form foundation stones for structuring a theory of interaction in the language classroom. Consider the following relationships:

1. Automaticity: true human interaction is best accomplished when focal attention is on meanings and messages and not on grammar and other linguistic forms.
2. Intrinsic motivation: as students become engaged with each other in speech acts of fulfillment and self-actualization, their deepest drives are satisfied.
3. Strategic investment: interaction requires the use of strategic language competence both to make certain decisions on how to say or write or interpret language, and to make repairs when communication pathways are blocked.
4. Risk-taking: interaction requires a certain degree of risk of failing to produce intended meaning, of failing to interpret intended meaning, of being laughed at, of being shunned or rejected.
5. The language-culture connection: the cultural loading of interactive speech as well as writing requires that interlocutors be thoroughly versed in the cultural nuances of language.
6. Interlanguage: the complexity of interaction entails a long developmental process of acquisition
7. Communicative competence: all of the elements of communicative competence are involved in human interaction. All aspects must work together for successful communication to take place.

Roles of the Interactive Teacher

Teacher can play many roles in the course of teaching. They are:

1. The teacher as controller
Master controllers determine what the students do, when they should speak, and what language forms they should use. They can often predict virtually all

students' responses because everything is mapped out ahead of time, with no leeway for going on tangents. Nevertheless, some control on your part is actually an important element of successfully carrying out interactive techniques.

2. The teacher as director

As students engage in either rehearsed or spontaneous language performance, it is teacher's job to keep the process flowing smoothly and efficiently. The ultimate motive of such direction, of course must always be to enable students eventually to engage in the real-life drama of improvisation as each communicative event

134 brings its own uniqueness.

3. The teacher as manager

This metaphor captures your role as one who plans lessons and modules and courses, one who structures the larger, longer segments of classroom time, but who then allows each individual player to be creative within

134 those parameters.

4. The teacher as facilitator

A less directive role might be described as facilitating the process of learning or making learning easier for students, helping them to clear away roadblocks to find shortcuts to negotiate rough terrain. The facilitating role requires that teacher's step away from the managerial or directive role and allow students with teacher's guidance and gentle prodding here and there to find their own pathways to success.

5. The teacher as resource

In fact, the implementation of the resource role is that the student takes the initiative to come to you. You are "there" for advice and counsel when the student seeks it. It is of course not practical to push this metaphor to an extreme where you would simply walk into a

classroom and say something like “Well, what do you want to learn today?” some degree of control, of planning, of managing the classroom is essential.

Foreign Language Interactive Analysis

Foreign language interactive Analysis (Fint) system adapted from Moskowitz, 1971)

Teacher talk

Indirect influence

1. Deals with feelings: in a nonthreatening way, accepting, discussing, referring to etc.
2. Praises or Encourages: praising, complimenting, telling students why what they have said or done is valued.
3. Jokes: intentional joking, kidding, making puns, attempting to be humorous, providing the joking is not at anyone's expense.
4. Uses ideas of students: clarifying, using, interpreting summarizing the ideas of students.
5. Repeats students response verbatim: repeating the exact words of students after they participate.
6. Asks questions: asking questions to which the answer is anticipated.

Direct influence

1. Gives information: giving information, facts, own opinion or ideas, lecturing, or asking rhetorical questions.
2. Corrects without rejection: telling students who have made a mistake the correct response without using words or intonation which communicate criticism
3. Gives directions: giving directions, requests, or commands which students are expected to follow.

4. Criticizes student behavior: rejecting the behavior of students: trying to change the non-acceptable behavior, communicating anger, displeasure, annoyance, dissatisfaction with what students are doing.
5. Criticizes students response: telling the students his response is not correct or acceptable and communicating by words or intonation criticism, displeasure, annoyance rejection

Students Talk

1. Students response, specific: responding to the teacher within a specific and limited range of available or previously practiced answer.
2. Students response, open-ended or students-initiated: responding to the teacher with students own ideas, opinions, reactions, feelings.
3. Silence: pauses in the interaction ,periods of quiet during which there is no verbal interaction
4. Silence-AV: silence in the interaction during which a piece of audio-visual equipment,
5. Confusion, work-Oriented; more than one person at a time talking, so the interaction cannot be recorded.
6. Confusion, Non-Work-Oriented; more than one person at a time talking, so the interaction cannot be recorded.
7. Laughter; laughing, giggling by the class, individuals, and/or the teacher
8. Uses the native language; use of the native language by the teacher or the students.
9. Nonverbal: nonverbal gestures or facials expressions by the teacher or the students which communicate without the use of words.

There are several practical uses to help developing interactive language:

First, it gives you taxonomy for observing other teacher. Markowitz recommends using a chart or grid to note instances of each category. You can also calculate how much time a teacher spends with each.

Second, it gives you a framework for evaluating and improving your own teaching. For example how well do you balance teacher talk and students talk?

Third, the FLINT model, especially the first seven categories, helps to set a learning climate for interactive teaching.

Questioning Strategies for Interactive Learning

5 The most important key to creating an interactive language classroom is the initiation of interaction by the teacher. Appropriate questioning in an interactive classroom can fulfill a number of different functions (adapted from Chritenbury and Kelly, 1983, and Kinsella, 1991)

1. Teacher questions give students the impetus and opportunity to produce comfortably language without having to risk initiating language themselves.
2. Teacher questions can serve to initiate a chain reaction of student interaction among them.
3. Teacher questions give the instructor immediate feedback about students comprehension. After posing a question, a teacher can use the student response to diagnose linguistic or content difficulties.
4. Teacher question provide students with opportunities to find out what they think by hearing what they say. As they are nudged into responding to question about, say, a reading or a film, they can discover what their own opinions and reactions are.

There are many ways to classify what kinds of questions are effective in the classroom. They are:

1. Knowledge questions: eliciting factual answers, testing and recognition of information.
2. Comprehension questions: interpreting, extrapolating
3. Application question: applying information heard or read to new situations.
4. Inference questions: forming conclusions that are not directly stated in instructional materials
5. Analysis question: breaking down into parts, relating parts to the whole
6. Synthesis questions: combining elements into a new pattern
7. Evaluation questions: making a judgment of good and bad, right or wrong, according to some set of criteria, and stating why.

All of these types of questions have their place in ¹⁰⁴ interactive classroom. Even those are more on the display end of the continuum are very useful in eliciting both content and language from students. Usually, the higher the proficiency level you teach the more you can venture into the upper, referential end of the continuum.

Asking a lot of questions in your classroom will not by any means guarantee stimulation of interaction. Certain types of questions may actually discourage interactive learning. Beware of the following (adapted from Kinsella, 1991)

1. ¹⁴⁰ much class time spent on display question-students can easily grow weary of artificial contexts that don't involve genuine seeking of information
2. Questions that insult students' intelligence by being so obvious to everyone in the class that students will think it's too silly a question to bother answering

3. Vague questions that are worded in abstract or ambiguous language
4. Questions stated in language that is too complex or too wordy for aural comprehension
5. Too many rhetorical questions that students think you want them to answer, then get confused when you answer the question yourself
6. Random questions that don't fall into a logical, well-planned sequence, sending students' thought patterns into chaos

Interactive Language Teaching II

Sustaining Interaction through Group Work

The teacher asks the students to get into group of four students each to answer a set of comprehension questions. His directions are:

T : get into groups now and answer and answer the question on the handout.

He then gives each student a handout with ten comprehension question-items like, "is the role of shrimp in ocean ecology?" and according to the Lecture, in what three ways are human beings dependent on the ocean for survival?"

The students comply with the first part of the directive by getting into previously arranged groups. Then, silence. Students spend a good three to four minutes silently reading the questions. Some students in some group jot down answers to some of the questions.

Advantages of Group Work

What is group work? It is a generic covering a multiplicity of techniques in which two or more students

are assigned a task that involves collaboration and self-initiated language. Note that what we commonly call pair work is simply group work in groups of two.

Group work is solidly grounded in research principles (see long and porter, 1985, for an overview). An integration of these principles and issues yields a number of advantages of group work for your English language classroom.

1. Group work generates interactive language.

In so- called traditional language classes, teacher talk is dominant. Teachers lecture, explain grammar points, conduct drills, and at best lead whole class discussions in which each student might get a few seconds of a class period to talk. Group work helps to solve the problem of classes that are too large to offer many opportunities to speak.

2. Group work offers an embracing affective climate.

Group work is the security of a smaller group of students where each individual is not so starkly on public display, vulnerable to what the students may perceive as criticism and rejection. A further affective benefit of small group work is an increase in students motivation.

3. Group work promotes learner responsibility and autonomy.

Even in relatively small class of 15 to 20 students, whole class activity often gives students a screen to hide behind. Group work places responsibility for action and progress upon each of the members of the group somewhat equally it is difficult to “hide” in small group.

4. Group work is a step toward individualizing instruction.

Each student in a classroom has needs and abilities that are unique. Usually the most salient individual

difference that you observe is a range of proficiency levels across your class and even more specifically, differences among students in their speaking, listening, writing and reading abilities. Small groups can help students with varying abilities to accomplish separate goals. The teacher can recognize and capitalize upon other individual differences (age, cultural heritage, field of study, cognitive style, to name few) by careful selection of small groups and by administering different tasks to different groups.

Excuses For Avoiding Group work

Some teachers are afraid of group work. They feel they will lose control or students will just use their native language, and so they shy away from it. Some of these apprehensions are understandable, group work does not mean simply putting students into groups and having them do what you would otherwise do as a whole class. Let's look at these limitations or myths, perhaps and try to understand how to deal with them.

1. The teacher is no longer in control of the class.
Now you may be thinking, well, I don't mind giving control over to the students. But, depending on the text of your teaching, control could be a very important issue, if you are:
 - a. Teaching in an institution where the administrator in charge requires that you teach through a traditional, whole class methodology.
 - b. Teaching in a culture where "good teaching" is defined as students quietly working in orderly fashion, speaking only when spoken to by the teacher.

- c. Teaching very large classes (of 75 or more) where a plethora of small groups becomes difficult to manage.
- d. Teaching a group of unruly students possibly of secondary school age where discipline is a major issue.
- e. Yourself a non native speaker of English without the confidence to “let your students go” in small group.

Then control may be an issue. There is no doubt that group work requires some yielding of control to the students. In numerous cultures, students are indeed primed to be under the complete control and authority of the teacher, and group work therefore is a very strange activity to engage. In such contexts the teacher must be very clever to orchestrate successful small group work.

2. Students will use their native language.

The most important factor, however, is setting the climate for group work. Here is some suggestion:

- a. Impress upon your students the important of practice in the second language for eventual success.
- b. Appeal to various motivational factors affecting them so that they can see some real uses for English in their own lives.
- c. Demonstrate how enjoyable the various small group tasks and games and activities are.
- d. Inform them of the security offered by the small groups.
- e. For students who argue that the only reason they are in your class is to pass an examination, remind them that research has shown that people do better on tests if they dive in to the language itself rather than just study test items.

3. Students' errors will be reinforced in small groups.
There is now enough research on errors and error correction to tell us that,
 - a. Levels of accuracy maintained in unsupervised groups is as high as that in teacher monitored whole-class work, and.
 - b. As much as you would like not to believe it, teachers' overt attempts to correct speech errors in the class room have a negligible effect on students' subsequent performance.
4. Teachers cannot monitor all groups at one
Interactive learning and teaching principles counter with the importance of meaningful, purposeful language and real communication, which in turn must allow the students to give vent to creative possibilities.
5. **70** me learners prefer to work alone.
Adult age students prefer to work alone because that is the way they have operated ever since they started going to school.

Implementing **Group Work in the Classroom**

1. Selecting appropriate group technique.
Appropriate pair activities (that are not recommended for groups of more than two) include:
 - a. Practicing dialogues with a partner
 - b. Simple question and answer exercise
 - c. Performing certain meaningful substitution "drill".
 - d. Quick (one minute or less) brainstorming activity
 - e. Checking written work with each other
 - f. Preparation for merging with a larger group
 - g. Any brief activity for which logistics of assigning groups, moving furniture, and getting students into the groups is distractive.

The first step in promoting successful group work, then is to select an appropriated task. In other words, choose something that lends itself to the group process. Lectures, drill, dictations, certain listening tasks, silent reading and a host of other activities are obviously not suitable for small group work. Typical group tasks include:

a) Games

A game could be any activity that formalizes a technique into units that can be scored in some way. Several of the other group tasks outlined below could thus become “games”.

b) Role play and stimulations.

Role play minimally involves:

- Giving a role to one or members of a group and
- Assigning an objective or purpose that participants must accomplish.

c) Drama

Drama is a more formalized form of role play or simulation, with a preplanned story line and script.

d) Projects

Projects can be rewarding indeed. For example, various small groups could each be doing different things: group A creates an environmental bulletin board for the rest of the school; group B develops fact sheets; group C makes a three-dimensional display; group D puts out a newsletter for the rest of the school; group E develops a skit. As learners get absorbed in purposeful, project, both receptive and productive language is used meaningfully.

e) Interview.

Interviews are useful at all levels of proficiency. At the lower levels, interview can be very structured,

both in terms of the information that is sought and 112 grammatical difficulty and variety.

f) **Brainstorming**

Brainstorming is a technique whose purpose is to initiate some sort of thinking process.

g) **Information Gap.**

The term information gap a tremendous variety of techniques in which the objective is to convey or to request information. The two focal characteristics of information gap techniques are: a). their primary attention to information and not to language forms and b). the necessity of communicative interaction in order to reach the objective.

h) **Jigsaw.**

28

Jigsaw techniques are a special form of information gap in which each members of a group is given some specific information and the goal is to pool all information to achieve some objective. One very popular jigsaw technique that can be used in larger group is known as a “strip story”.

i) **Problem solving and decision making.**

Problem solving group techniques focus on the group’s solution of a specified problem. Decision making techniques are simply one kind of problem solving where the ultimate goal is for students to make a decisions.

j) **Opinion exchange.**

127

An opinion is usually a belief or feeling that might not be founded on empirical data or that others could plausibly take issue with.

Planning Group Work

7

- a. Introduce the techniques
- b. Justify the use of small groups for the technique.

- c. Model the technique
- d. Give explicit detailed instructions.
- e. Divided the class in to groups
- f. Check for clarification
- g. Set the task in motion.

Debriefing

- a. Reporting on task objectives.
- b. Establishing affective support.

Chapter 5

Classroom Practicalities

A. Lesson Plan

The term lesson is popularly considered to be unified set of activities that cover a period of classroom time, usually ranging from forty to ninety minutes. These classroom time units are administratively significant for teachers because they represent “steps” along a curriculum before which and after which you have a hiatus (of a day or more) in which to evaluate and prepare for the next lesson plans. But those lesson, from the point of view of your own and students time management and practical, tangible units of efforts that serve to provide a rhythm to a course of study.

Format of a lesson plan¹⁴

While variation is plentiful, seasoned teachers generally agree on what the essential elements of a lesson plan should be.

1. Goals

You should be able to identify an overall purpose or goal that you will attempt to accomplish by the end of the class period. This goal may be quite generalize, but it serves as unifying theme for you.

2. Objectives

¹⁴ Harmer, Jeremy. *How to Teach English: An Introduction to the practice of English Language Teaching*. 1998. England: Addison Wesley Longman Limited. h. 128.

It is very important to state explicit what you want student to gain from the lesson. Explicit statement here help you to :

- a. Be sure that you indeed know what it is you want to accomplish
- b. Preserve the unity of your lesson
- c. Predetermine whether or not you are trying to accomplish too much
- d. Evaluate student's success at the end of, or the after the lesson.

Objectives are most clearly captured in terms of stating what students will do. However, many language objectives are not overtly, observable and therefore you may need to depart from strictly behavioral terms for some objectives.

In stating objectives, distinguish between terminal and enabling objectives. Terminal objectives are final learning outcomes that you will need to measure and evaluate. Enabling objectives are interim steps that build upon each other and lead to a terminal objectives.

3. Material and Equipment

It may seem a trivial matter to list material needed, but good planning includes knowing what you need to take with you or to arrange to have in your classroom. It is easy, in the often harried life of a teacher, to forget to bring to class a tape recorder, a poster, some handouts you left on your desk at home, or the workbooks that students gave you the night before.

4. Procedures

At this point, lesson clearly has tremendous variation. But, as a very general set of guidelines for planning, you might think in terms of making sure you plan includes.

- a. An opening statement or activity as a warm-up
- b. A set of activities and techniques in which you have considered appropriate proportion of time for :
 - Whole-class work
 - Small group and pair work
 - Teacher talk
 - Student talk
- c. closure

5.

Evaluations

We must understand that every lesson does not need to end with a little quiz, nor does evaluation need to be a separate element of yours lesson. Evaluation can take place in the course of “regular” classroom activity. Some forms of evaluations may have to wait a day or two until certain abilities have had a chance to build. But evaluation is an assessment, formal or informal, that you make after students have sufficient opportunities for learning and without this component you have no means for assessing the success of your students or making adjustment in your lesson plan for the next day.

6. Extra-Class work

Sometimes, misnamed “homework” (students don’t necessarily do extra class work only at home), extra-class work, if it is warranted, needs to be planned carefully and communicated clearly to the students. Whether you are

teaching in an EFL or ESL situation, you cannot almost always find applications or extensions of classroom activity that will help student do some learning beyond the class room.

Guidelines for lesson planning¹⁵

1. 114 v to begin a planning

In most normal circumstances, especially for a teacher without much experience, the first step of lesson planning will already have been performed for you: choosing what to teach. No doubt you will be or have already been- give a text-book and told to teach from it, with either a suggestion or a requirement of how many chapter or unit you should cover. As you look over the chapter you are to cover for a class hour, you might go through the following sequence:

- a. Assuming that you are already familiar with (i) the curriculum your students are following and (ii) the overall plan and “tone“ of the book , look over the text-book chapter.
- b. Based on (i) your view of the whole curriculum and (ii) your perception of the language needs of your students, determine what the topic and purpose

¹⁵ Richards, Jack c and Willy Renandya. *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. 2004. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. h. 27

of the lesson will be and write the down as the overall the goal.

- c. Again considering the curriculum and the student's need draft out perhaps one to three explicitly stated terminal objectives for the lesson.
 - d. Of the exercise that are in the text book, decide which one you will do, change, delete and add to, all based on the objectives you have draft.
 - e. Draft out a skeletal outline of what your lesson will look like.
 - f. Carefully plan step by step procedures for carrying out all techniques, especially those that involve changes and additions.
2. Variety, sequencing, pacing and timing
As you are drafting step-by-step procedures, you need to look at how the lesson holds together as a whole.
 3. Gauging difficulty
Figuring out in advance how easy or difficult certain techniques will be is usually learned by experience. It takes a good deal of cognitive empathy to put yourself in your student's shoes and anticipate their problems area. Some difficulty is caused by tasks themselves therefore make your corrections crystal clear by writing them out in advance.
 4. Individual differences
For the most part, a lesson plan will aim at the majority of students in class who compose the "average" ability range. But

your lesson plan should also take in to account the variation of ability in your students, especially those who are well below or well above the classroom norm.

5. Student talk and teacher talk

Give careful consideration in your lesson plan to the balance between student talk and teacher talk. Our natural inclination as teacher is to talk to much. As you plan your lesson, and as you perhaps script out some aspect of it, see to it that students have a chance to talk, to produce language and even to initiate their own topics and ideas.

6. Adapting to an Establish Curriculum

As you plan lessons, your first concern is that each class hour must contribute to the goals that a curriculum is designed to pursue. But perhaps your institution has no curriculum spelled out in a document, in other words, it is a “textbook –driven” curriculum that, in practice simply tells you to teach everything in a text book. At best, you would be presented with a document that clearly delineates the goals of the curriculum and offers suggestions on how to meet those goals in terms of weekly or even daily lesson objectives.

7. Classroom lesson “notes”

A final consideration in your lesson planning process is a very practical one. Most experienced teachers operate well with no more than one page of a lesson outline and notes. Some prefer to put lesson notes on a series of index cards for easy handling.

By reducing your plans to such a physically manageable minimum, you will reduce the chance of getting bogged down in all the details that went in to the planning phase, yet you will have enough in writing to provide order and clarity as you proceed.

63

B. Classroom Management

Classroom management is one of the steps in succession of practicalities for the language classroom. An atmosphere that facilitates learning is the first step to students' academic success. Classroom management involves many factors, ranging from the physical arrangement of the classroom to dealing with students' disruptive behaviors. The purpose of classroom management is to deal with student's misbehavior.

The Physical Environment of the Classroom

The physical aspect of the classroom is the first thing that students perceive when they step inside. It can influence their attitude toward learning even without them being aware of it.. Consider four categories:

1.Sight, sound and comfort

As trivial as it may first appear, in the face of teacher decisions to implement language teaching principles in an array of clever techniques, students are indeed profoundly affected by what they see, hear, and feel when they enter the classroom. If the

teacher has any power to control the following, then it will be worth the teacher to do so:

- a. The classroom is neat, clean, and orderly, in appearance
- b. Chalkboard are erased
- c. Chairs are appropriately arranged
- d. If the room has bulletin boards and you have the freedom to use them.
- e. The classroom is as free from external noises as possible.
- f. Acoustics within your classroom are at least operating
- g. Heating or cooling systems (if applicable) are operating.

2. Seating arrangement

52

Students are members of a team and should be able to see one another, to talk to one another and not made to feel like they just walked into a military formation. If the classroom has movable desk-chairs, consider patterns of semi circles, U-shapes concentric circles, or- if class size is small enough-one circle so that students aren't all squarely facing the teacher. If the room has tables with two to four students at each, try to come up with configurations that make interaction among students most feasible. Give some thought to how students will do small group and pair work with as little chaos as possible.

a. Chalkboard use

The chalkboard is one of your greatest allies. It gives students added visual input along with auditory. It allows you to illustrate with words and pictures and graphs and chart. It is always there and it is recyclable. So, take advantage of this instant visual aid your chalkboard. At the same time, try to be neat and orderly in your chalkboard use, erasing as often as appropriate: a messy, confusing chalkboard drives students crazy.

b. Equipment

The classroom may be constructed to include an equipment teacher may be using. If using electrical equipment make sure that:

1. The room has outlets.
2. The equipment fits comfortably in the room
3. Everyone can see the visual auditory stimulus
4. You leave enough time before and after class to get the equipment and return it to its proper place
5. The machine actually works
6. Know how to operate it.
7. There is an extra light bulb or battery or whatever else you'll need if a routine replacement is in order.

3. Teacher Voice and Body Language

Another fundamental classroom management concern has to do with you and the messages thought voice and body language. Your voice isn't the only production mode available to you in the classroom. In language classes, especially, where students may not have all the skills they need to decipher verbal language, their attention is drawn to non verbal communication. Here are some problems:

- a. Let your body posture exhibit an air of confidence.
- b. Your face should reflect optimism, brightness⁹² and warmth
- c. Make frequent eye contact with all students in the class
- d. Do not "bury yourself" in your notes and plans
- e. Do not plant your feet firmly in one place for the whole hour
- f. Move around the classroom, but not to distraction
- g. Dress appropriately, considering the expectations of your students and the culture in which you are teaching.

4. Unplanned Teaching: Midstream Lesson Changes

Now that you have considered some of the factors in managing the physical space and your physical self, imagine that you have entered the classroom and begun the lesson.

Classroom management involves decisions about what to do when:

- a. Your students digress and throw off the plan for the day
- b. You digress and throw off the plan for the day
- c. An unexpected but pertinent question comes up
- d. Some technicality prevents you from doing an activity (e.g, a machine breaks down, or you suddenly realize you forgot to bring handouts that were necessary for the next activity).
- e. You are asked a question you don't know the answer to grammatical point.
- f. There isn't enough time at the end of a class period to finish an activity that has already started.

5. Teaching Under Adverse Circumstances

Under the ¹³² category of “adverse circumstances” are a number of management concerns of widely divergent nature. Teaching under adverse circumstances is another factor to consider in classroom management. In teaching large classes, of 30 to 40 students or more, individual teacher-student interaction is minimized and students have fewer opportunities to fully participate in the learning activities.

How to deal with circumstances is one of the significant factors contributing to professional success.

- a. Teaching large class

Ideally, language classes should have no more than a dozen people or so, teacher should be large enough to provide diversity and students interaction small enough to give students plenty of opportunity to participate and to get individuals attention.. Large classes present some problems:

- 1) Proficiency and ability vary widely across students
- 2) Individual teacher-student attention is minimized
- 3) Student opportunities to speak are lessened
- 4) Teacher's feedback on students' written work is limited.

Some solutions to these problems are available. Consider the following that apply to one or several of the above challenges:

- 1) Try to make each student feel important by learning names and using them. ¹¹
- 2) Assign students as much interactive work as possible, including plenty of "get acquainted" activities at the beginning, so that they feel a part of a community and are not just lost in the crowd
- 3) Optimize the use of pair work and small group work to give students chances to perform in English.
- 4) Do more than the usual number of listening comprehension activities, using tapes, video, and etc.

- 5) Use peer-editing, feedback, and evaluation in written work whenever appropriate
- 6) Don't collect written work from all students at the same time
- 7) Set up small "learning centers" in class where students can do individualized work.
- 8) Organize informal conversation groups and study groups

b. Teaching multiple proficiency levels in the same class

There is often a wide range of proficiency levels among students in the same class, especially in large classes, but even relatively small classes can be composed of students who in estimation should not all be placed at the same level. Here are some suggestions to consider:

- 1) Don't over generalize your assessment of students' proficiency level by blanket classifications into "the good students" and "the bad students"
- 2) For most students, competencies will vary among the four skills, within each skill and by context.
- 3) Offer choices in individual techniques that vary according to needs and challenges.
- 4) Take advantage of whatever learning centers or tutorial laboratories may be Available in institution.

- 5) Obviously, the tenor of classroom teacher talks (instruction, explanations, lectures, etc), will need to be gauged toward the middle of the level proficiency in class.

c. Compromising with the "instruction"

Another adverse circumstance is one that most teachers have to deal with at some time in their careers: teaching under institutional conditions that do not meet their ideals standards or philosophy of education. Some example:

- 1) Classes that far large to allow for the kind of results that the administration expects.
- 2) Physical conditions in the classroom that are onerous
- 3) Administratively imposed constraints on what you have to teach in your course.
- 4) Administratively imposed constraints on how you should teach.
- 5) Course that simply an institutional foreign language requirement, in which students simply want a passing grade.
- 6) Courses that test focused rather than language focused.

d. Discipline

Dealing with disruptive behaviors in class is a skill that teachers must learn. Before

attempting one of several strategies to manage bad behavior, teachers must understand what triggers it.. Here some pointers to make applications to specific instances:

- 1) Learn to be comfortable with your position of authority.
- 2) Gain the respect of your students by treating them all with equal fairness
- 3) State clearly and explicitly to your students what your expectations are regarding their behavior in class.
- 4) Be firm but warm in dealing with variances to these expectations.
- 5) If a reminder, reprimand, or other form of verbal disciplinary action is warranted, do your best to preserve the dignity of the students.
- 6) Try, initially, to resolve disciplinary matters outside of class time (ask to see a student after class and quietly but firmly make your observation and let the student).
- 7) In resolving disciplinary problems, try to find the source of problems, try to find the source of the problem rather than treating symptoms.
- 8) If you cannot resolve a recurring disciplinary problem, then consult your institution's counselor or administrator.

Cheating

Cheating is a special disciplinary matter that warrants careful treatment. Cheating is a surreptitious violation of standards of individualized responses to tests of other exercises. Here some steps to solving perceived problem of cheating, they are:

- 1) To ascertain a student's own perception.
- 2) Minimizing opportunities to cheat-that is, prevention may prove to be more fruitful than trying to tangle with the mixture of emotions that ensue from dealing with cheating after the fact.
- 3) Remind students that you and the test are there to help them and to help them.
- 4) Then, consider an "A" and "B" form of test in which items are in different order for every test person, thereby making it more difficult for someone to spot an answer.

6. Teacher's Role and Style

a. Roles

A teacher has to play many roles, for growing comfortable and confident in playing multiple roles, two rules thumb are a willing acceptance of many ways that students will perceive you, and consistent fairness to all students equally: know yourself and your limitations, your strengths, your likes and dislikes, and then accept the fact that you are called upon to be many things to many different people.

b. Teaching styles¹⁶

Teaching style is another effective consideration in the development of professional expertise. Teaching style almost always is consistent with personality style, which can vary greatly from individual to individual. As you consider the teaching style⁸³ below, remember that each represents a continuum of possibilities:

Shy	↔	gregarious
Formal	↔	informal
Reserved	↔	open, transparent
Understated	↔	dramatic
Rational	↔	emotional
Steady	↔	moody
Serious	↔	humorous
Restrictive	↔	permissive

7. Cultural expectations¹⁷

Western cultures emphasize non directive, no authoritarian roles and teaching styles in the right hand column in the list above:

- Teacher⁷⁶ expected to have all the answer
- Teacher expected to suppress emotions⁷⁶ (and so are students)
- Teachers interpret intellectual disagreement a personal disloyalty.
- ⁷⁶idents admire brilliance in teachers
- Students expect the teacher t show them “the way”.

¹⁶ Brown, Douglas. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. 2000. New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc. h. 112

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, h. 189

8. Creating a Positive Classroom Climate

1. Establish rapport
 - a. Showing interest in each students as a person
 - b. Giving feedback on each person"s progress
 - c. Openly soliciting students ideas and feeling
 - d. Valuing and respecting
 - e. Laughing and working with them
 - f. Developing a genuine sense of vicarious joy
2. Balance praise and criticism
Effective praise versus ineffective praise

84

Effective praise	Ineffective praise
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Shows genuine pleasure and concern• Shows verbal and nonverbal variety• Specifies the particulars of an accomplishment.• Is delivered without disrupting the communicative flow of ongoing interaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Is impersonal, mechanical, and robot• Shows bland uniformity• Is restricted to global comments, so students are not sure what was performed well• Disrupt the communicative flow of ongoing interaction.

3. Generic energy
Energy is an aura f creativity sparked by the interaction of students. Energy drives students

toward higher attainment. Students and teacher take energy with them when they leave the classroom and bring it back the next day

Chapter 7 SUCCESSFUL TEACHING

A. Motivation, Planning The Classroom and Classroom Activities

1. Motivation

Motivation is a key word in any learning situation. The teacher, of course, must be motivated. A teacher's needs are likely to be satisfaction of doing a good job, of creating learning situations for the maximum benefit of students; of achieving good results in examinations; of recognition by colleagues as one who has high professional standards. Many students arrive in the classroom wanting to learn. They know what the course, and the particular subject, has to offer. The immediate task of the teacher is therefore made easier. Maintaining motivation then becomes the main objective.

a. Promoting Motivation¹⁸

When you first meet students, it is important to give them a broad outline of intent of the course, and how the particular subject fits into that course. It really is a matter of „selling“ the subject and showing its potential. Even the motivated students will learn something new and the uninterested will, it is hoped, gather information to make them believe there is something worthwhile for them. So this introduction is for all students, but

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, h. 160

essentially it is directed towards those lacking information.

To be successful in this, you must have full details of this course, and where it is leading, and convey this information with enthusiasm. A good salesperson knows all about the product and how to extol its virtues.

For the younger students, make it clear how the subject is a stepping stone to more advanced work, and how important it is to attain a satisfactory standard in the subject at this particular stage. Even the youngest student likes to be informed. How important it is for young students to be told that within a few weeks (perhaps giving a date), he/she will be able to read – enough for that individual to rush home and give the exciting news to the family.

For more mature students, particularly those approaching the age of seeking employment, a very useful line of approach is to „talk money“. Armed with an understanding of the subject being taught, their earning potential is very much greater and their prospects of employment are enhanced.

b. Maintaining Motivation

Being aware that each student has a need, a desired goal, you must plan and prepare each lesson to meet these needs. By being given achievable goals for each lesson, the students „taste“ success, and leave the class with a sense of satisfaction and a further desire to make even more progress in the next lesson. Students

are much more likely to remain motivated if their interest in the subject can be held.

c. Identifying Needs

When you have been allocated a day class, it is reasonable for you to assume that the students have much in common – usually age, attainments to date, and the examination which are the goal of the course. Such background information is very useful and can be used by a teacher to create and even more detailed profile of each student; perhaps for the first time, the teacher becomes aware of the specific needs of the individual.

When there is no background information available, you should set about creating a profile. You have to find time, perhaps just two or three minutes at the beginning of a course, to discuss these matters with each student. The gathering of this information has a double impact. The teacher can plan to incorporate as many as possible of the identifiable needs within the scheme of work. In this way the students are further motivated, knowing that their needs have been identified, and being made aware that the teacher is attempting to meet them.

d. Distractions

Even so, there are many forces working against the teacher which left undetected, interfere with the learning process and affect motivation:

1. Temperature of room – too hot or too cold
2. A flickering light tube, or a light bulb which needs to be replaced
3. Noise – in the next classroom, or outside
4. Broken furniture
5. Faulty equipment
6. A restless student who persists in chatting/whispering to anyone capable of being distracted (usually in the back row)
7. Latecomers, who interrupt a lesson

Motivate, and the motivated, and success will follow.

„Without motivation learning does not take place“

(Brian O’Connell, *Aspects of Learning*)

2. Planning The Classroom

To succeed, we must plan:

- The course
- The lesson

Before beginning to plan strategy for any course, it is essential to know the aims of the course, and to have all available information about the students.

a. Course Syllabus

1. *Examination Syllabus*

It may be considered necessary, or desirable, to add extra topics to give the students a more balanced course.

2. *Continuous Assessment*

With continuous assessment the main advantages are knowledge of results as the students progress, and the removal of any final examination stress.

When the syllabus is set internally, the staff involved will agree on the assessment procedures, and these are likely to follow the pattern of external boards. A college/school syllabus has the marked advantage of being able to meet the specific needs of the general public and local businesses.

3. *Scheme of Work*

A syllabus might be best described as what has to be done, and a scheme of work as how it is going to be accomplished. If advice is not readily, the first attempts will be experimental but, because a scheme is adjustable as a course progresses, changes can be made.

A common form of scheme of work is a week-by-week approach.

Week 1

Distribute and discuss syllabus. Check textbooks available for students. Introduce „The African Continent“ as a subject and what is involved. Complete Unit 1 in textbook; set first homework.

Week 2

Collect and mark homework; at the end of the week discuss with class any weakness

and how to improve written work. Revise main points from Unit 1; complete exercises. Introduce Unit 2.

Week 3

Revise first part of Unit 2; complete Unit 2. Use wall chart for Q and A. work through exercise material from unit 2, and set exercise as homework.

b. Lesson Planning

You need to plan each lesson because, in teaching, you are always working against the clock. No sooner has a lesson started than it seems you have reached the end of the allocated time. Without planning a teacher might well wonder what, if anything was achieved.

1. Lesson Plan Outline

There is no such thing as a definitive plan outline. You will have to experiment, and find the outline which meets your needs. Each lesson you teach has a purpose, an aim. In fact, there are always several aims, one main and a number of subsidiaries. Here are some examples, any of which could be the main aim;

- To introduce a new topic
- To revise points from earlier lessons
- To review the homework assignment and set additional homework
- To revise a point of language
To discuss a forthcoming visit.

2. Subsidiary Aims

There will often be a point of subject revision, or a point of language use, and sometimes the brief introduction of a new topic.

- *Time*
Nothing the time you plan to give to each stage of the lesson ensures a balance of activities, and helps to prevent the worst possible happening – the onset of boredom.
- *Subject and Method – Activity*
Complete the columns in brief note form, stating what you are going to do and how you are going to do it.
- *Materials*
Make a list of things you are going to use in a lesson – handouts, textbook ec – which will ensure that you have available all you require for that lesson.
- *Comments*
This is end evaluation of personal performance and reaction by the class.

c. Classroom Activities

The classroom

You will probably find the following points essential;

1. No smoking drinking, or eating (including chewing gum)
2. Litter and pencil shavings must be put in the newspaper bin provided
3. Only three required for the lesson to be brought into the classroom

4. Desks to be cleared at the end of the lesson and the room left the clean and tidy

a) Student Classroom Behavior

Unless they are told what is expected of them, students will not know how to respond to classroom situations. Advise them during the first meeting of the class, giving reminders as and when required, about the following;

- *Talking/whispering*
Tell students that when you are talking they do need to concentrate on what is being said; any other sounds in the room are distracting.
- *Responding to questions*
Anything is better than random calling out, establish a definite routine
- *Teacher leaves room*
Impress on the class that there is never nothing to do.
- *Distribution of books and teaching materials*
Set a routine whereby students pass materials along or up the row, and then the teacher collects or delivers from the end desks
- *Beginning of lesson*
Students are at their desks promptly and have books open, pencils sharpened
- *End of lesson*
Desks are cleared and students depart in an orderly manner

b) Class, group and individual teaching

The maximum use of teaching resources is obtained when teaching a class as a whole unit.

- *Class teaching*
By observing how quickly or slowly individuals complete a set exercise, how they respond to questions and how well they do their homework, it is possible to break down a class into several groups.
- *Group teaching*
When the ability range is very marked, it may be necessary to introduce permanent group teaching – the fast, the medium and the slow.
Begin with a general point, common to all groups, and follow with a common activity – perhaps a short exercise within the range of everyone. Process to the fast group, interrupting the immediate activity, and give them tuition appropriate to their needs, and set additional work
- *Individual teaching*
 1. Question and Answer
Time for questions should be allocated for each lesson. A few minutes is enough.
 2. Class Contact Time
The quality of the activity is important
 3. Teaching Methods
Teaching is a challenge, and teachers seek and strive for ways to make learning more effective.

c) Varying the routine

- *Guest speakers*
The teacher may suggest that a subject specialist may be invited to speak on a particular topic, perhaps a police officer or a fire officer.
- *Visits*
Students really enjoy a visit; it is another welcome change of routine.

d) Student activity

- *Listening*
Types of listening activities:
 - a. No overt response
 - b. Short responses
 - c. Longer response
 - d. Extended responses
 - Watching
 - Writing
 - Answering
 - Role playing
 - Practical work
 - Discussing

e) Subject integration

Generally, subjects are taught as a part of a course, and the subjects have links with each other.

B. Teaching Materials, Involving the Students, home work

1. Syllabus

A syllabus is a document which consists, essentially of a list. The syllabus generally has explicit objectives, usually declared at the beginning of the document, on the basis of which the components of the list are selected and ordered.

Characteristics of a syllabus:

1. Consists of a comprehensive list of:
 - content items(words, structures, topics);
 - Process items (tasks, methods).
2. Is ordered(easier, more essential items first)
3. Has explicit objectives (usually expressed in the introduction).
4. is a public document
5. May indicate a time schedule.
6. May indicate a preferred methodology or approach.
7. May recommend materials.

2. Teaching Materials

Teaching materials are used;

- a. To promote learning
- b. To maintain interest
- c. To add variety to the lesson
- d. To relate one subject to other subjects

Course book

In favour of using a course book:

- Framework

A course book provides a clear framework teacher and learners know where they are going and what is coming next, so that there is a sense of structure and progress.

- Syllabus
In many places the course book serves as a syllabus if it is followed systematically, a carefully planned and balanced selection of language content will be covered.
- Ready-made texts and tasks
The course book provides texts and learning tasks which are likely to be of an appropriate level for most of the class. This of course saves time for the teacher who would otherwise have to prepare his or her own.
- Economy
A book is the cheapest way of providing learning material for each learner.
- Convenience
A book is a convenient package.
- Guidance
For teachers the course book can provide useful guidance and support.
- Autonomy
The learner can use the course book to learn new material review and monitor progress with some degree of autonomy. A learner without a course book is more teacher-dependent

Against Using a Course book

- Inadequacy
- irrelevance, lack of interest
- Limitation

- Homogeneity
- Over-easiness

How to Assessing a course book

- Stage 1 : Deciding on criteria
- Stage 2: Applying criteria
- Stage 3: Summary

Textbooks

When using a book for the first time, there is a routine to be followed;

- Read the book
- Ask questions of each chapter as you read
- Prepare supplementary material

A textbook is an invaluable teaching aid, but very few books actually fully cover a syllabus. The teacher has to adapt and improvise but, at the same time, must always make the fullest possible use of a textbook which is available.

Students must be told to take care of books they are using. Explain to them that many more students will be depending on the same books in the years ahead.

3. Supplementary Materials

55

Most language-teaching course books probably need supplementing to some extent, if only in order to tailor them to the needs of a particular class or to offer richer options.

a. Computers

Computers are seen by many as an important teaching aid. These days learners need to

be 'computer literate', and since computers use language it would seem logical to take advantage of them for language learning. They enable individual work, since learners can progress at their own pace, and many programs include a self-check facility. Also, younger and adolescent learners in particular find the use of computers attractive and motivating. However, it takes time to train both teachers and students in their use; and in practice a lot of time in a computer lesson often goes on setting up programs, getting students into them, and then solving problems with moving from one stage, or one program, to another.

For teachers who are familiar with their use computers can be invaluable for preparing materials such as worksheets or tests.

b. Book

Books are very user-friendly 'packages' of material: they are light, easily scanned, easily stacked and do not need hardware or electricity. They are still the most convenient and popular method of packaging large texts, and a library of them is arguably the best way for learners to acquire a wide experience of foreign language reading.

It is very useful to have a collection of reference books, extra textbooks and teachers' handbooks easily available to the teaching staff; and regular reading of a professional journal can inject new ideas and update teachers on current thinking.

c. Overhead projectors

These are useful for presenting visual or written material to classes: they are more vivid and

attention-catching than the black- or whiteboards. They also save lesson time, since you can prepare the displays in advance. However, this does mean added work in preparation! Another disadvantage is the need to carry the OHP from class to class, unless each classroom has its own - which is true only of the more affluent institutions. And of course, like any other electrical equipment, OHPs are vulnerable to breakdowns: electricity failure or bulbs burning out.

d. Video equipment

Video is an excellent source of authentic spoken language material; it is also attractive and motivating. It is flexible: you can start and stop it, run forward or back, 'freeze' frames in order to talk about them.

e. Audio equipment

Cassette recorders and cassettes are relatively cheap, and easy to use; and they are the main source (other than the teacher) of spoken language texts in most classrooms

f. Posters, pictures, games

Materials of this kind are invaluable particularly for younger learners, and teachers of children find that they constantly use them. However, if you have time, this type of material can be largely home-made: glossy magazines in particular are an excellent source of pictures.

g. Handouts

Handout may also be used as a summary of a lesson.

- h. Record Books**
- i. Attendance Register**
- j. School / College Library**
- k. Newspapers/Magazine**
- l. Copyright**
- m. Films/Video/Television**

Teachers always need more and more material – to keep up to date, to renew worn items and so on. You need to keep eyes and ears open. Another class, or another school, may be clearing out books. A firm may be closing down and getting rid of files and stationery. Someone you know regularly purchases magazines and newspaper and then, after reading them, throws them away.

4. Making materials

- Stage 1:
Preparation

Choose a language point for which you want to make your own learner tasks, preferably having in mind a course or class you know. If you wish to make work cards, prepare cards, colored pens and perhaps magazine pictures, scissors and glue. Worksheets may be written by hand, or on a typewriter or word processor.

- Stage 2: First draft

Make a sample worksheet or work card, preferably for a class you know on language they are learning.

- Stage 3: Feedback

If you are working in a group, exchange your resulting materials and discuss

- Stage 4: Second draft

Remake your worksheet or work card - or make totally new one-implementing ideas you received from feedback on the first draft.

Guidelines for Teacher-Made Materials

Worksheets and work cards should:

- Be neat; clean, with level lines of neat writing, clear margins, different components well spaced
- Begin with short and clear instructions (if appropriate, in the learners' mother tongue) usually including an example
- Be clear and attractive to look at: have a balanced and varied layout, using underlining and other forms of emphasis to draw attention to significant items; possibly using color and graphic illustration
- Be clearly do-able by the learners on their own
- (optionally) include a self check facility.

5. Topic Content

Thinking about different kinds of content:

- Stage 1: Deciding on relative importance
Decide which of the types of subject matter you think it is more, or less, important to include in the language course(s) you teach or may teach in the future. Some comments of my own, relating to my own teaching environment, may be found in the notes, (I).
- Stage 2 (optional): Inquiry
Ask some learners what kinds of content they would like to see included in an ideal language course. Do their ideas agree, on the whole, with yours?
- Stage 3: Application

Look at a local syllabus or a course book commonly used in the course(s) you have been thinking of. Does it include the kinds of content you think it should? Does it have too much of some other kinds which you consider inappropriate? In either case, what might you do in teaching to improve the balance?

6. Lesson

Aspect of the lesson

- Transaction or series of transactions.
- Interaction
- Goal-oriented effort, involving hard work
- A satisfying, enjoyable experience (a variety show, a symphony, eating a meal)
- A role-based culture, where certain roles (the teacher) involve responsibility and activity others (the learners) responsiveness and receptivity (consultation with a doctor, a wedding, eating a meal)
- A conventional construct, with elements of ritual (a wedding, a variety show, a performance of a symphony)
- A series of free choices (a menu, a conversation)

Lesson preparation

- Stage 1: Preliminary study
- Stage 2: Interview
- Stage 3: Results
- Stage 4: Conclusions
- Stage 5: Personal application

Ways of Varying a Lesson:

- a. **Tempo.**
Activities may be brisk and fast-moving (such as guessing games) or slow and reflective (such as reading literature and responding in writing).
- b. **Organization**
The learners may work on their own at individualized tasks; or in pairs or groups; or as a full class in interaction with the teacher.
- c. **Mode and skill**
Activities may be based on the written or the spoken language and within these, they may vary as to whether the learners are asked to produce (speak, write) or receive (listen, read).
- d. **Difficulty**
Activities may be seen as easy and non-demanding or difficult, requiring concentration and effort.
- e. **Topic**
Both the language teaching point and the (nonlinguistic) topic may change from one activity to another.
- f. **Mood**
Activities vary also in mood: light and fun-based versus serious and profound happy versus sad; tense versus relaxed.
- g. **Stir-settle**
Some activities enliven and excite learners (such as controversially scissions, or activities that involve physical movement)
- h. **Active-passive**
Learners may be activated in a way that encourages their own initiative; or they may only be required to do as they are told.

7. Involving the students

a. Group work

Students work in small groups on tasks that entail interaction conveying information for example, or group decision-making. The teacher walks around and listening intervenes little if at all.

In group work, learners perform a learning task through small-group interaction. It is a form of learner activation that is of particular value in the practice of oral fluency: learners in a class that is divided into five groups get five times as many opportunities to talk as in full-class organization. It also has other advantages it fosters learner responsibility and independence can improve motivation and contribute to a feeling of cooperation and warmth in the class

b. Closed-ended teacher questioning ('IRF')

Only one 'right' response gets approved. Sometimes cynically called the guess what the teacher wants you to say' game.

c. Individual work

The teacher gives a task or set of tasks, and students work on them independently; the teacher walks around monitoring and assisting where necessary.

d. Choral responses

The teacher gives a model which is repeated by all the class in chorus; or gives a cue which is responded to in chorus.

e. Collaboration

Students do the same sort of tasks as in 'individual work', but work together usually in pairs, to try to achieve the best results they can. The teacher may or may not intervene.

- f. Student initiates, teacher answers

For example, in a guessing game the students think of questions and the teacher responds but the teacher decides who asks.

- g. Full-class interaction

The students debate a topic or do a language task as a class; the teacher may intervene occasionally to, stimulate participation or to monitor

- h. Teacher talk

This may involve some kind of silent student response, such as writing from dictation, but there is no initiative on the part of the student.

- i. Self-access

Students choose their own learning tasks, and work autonomously.

- j. Open-ended teacher questioning

There are a number of possible 'right' answers, so that more students answer each cue.

Chapter 6

Communicative Competence in Language Teaching

1. Competence and language performance

A. Introduction

Ferdinand de Saussure was the expert who first clearly distinguish between the subject matters linguistic (is the research field linguist, which covers all the phenomena that closely or less closely related to the use of language) with the object of his (is sector or aspect of the phenomenon which will attract the attention of the linguist). Saussure mentions it as an object language (*la langue*: language) and subject matters as speech (*la parole*: speech or utterance).

Noam Chomsky and his colleagues or his followers often to the difference between language and speech, between *la langue* and *la parole*, between language and speech is the distinction they make between linguistic competence and linguistic performance, for short between linguistic competence and performance.

B. Understanding Competence¹⁹

In the "second-generation transformational grammar" the term competence implies the following:

Competence is the grammar of a language a person who internalized; this means one's ability to

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, h. 245

create and understand sentences and include sentences that he had never heard before: this also includes one's knowledge about what really are not a sentence and the sentence, a particular language.

Chomsky has made a fundamental difference between "one's knowledge about the rules of a language" and "used actual language in real situations," or between "competence" and "performance".

C. Understanding Performance

The performance is a theory of language use, actual use of language, what is done by the speaker-hearer based on actual knowledge of a language, speech / utterances actual, as opposed to language, the subject of psychological theories expect how linguistic competence that is used in the production and comprehension of speech, linguistic behavior, subject to form performance grammar, which includes a to form grammatical competence in it, is roughly comparable to la parole, speech..

In an education teacher educators must have the necessary knowledge about performance analysis. Performance analysis is a study approach on someone learner competence in a language, which is based on the study of the overall linguistic performance of learners (is what can be said and done by the learners in language) and not just the mistakes of the learner.

Behavioral objective or purpose of this performance has 3 main characteristics, namely:

1. Clearly describe or provide the learning objectives that have anything to do with observable behavior
2. Provide container behavioral conditions that are expected to occur
3. Stating a standard of acceptable performance or unacceptable

D. Variety Competence

Competence from the point of functional skills, there are 3 components namely:

1. Participatory competence: the ability to provide an adequate response to the demands of classroom tasks and the procedural rules to resolve
2. Interaction competencies: The ability to provide an adequate response against the rules of classroom discourse and the rules of social discourse, to interact appropriately with peers and adults when completing class assignments
3. Academic Competence: The ability to acquire new skills, assimilate or understand, and shape /building new concepts

If we look at aspects of communicative competence in terms of the communicative competence is at least covers 4 areas of knowledge and skills are:

1. Grammatical competence, which includes knowledge of vocabulary, the rules of word formation and sentence, linguistic semantics, pronunciation and spelling
2. Sociolinguistic competence, which includes eligibility rules meanings (the messages being allowed, permitted) and grammatical forms in the sociolinguistic contexts of diverse and different

3. Discourse competence which includes knowledge required to combine or merge the forms and meanings to achieve oral texts and written or fully integrated
4. Strategic competence, which includes knowledge about strategies for verbal and non verbal communication. It can be used to offset the restrictions in one or more other areas of communicative competence.

2. Language Competence

A. Functional Skills Competency

In the field of education bilingual William J. Tikunoff suggested examples how to interrogate teaching content with language teaching. He gives the characteristics of students who can participate in teaching effective language classes in English as functionally proficient or who should be entitled functional proficiency. So he gives three components of students who have a functional proficiency, namely:

- a. Participatory competence is the ability to give an adequate response or answer to the guidance of various classroom tasks and procedural rules to complete these tasks.
- b. Interaction competence is the ability to provide a satisfactory response to classroom discourse rules and the rules of social discourse and can interact well with peers and adults when completing class assignments.
- c. Academic competence is the ability to acquire new skills, assimilate or understand new

information and establish or develop new concepts.

B. Communicative competence²⁰

Communicative competence is the ability to apply the grammatical rules a language to form sentences that are grammatically correct and to find out when and where to use these sentences and to whom. Communicative competence includes:

- 1) Knowledge of grammar and vocabulary relevant language
- 2) Knowledge about the rules of speaking
- 3) Knowing how to use and give response to various types of speech acts.
- 4) Knowing how to use language appropriately and satisfactorily

35

Component of Communicative Competence:

1. Grammatical competence

Grammatical competence is closely related to the mastery of the language code itself, both verbally and ³⁶verbally. So involve characteristic to them and the rules of language such as vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation, speech, spelling and linguistic semantics.

2. Sociolinguistic competence

Sociolinguistic competence are extensive direct or level of understanding utterances produced and

²⁰ Tarigan, Guntur, *Op. Cit.* h.

understood appropriately and satisfactorily in various sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors such as the status of participants, purpose/objective of interactions, and norms or conventions of interaction against these factors.

In short it can also be concluded that this sociolinguistic competence, are:

- a) expression and understanding of social meanings that are appropriate and satisfactory in the sociolinguistic contexts of diverse
- b) Expression and understanding of grammatical forms are appropriate and satisfactory for communicative functions in diverse sociolinguistic contexts are different.

3. Discourse competence

Type of competence is related to dominance combine forms and meanings of grammatical to involve oral or written text that is integrated into a wide range of 'genres'.

The meaning of 'genre' here is the type of text, for example:

- a) Oral or written narrative
- b) Essay argumentative
- c) Scientific reports
- d) Business Letter
- e) Set instructions, each of which represent every genre

In conclusion we can say that discourse competence is genres oral or written public are selected based on analysis of communication needs and interests of learners, which includes:

- a. *Genres cohesion in a diverse, there are:*

- 1) Means of lexical cohesion in the context of such repeated lexical items, the use of synonymous-synonymous (which applies to the activities of listening, speaking manner, reading, writing)
- 2) Grammatical cohesion means in the context of, for example, co-reference nominal with pronominal, ellipsis, logical connectors, parallel structures (which applies to activities speaking manner, reading, writing)
- b. *Coherence in the genres of diverse, there are:*
 - 1) Patterns of oral discourse, such as advanced motion-normal meanings, particularly *kalamiah* meanings and communicative functions in conversation casual (in effect on the activities of listening, speaking, and writing)
 - 2) Patterns of written discourse: forward movement, normal meanings in a business letter, for example (which applies in the activities of reading and writing only)
4. Strategic competence

Strategic³⁶ competency is composed of control strategies for verbal and non verbal communication that can be involved into the action because of two reasons, namely:

 - a. To offset the congestion-bottlenecks in communication
 - b. To higher or improve communication effectiveness

Some important benefits in teaching or language learning include:

- a. For grammatical difficulties

- b. For sociolinguistic difficulties
- c. For discourse difficulties
- d. For the performance factors

Chapter 7

Language Learner Strategies

Teaching English as a second language in traditional way should be changed. Using „drills“ and so many repetitions doesn’t improve students’ understanding. These activities make the students used to imitate and can only remember the lesson for quite short time. They do not encourage students to be active in interacting using the language. These activities also limit teachers’ creativity in designing materials; moreover, make them lazier in innovating their teaching. The only reason they do these activities is to kill the time, while they actually can use the time more efficiently. Furthermore, in traditional way of teaching, teachers often make „direct correction“ for students’ mistakes. This is not useful at all to improve the students’ ability in comprehending the lesson. It only shows teachers’ power in front of the other students in the classroom. Students tend to repeat the mistakes they make in other opportunities. Traditional way of teaching doesn’t prove much about students’ ability in using the language, since what they do in the class is mastering the rules of the language. From several weaknesses mentioned above, and still many others, the traditional way of teaching language should be left.

The purpose of teaching a language and the function of language itself are to make students are able to use the language to communicate. When we learn our native language, we even do not remember when we start to learn it or use it. We recognize the rules of our native language without even learn them. We actually learn our native language naturally by always use it in our everyday life. After we use the language for years during our life, we can recognize the rules unconsciously. Besides, no one

speaks by having the rules in their mind. They just speak, as long as other people understand and both sides understand each other, the communication takes place. In summary, we need to consider the purpose of teaching and learning a language so that we can choose the way of teaching communicatively.

Since 1994, curriculum for English Language lesson in Indonesia has proposed the teaching based on communicative approach. The focus is on using the language to communicate rather than mastering the rules theoretically. The problem on this rose up. Teachers commonly misunderstood about what „communicative“ actually means. They are familiar with „students centered“ in teaching learning process. Every activity is made by and to the students, while teacher only facilitates them and act as an observer. Where is the teaching process then? This misunderstanding has already been in teachers“ mind for quite long and it needs to be improved soon.

For students, having a special strategy in learning language is very important. Students will be able to measure their strengths in learning. They can sharpen the strengths and leave the weaknesses. Finally, their ability in language learning will be improved. There are so many strategies in language learning offered, including the steps how to build and improve them. Those strategies have already been researched by some expert in language learning field. Teachers must introduce those language learning strategies to students and allow them to choose the best and the suitable one for their own to develop their language skill.

Indonesia has been left behind about language learning strategies for quite long. We are just about to introduce this topic to language teachers. It needs a lot of supports from many sides. A big conducive contribution

should come from the teachers as the introducers of the topics. Start from them to stop teaching in traditional way, begin to focus on language use rather than language usage, begin to teach the four basic language skills naturally, and be creative in improving their communicative competence through their performance.

Usage and Use

9

Widdowson (1977) defines usage is as one aspect of performance which make evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his knowledge of linguistic rules. Use is another aspect of performance that which makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his ability to use his knowledge⁸¹ linguistic rules for effective communication. In normal circumstances, linguistic performance involves the simultaneous manifestation of the language system as usage and its realization as use. We may conveniently begin by considering an example of a correct English sentence.

Professor Andi's lab-top is on Professor Fauzan's desk.

Here we have a correct English sentence and we might wish to say that anybody speaking or writing such a sentence gives evidence of a good knowledge of the language. We would judge anybody producing the following sentences, on the other hand, to have an inadequate knowledge:

Professor Andi's lab-top is on Professor Fauzan desk.

Professor Andi's lab-top on Professor Fauzan's desk.

But what would we say if someone produced our correct sentence in the following context?

A: Do you have a class with Professor Andi this morning?

B: Professor Andi's lab-top is on Professor Fauzan's desk.

The sentence remains correct, of course, but we might well hesitate to say that B had a good knowledge of English on this evidence. We would be inclined to say that he did not really know the language. Nobody in his senses would seriously give the response to the kind of question that A asks. 102

Now we learn how to use sentences appropriately to achieve a communicative purpose. We are not just walking grammars, but also context or specific situation.

The language teacher designing materials has also generally been inclined to concentrate on usage: the common practice is to select and organize language items with a view to demonstrating how the rules of the system can be manifested through sentences. There has been less concern with demonstrating how such rules can be realized for communicative purposes as use. When the way of teaching is focus on drill and repetition, the teacher often asks questions to the students and gives model of answers:

What is this on the table?

What is that on the wall?

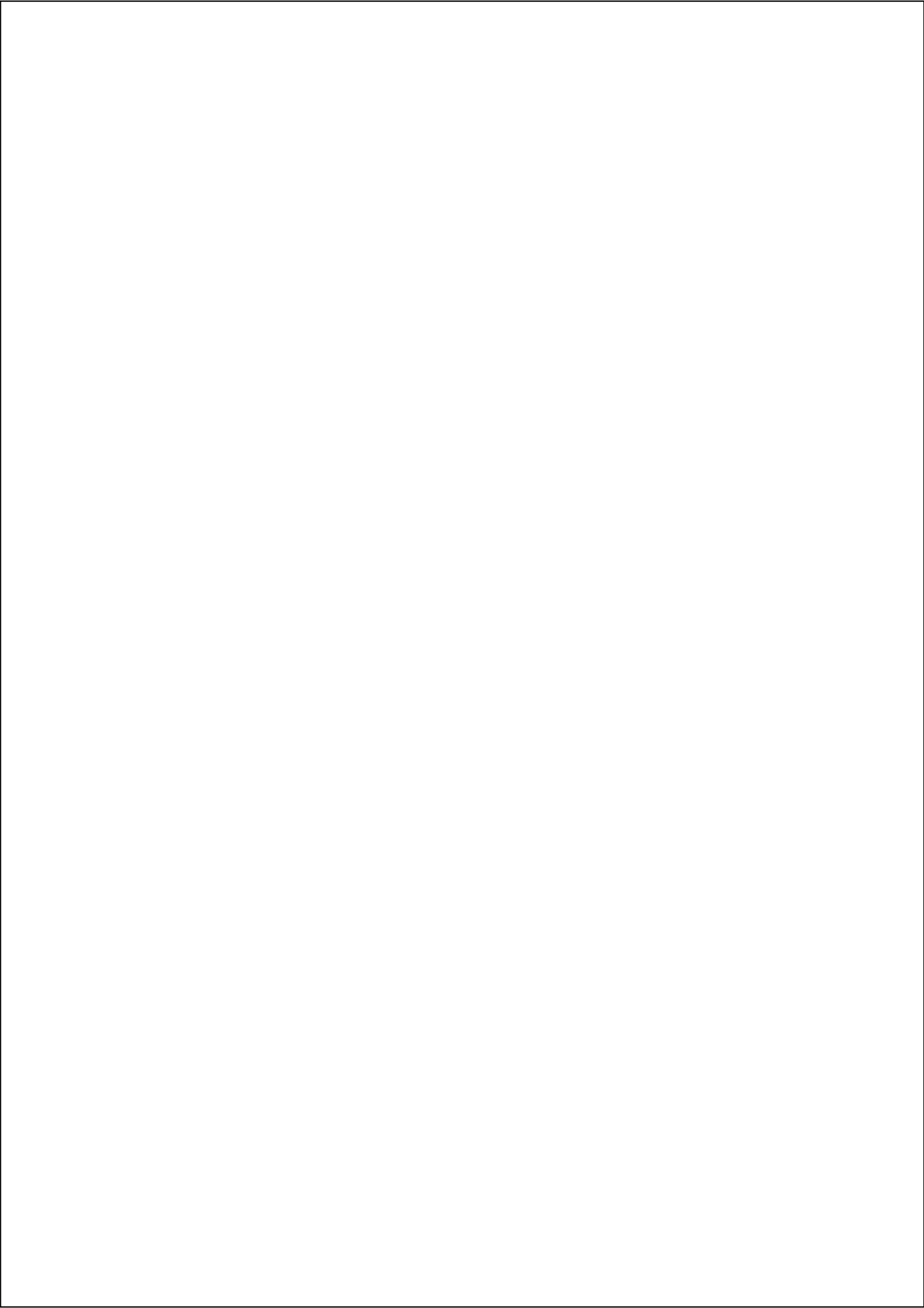
This is a pen.

That is a blackboard.

He does so to manifest the operation of a set of rules for sentence formation. He is not offering it as an example of a meaningful act of communication. In fact, utterances of sentences of this kind are of relatively rare occurrence as instances of use.

Widdowson also mentions that the realization of language as use involves two kinds of ability. One kind is

the ability to select which form of sentence is appropriate for a particular *linguistic context*. The second is the ability to recognize which function is fulfilled by a sentence in a particular *communicative situation*. If this is a part of a drill and there is a pen on the table, also a blackboard on the wall which everybody can see, then the teacher's question is not fulfilling a normal function since in ordinary circumstances we do not ask questions about something we already know.



If the teacher wants the students know the word „pen“ and „blackboard“ in English, he/she will be more communicative by saying:

*Can I see your pen? Or,
This is called „a pen“ in English.
Write this on the blackboard! Or,
The English word for this is „blackboard“*

Repeat the request many times or use an action to show the meaning of the request, until the students get the point.

*A: What is your name?
B: My name is Jean.*

In the real conversation, people directly mention their names for the question „What is your name?“

*A: What is you name?
B: Jean.*

Let us consider another example on how to introduce „present continuous tense“ by „situational presentation“.

*I am walking to the door.
I am walking to the window.*

Even though the teacher is doing the action to show the meaning of the utterances, the situation at the same time makes his sentence inappropriate in term of use. Since everybody sees him opening the door and closing the window, there is no need whatever for him to announce that he is doing these things. The situation would not normally call for such a

comment. If I, for example, leave the room during a dinner party, I do not say:

I am walking to the door.

What I may say is something like:

I am going to the kitchen to see if the dinner's ready.

In other case, if people who can not see what is going on and they need to know what the expert is doing, those two utterances can function appropriately. The two utterances are also acceptable in the case of explaining something or giving a commentary.

Sentences have meaning as instances of usage: They express propositions by combining words into structures in accordance with grammatical rules. This kind of meaning is called *meaning signification*. The second kind of meaning is that which sentences and parts of sentences assume when they are put to use for communicative purposes. It refers to *value*. Having presented sentences like: **This is a nose, this is my leg, etc.** in a demonstration, either by pointing to the relevant parts of his own anatomy or by using a picture, the teacher might go on to provide practice in manipulating these structures by getting his pupils to participate in question and answer sequences of the following sort:

110

Teacher: What's this?

Pupils : it's nose

Teacher: What's this?

Pupils : it's leg.

This procedure can be effective in teaching the signification of structures like „This is a“ and of various vocabulary items. But a sentence likes ‘**This is a nose**’ is

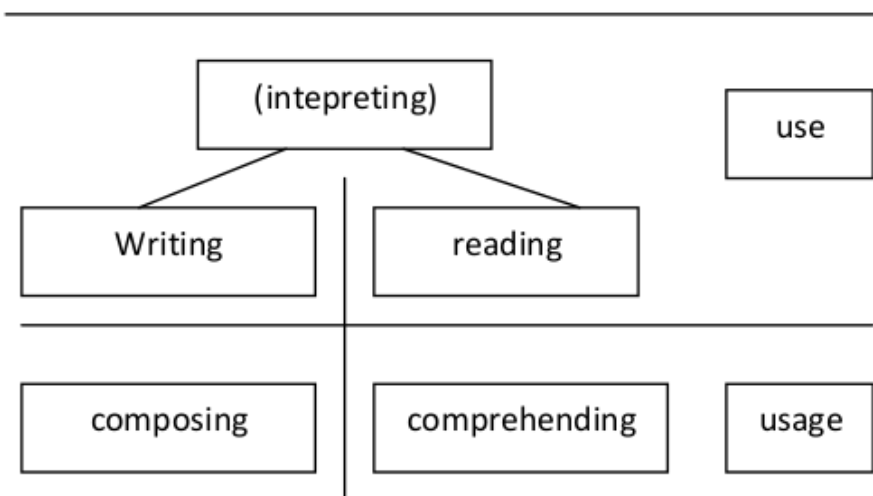
seldom used in actual communication. In this respect, its value as use is low. So as a teacher, it is important to select items of the highest potential value: those which can be realized to perform the kinds of acts of communication which the learner will have to deal with. The criterion of coverage relates not to usage but to potential use.

82 It is common view among language teachers that they should attempt to associate the language they are teaching with situations outside the classroom, to what they frequently refer to as „real world“. After all, the language teacher always has to know about something other than the language he is teaching. Traditionally, this knowledge has been of the culture and literature associated with the particular language in question. In other word, it is likely to be easier to extend a knowledge of use into new situations and other kinds of discourse than it is to transfer a knowledge of usage, no matter how extensive, to an ability to use this knowledge in the actual business of communication.

Knowing a language is often taken to mean having a knowledge of correct usage but this knowledge is of little utility on its own: it has to be complemented by a knowledge of appropriate use. The teaching of usage does not appear to guarantee knowledge of use while the teaching of use, however, does seem to guarantee the learning of usage since the latter is represented as a necessary part of the former. The best way of doing this was to associate the teaching of foreign language with topics drawn from other subjects on the school curriculum and this is not only helps to ensure the link with reality and the pupils' own experience but also provides us with the most certain means we have of teaching the language as communication, as use, rather than simply as usage.

productive

receptive



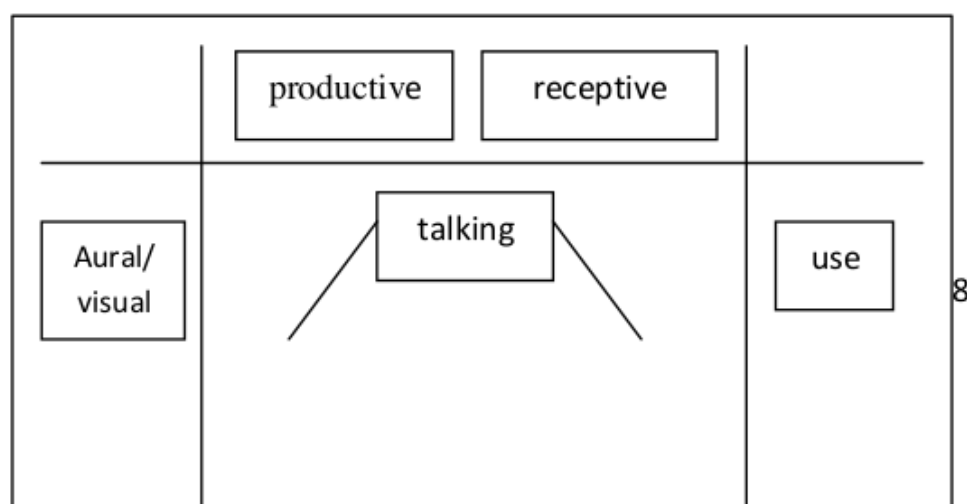
Linguistic skills and communicative abilities

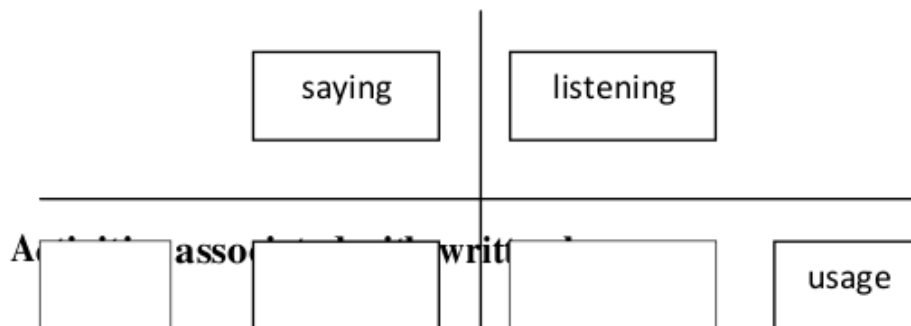
The aims of language teaching are very commonly defined in terms of four skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing. Speaking and listening are said to relate to language expressed through the aural (vocal organs), and reading and writing are said to relate to language expressed through the visual medium. From the activity of language user, speaking and writing are said to be active, or productive skills whereas listening and reading are said to be passive, or receptive skills.

Speaking for the manifestation of language as usage refers to the productive utilization of the aural medium. But speaking for the manifestation of language use refers to natural communicative interaction which does not only use our vocal organs, involves not only the production of sounds but also the use of gesture, the movement of the muscles of the face, and indeed of the whole body, it is called **talking**. Talking involves the use of both aural and visual media. It should be clear from this, that saying something necessarily involves speaking sentences and listening to what is said necessarily

involves hearing sentences. But talking does not simply mean making use of the aural medium to speak. One can speak a sentence without saying anything and one can hear a sentence without listening to its communicative import. *Speaking* does not include *saying* and *hearing* does not include *listening*. It should be noted that from the point of view adopted here, speaking and hearing are distinct and independent activities whereas saying and listening are aspects of the one activity: talking.¹⁰⁷

Listening is the activity of recognizing what function sentences have in an interaction, what communicative value. Listening in manifestation of language as usage refers to the recognition of the signification of sentences, *hearing*.⁴⁴ The aim of the language course is to develop an ability to handle spoken language, and how the language being learned is used for talking.





Writing in one sense is the production of well-formed sentences of English and grammatical system of the language incorporates into paragraphs as instances of *usage*. Writing is using sentences to create a discourse and each sentence takes on a particular value as a part of this discourse, or the act of making up correct sentences and transmitting them through the visual medium as marks on paper, *composing*. Writing as use, as distinct from composing (writing as usage), is in the sense that it proceeds by reference to the writer's own interpretation of what has preceded and to his assessment as to how what has been written and is being written will be received by the reader.

A. Exercise in usage and use.

A concentration on separate sentences in isolation from a context would give them the character of instances of use. The point of such exercises is not to get learners to make statements in writing which have some communicative purpose but to get them to manifest their knowledge of the working of the system of the language, they are exercises in usage.

1. Composing sentences in passages.

A piece of language (to use a neutral expression) only becomes an instance of use when it is treated as such, that authenticity is a matter of appropriate response to language as communication. If the learner is presented with a passage rather than isolated sentences, and the learner is simply required to practice his composing skill on it, this passage is treated as usage.

For example:

- *Change the verbs in the passage into the past tense.*
- *Change the sentences in the passage into the passive.*

This exercise requires the learner to do is move from verb form to verb form and change it into the past tense. If he knows how tenses are formed in English⁴⁴ he will have no difficulty in doing the exercise and he need pay non attention whatever to what the sentences mean or the manner in which they relate to each other. His attention is directed to usage; features like the cohesive value of the pronouns and of such expression as these characteristics are ignored. In the second example of instruction, the learner moves from sentence to sentence and makes the necessary structural change to produce passive. This passage has a more normal ring to the use. It has greater use potential than the first example and more closely to rhetorical conventions because the theme that is treated is more commonly associated with impersonal statements in which the main topic is given prominence and the facts dealt with in detachment from individual experience.

2. Using the context

Exercise without context not only not develop the learner's ability to process sentences as they combine

naturally to form discourse but they actually inhibit such a development by directing the learner's attention to the isolation of the sentences as instances of usage. The exercise we devise should aim at developing natural language behavior.

B. Preparation exercises

Preparation exercises play a part in the presentation of the writing itself. This requires the learner to first comprehend a set of sentences and then to read a passage which incorporated them. It was represented as an exercise in which comprehension is extended into reading but it is easy to see that it can also be represented as an exercise in which composing is extended into writing. The learner is asked to produce sentences and simple accounts for himself by performing various completion, conversion and transformation operations.

For example:

- *(completion)*
Put the present tense forms of the following verbs in the sentences below:
extend, begin, identify, last, be, end
 1. The second phase of development the renaissance period.
 2. The modern period Up to the present day.
- *(Transformation)*
Group the following sentence into. Then show how the sentences are related by replacing the noun phrase in the second sentence with a pronoun.
Example:
The modern period is the third phase of development.

The modern period of the West European city begins in the early nineteenth century.

= The modern period is the third phase of development. It/This begins in the early nineteenth century.

Comprehending and Reading

Learners need to acquire communicative abilities by ultimately be induced to treat reading passages as discourse, to adopt the same attitude to them as he would to written discourse in his own language, authentic. To cast comprehension exercises in the form of questions only tends to emphasize the artificiality of the enterprise and so to prevent the learner from adopting the kind of attitude which will encourage the development of the reading ability. It might be difficult for the learner to treat the passage authentically when the questions and answers that follow it are not themselves authentic language behavior. We are not in normal circumstances, required to submit ourselves to interrogation after having read something, knowing at the same time that the person putting the questions already knows the answers. Exercises for developing the reading ability should direct the learner to what goes on in his mind, to his mental behavior, and not require him to provide anything like a natural overt response.

For example:

Q: Where did spices, silk and carpets come from?

A: Spices, silk and carpets came from the East.

Q: Who was said to rule over the East?

A: Prester John was said to rule over the East.

Reading as usage can refer to the ability to recognize sentences and their meaning as linguistic elements or it can refer to the ability to recognize how they function as parts of discourse, *comprehending*. Reading as language skill use does not simply involve the recognition of what words and sentences mean but also the recognition of the value they take on in association with each other as elements in a discourse. In communicative activities, writing and reading are common with *interpreting*.

Linguistic skills and communicative abilities

Widdowson defines linguistic skills as skills which are defined with reference to medium (speaking, hearing, composing and comprehending) and refer to the way in which the language system is manifested, or recognized to be manifested, as usage. Furthermore, if those skills are defined with reference to the manner and mode in which the system is realized as use as *communicative abilities*. Communicative abilities embrace linguistic skills but not the reverse.

The nature of communicative abilities is the ways of creating or re-creating discourse in different modes. This activity involves inferring what propositions sentences are being used to express and how they inter-relate. It also involves the ability to infer what illocutionary acts these propositions are being used to perform and how these combine in a coherent way. It involves an understanding of the communicative value of linguistic elements in context and this is based on a knowledge of how these elements may serve as clues which can be interpreted by reference to shared conventions of communication.

The ultimate aim in language learning is to acquire communicative competence, to interpret, whether this is made overt in talking or corresponding or whether it remains covert

as a psychological activity underlying the ability to say, listen, write and read. The abilities include the skills: one can not acquire the former without acquiring the latter. Students have acquired or are acquiring communicative abilities already when they have to interpret in their reading and writing as a part of their learning of science. The traditional way of teaching has concentrated on the linguistic skills and the non-verbal aspects of discourse have tended to be neglected. Wi³⁴owson also suggests that we can make use of the learners' knowledge of non-verbal aspects of discourse, and of their ability to interpret them, as a means of linking³⁴ their communicative abilities in their own language to a realization of³⁰ these abilities in the language they are learning. We need to remove these abilities from a dependence on linguistic skills in the mother tongue and associate them with linguistic skills in the foreign language. It is important to recognize that language teaching is a theoretical as well as a practical activity, that effective teaching materials and classroom procedures depend on principles deriving from an understanding of what language is and how it is used.

Linguistic skills is a competence of language that someone has in their brain, this competence can be measured by performance. Teachers can improve students' competence and evaluate it through their performance.

Conclusion

¹³⁰

When teaching of language only involves developing²⁴ the ability to produce correct sentences, it is unsatisfactory. It is important to recognize, however, that it is not the only ability that learners need to acquire. Someone knowing a language knows more than how to understand, speak, read and write

sentences. He also knows how sentences are used to communicative effect.

A distinction has been made between language Usage and Language use. The first of these is the citation of words and sentences as manifestations of the language system, and the second is the way the system is realized for normal communicative purposes. Knowing a language is often taken to mean having knowledge of correct usage but this knowledge is of little utility on its own; It has to be complemented by a knowledge of appropriate use.

The teacher should consider the language use as possibilities and put it into practice at 22 at seems to be the most appropriate and practicable time. It was suggested that perhaps the best way of teaching language use was t associate the teaching of foreign language with topics drawn from other subjects on the school curriculum.

The communicative abilities operate on everything that is communicative in the discourse as a whole. The linguistic skills, on the other hand, can by definition only operate on what is verbally manifested. Language teaching has traditionally concentrated on the linguistic skills and the non-verbal aspects of discourse have to be neglected. It needs to be changed.

Widdowson wrote some examples of exercises which focus on language usage and language use. These examples might help English language teachers to make a good preparation in designing exercises more to the real purpose of English language learning rather than mastering the rules of language.

Part Two

TEACHING THE LANGUAGE

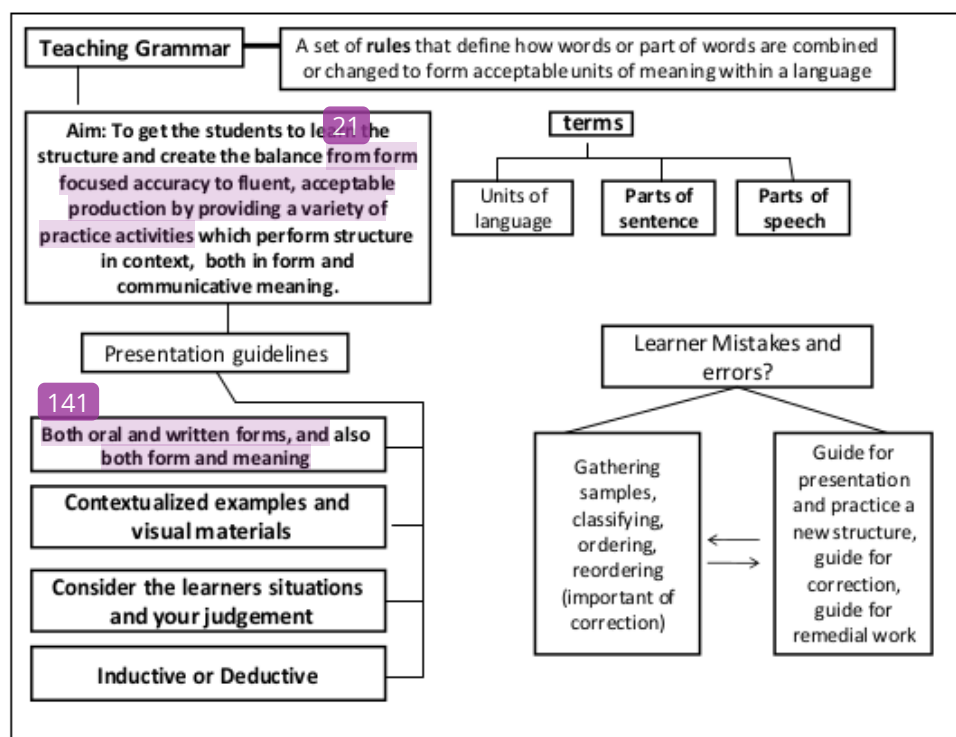
Bagian dua buku ini juga terdiri dari 7 *chapter* yang memuat teori dan aplikasi sederhana tentang bagaimana mengajarkan Bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing untuk tiap keahlian berbahasa yang meliputi tujuan, prinsip umum, dan strategi serta teknik mengembangkan tiap keahlian berbahasa tersebut. Bagian ini merupakan jabaran teknis teori dan prinsip pengajaran yang terdapat pada bab sebelumnya. Yang terpenting adalah contoh bentuk-bentuk aktivitas kelas sebagai performa pengajaran yang secara langsung dapat diterapkan, baik dari metode yang dipilih, teknik yang disesuaikan dengan konteks kelas serta variasi aktivitas yang disesuaikan dengan tema dan pokok bahasan tiap pertemuan.

Bagian ini akan membantu mahasiswa merancang model pengajaran terpadu (*integrated language teaching*), karena akan juga diuraikan dengan jelas dan transparan bagaimana prinsip *Communicative Competence* (pada bab 1) diterapkan dalam pengajaran setiap keahlian berbahasa Inggris.

Bagian dua dirancang untuk memenuhi tujuan pengajaran mata kuliah TEFL yakni Mahasiswa diharapkan mampu menerapkan metode mengajar Bahasa Inggris dan selanjutnya merancang strategi, teknik dan aktivitas kelas, sesuai dengan prinsip metode yang digunakan, baik untuk pengajaran tiap keahlian (skill) berbahasa maupun pengajaran Bahasa Inggris secara integrative.

Chapter I

Teaching English Grammar

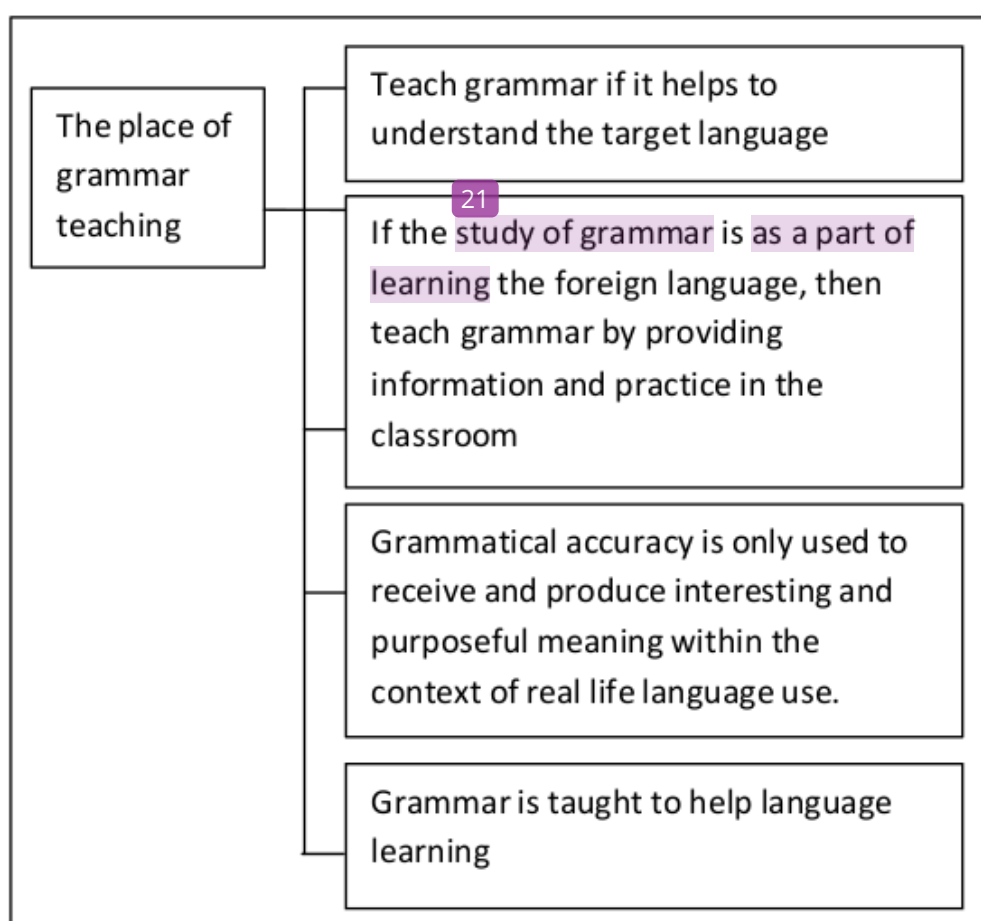


What is Grammar?

Grammar sometimes defines as „the way words are put together to make correct sentences“²¹. A specific instance of grammar is usually called „structure“. Examples of structures would be the past tense, noun plurals, the comparison of adjectives and so on. Not all languages, of course, have the same structures. Occasionally foreign structures that look strange may surprisingly easy to master, and vice versa.

²¹ Brown, H. Douglas. *Teaching by Principles*. 1994. Prentice Hall Inc. New York. h. 347

Grammar does not only affect how units of language are combined in order to look right, it also affects their meaning. The teaching of grammatical meaning unfortunately tends to be neglected in many textbooks in favor of an emphasis on accuracy of form. But it is no good knowing how to perceive or construct a new tense of a verb if we do not know exactly what difference it makes to meaning when it is used. The meaning of a grammatical structure maybe quite difficult to teach.



The place of grammar in teaching foreign language is controversial. Most people agree that knowledge of a language means, among other things, knowing its grammar. By communicative use in real „speech acts“, that the new language is taught like in the real context of communication.

The teaching of grammar has been a central aspect of foreign language teaching. For centuries, in fact, the only activity of language classrooms was the study of grammar. The twentieth century has changed all dramatically. Now teachers in Communicative Language Teaching come to the question „do we really need to teach grammar?“ Appropriate grammar focusing techniques:

- Are embedded in meaningful , communicative context
- Contribute positively to communicative goals
- Promote accuracy within fluent, communicative language
- Do not overwhelm students with linguistic terminology
- Are as lively and intrinsically motivating as possible

Grammatical terms

No	grammatical terms		definition
1	Units of language	sentence	<div>40</div> a set of words standing on their own as a sense unit, its conclusion marked by a full stop or equivalent (question mark, exclamation mark). In many languages sentences begin with a capital letter, and include a verb

		clause	a kind of mini sentence: a set of words which make a sense of unit, but may not be concluded by a full stop.
		phrase	a shorter unit within a clause, of one or more words, but fulfilling the same sort of function as a single word.
		word	the minimum normally separable form: in writing, it appears as a stretch of letters with a space either side
		morpheme	a bit of a word which can be perceived as a distinct component.
2	part of the sentence	subject, verb, object (direct or indirect), complement, adverbial	
3	part of speech	nouns	traditionally characterized as naming a person, place, or thing, but in fact they may refer to activities or event, abstracts, and various other kinds of things.
		verbs	words of „doing“, but

			they also indicate a state of „being, feeling
		adjectives	describe the things referred to by nouns or pronouns
		adverbs	describe the concept defined by verbs
		pronouns	usually function as substitutes for nouns or noun phrase, and like them may function as subject, object, complement or follow a preposition.
		auxiliary verbs	may be attached to main verbs in a verb phrase
		modal verbs	particular type of auxiliary verbs, express ideas such as possibility, ability and so on.
		determiners	item that introduce a noun or a noun phrase
		preposition	Define time, space and more abstract relationships, and precede nouns or pronouns.

Practice ideas about how to teach grammar²²:

- a. Keep your explanation brief and simple. Use the mother tongue if students cannot follow an explanation in English
- b. Use charts and other visuals whenever possible to graphically depict grammatical relationships
- c. Illustrate with clear, unambiguous examples
- d. Try to account for varying cognitive styles among your students (for examples: analytical learners will have an easier time picking up on grammatical explanations than will holistic learners)
- e. Do not get yourself and students, tied up in knots over so-called “exception” rules.
- f. If you do not know how to explain something, do not risk giving false information; rather, tell students you will research that point and bring an answer back the next day.

Many students’ errors in speech and writing performance are grammatical. Interestingly, we have no research evidence that specific errors show that overt grammatical correction by teachers in the classroom is of any consequence in improving learners’ language. But we do have evidence that various other forms of attention to and treatment of grammatical errors have an impact on learners, as long as teachers adhere to principle of maintaining communicative flow, of maximizing students-self correction, and of sensitively considering the affective and linguistic place the learner is in.

Some techniques in teaching grammar

1. Using charts
2. Using objects

²² Richards, Jack C, and Willy Renandya, *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. 2004. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. h. 145

3. Using maps and other simple drawings
4. Using dialogs
5. Using written texts

Types of grammar practice: from accuracy to fluency

1. Awareness

After learners have been introduced to the structure, they are given opportunities to encounter it within some kind of discourse, and do a task that focuses their attention on its form and/or meaning.

2. Controlled drills

Learners produce examples of the structure: these examples are, however, predetermined by the teacher or textbook, and have to conform to very clear, closed-ended

cues.

3. Meaningful drills

Again the responses are very controlled, but learner can make a limited choice,

4. Guided, meaningful practice

Learners form sentences of their own according to a set of pattern, but exactly what vocabulary they use up to them

5. (structure-based) free sentence composition

Learners are provided with a visual or situational cue, and invited to compose their own responses; they are directed to use the structure.

6. (structure-based) discourse composition

Learners hold a discussion or write a passage to a given task; they are directed to use at least some examples of the structure within the discourse

31

7. Free discourse

As in type 6, but the learners are given no specific direction to use the structure, however, the task situation is such that instances of it are likely to appear.

Chapter 2

Teaching English Vocabulary

What is Vocabulary?

Vocabulary can be defined roughly, as the words we teach in the foreign language. There are three basic approaches in teaching vocabularies²³: incidental learning, explicit instruction, and independent strategy development.

No	Approaches	Application
1	the incidental learning	Teacher provides opportunities for extensive reading and listening.
2	explicit Instruction	involves diagnosing the words learners need to know, presenting the words for the first time, elaborating word knowledge, and developing fluency with known words
3	independent strategy	involves practicing guessing from context and training learners to use dictionaries

131

The three approaches are presented as seven teaching principles:

1. Provide opportunities for the incidental learning of vocabulary.

Learning vocabulary from context is a gradual process, estimating that, given a single exposure to an unfamiliar word, there were about a 10% chance of learning its meaning from context. Foreign language learners can be

²³ *Ibid.*, h. 255

expected to require many exposures to a word in context before understanding its meaning.

Diagnose which of the 3000 most common words learners need to study²⁵

This is important because this amount covers a high percentage²⁵ of the words on an average page and knowing minimum 3000 words was required for effective reading at university level, whereas knowing 5000 words indicated likely academic success. One way to estimate vocabulary size is to use Nation's (1990) Vocabulary Levels Test or a checklist test which requires learners to mark the words on a list that they believe they know.

2. Provide opportunities for the intentional learning of vocabulary.

When teaching unfamiliar vocabulary, teacher needs to consider the following²⁴:

- a. Learners need to do more than just to see the form. They need to practice the pronunciation and practice saying the word aloud as well. The syllable structure and stress pattern of the words are important because there are two ways in which words are stored in memory.
- b. Start by learning semantically unrelated words. Also avoid learning words with similar forms, and closely related meaning.
- c. It is more effective to study words regularly over several short sessions than to study them for one or two longer sessions.
- d. Study five to seven words at a time, dividing larger numbers of words into smaller groups. As learners review these five to seven cards, they will more

²⁴ *Ibid.*, h. 267

quickly get repeated exposure to the words than when larger groups are studied.

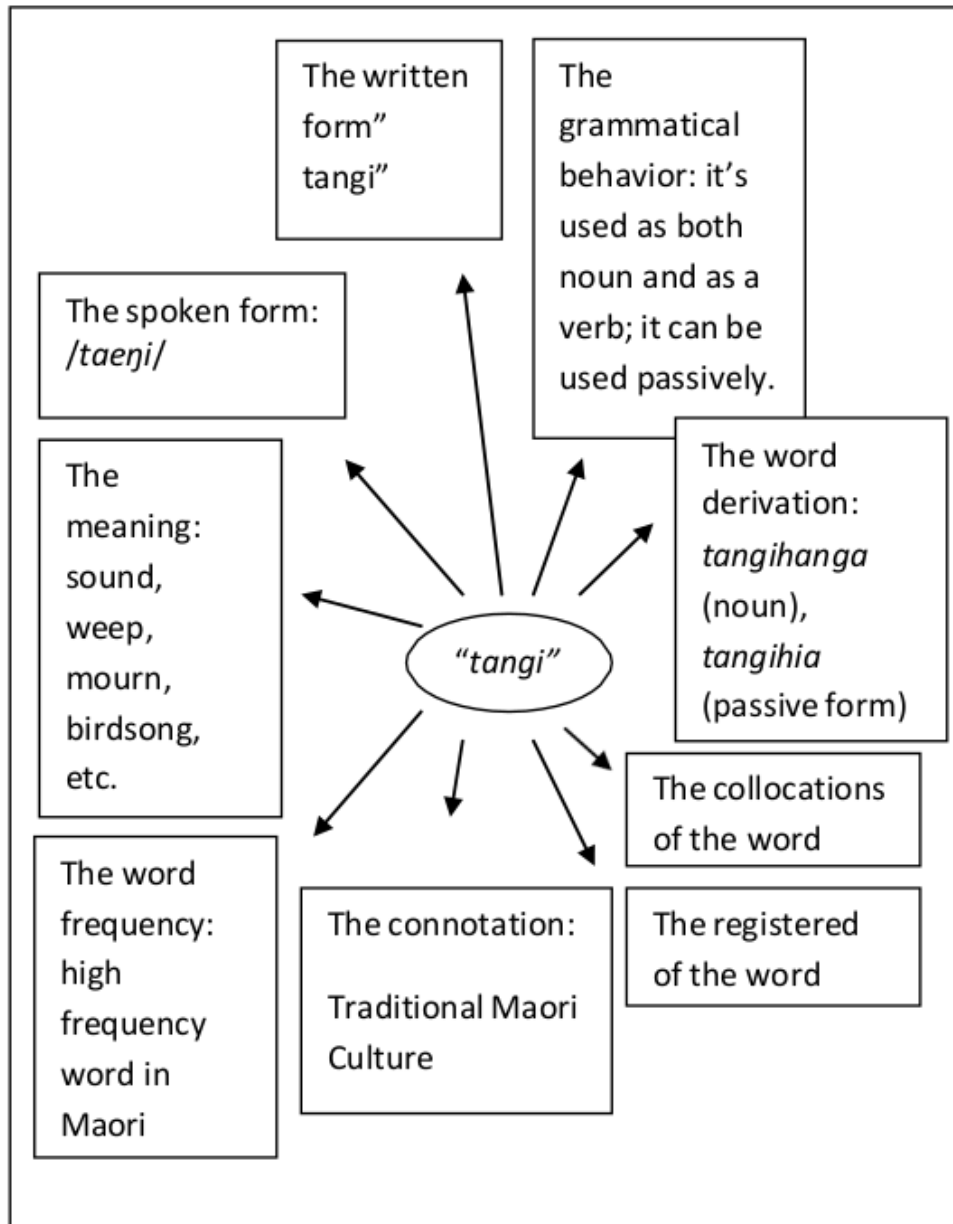
- e. Use activities such as the keywords technique to promote deeper mental processing and better retention.
3. Provide opportunities for elaborating word knowledge
Elaborating involves expanding the connection between what the learners already know and new information. One way to do this is to choose L2 words from the surrounding context and to explain their connection to the recently learned words.
4. Provide opportunities for developing fluency with known vocabulary.
Fluency-building activities recycle already known word in familiar grammatical and organizational patterns so that students can focus on recognizing or using words without hesitation.
5. Experiment with guessing from context
6. Examine different type of dictionaries and teach the students how to use them.

Learning vocabulary through incidental, intentional, and independent approaches requires teachers to plan a wide variety of activities and exercises.

Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.²⁵ If you spend most of your time studying grammar, your English will improve very much. You will see most improvement if you learn more words and expression. You can say very little with grammar. But you can say almost anything with words.

At the most basic level, knowing a word involves knowing its form and its meaning. For example:

²⁵ Thornbury, Scot. *How to Teach Vocabulary*. 2004. England: Pearson Education Limited. h. 13



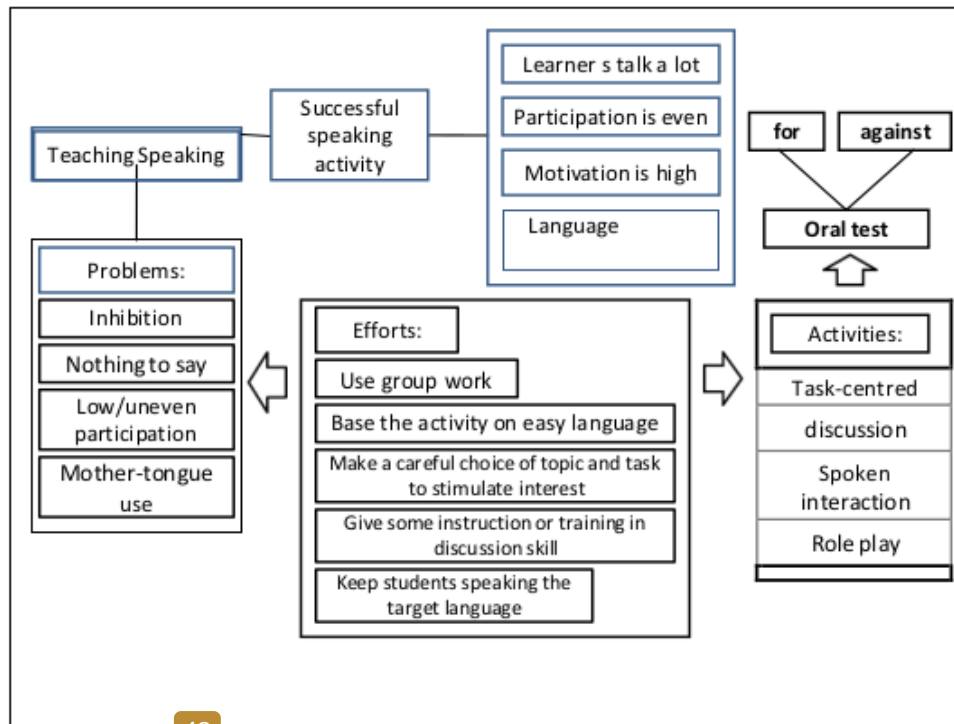
What is in a word? What can we teach about a word?

In studying a word we can elaborate²⁶:

1. **7** Word classes
Eight different word classes: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverb, prepositions, conjunctions, determiner.
2. Word families
Root, affixes, inflexions, derivatives, affixation, suffixes, prefixes. (Example: understand – understands, understanding, understood, misunderstood, misunderstand)
3. Word formation
Compounding, blended, conversion, clipping or **137** shortening.
4. Multi-word units
5. Collocations
6. Homonyms
7. Polysemes
Having multiple but related meanings, each of which called polysemes. (Context)
8. Synonym and antonyms
9. Hyponyms
10. Lexical fields
11. Style and connotation

²⁶ *Ibid.*, h. 1

Chapter 3 Teaching Speaking



42

Of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important. People who know the language are referred to as speaker of that language¹¹⁹ if speaking included all other kinds of knowing and many if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak.

Factors that affect pronunciation

1. Native Language

94

Clearly that the native language will be the most influential factor affecting a learner's pronunciation. If as the teacher, we are familiar with the sound system of a

learner's native language, we will be better able to diagnose students' difficulties. Many L1-L2 carryovers can be overcome through a focused awareness and effort on the learner's part.

2. Age

Generally speaking, children under the age of puberty stand an excellent chance of „sounding like a native“ if they have continued exposure in authentic contexts. Beyond the age of puberty, while adults will almost surely maintain a „foreign accent“, there seem to be no particular advantage attributed to age. A fifty-year-old can be as successful as an eighteen-year-old if all other factors are equal. Remind our students; especially if they are „older“, that youth has no special advantage.

3. Exposure

It is difficult to define exposure. One can actually live in a foreign country for some time but not take advantage of being „with the people.“ Research seems to support the notion that the quality and intensity of exposure is more important than the mere length of time. If class time spent focusing on pronunciation demands the full attention and interest of your students, then they stand a good chance of reaching their goals.

4. Innate phonetic ability

Often referred to have an „ear“ for language, some people manifest a phonetic coding ability that others do not. In many cases, if a person has had exposure to a foreign language as a child, this „knack“ is present whether the early language is remembered or not. Others are simply more attuned to phonetic discriminations. Some people would have you believe that you either have such a „knack“, or you don't. Learner strategy learning, however, has proven that some elements of learning are a matter of an awareness of your own limitations combined with a

conscious focus on doing something to compensate for those limitations. Therefore, if pronunciation seems to be naturally difficult for some students, they should not despair with some effort and concentration, they can improve their competence.

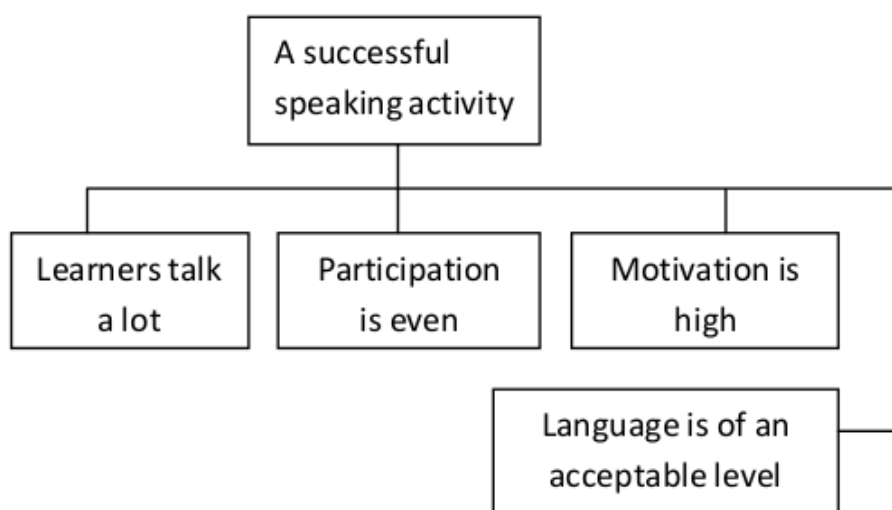
5. Identity and language ego.

Yet another influence is one's attitude toward speakers of the target language and the extent to which the language ego identifies with those speakers. Learners need to be reminded of the importance of positive attitudes toward the people who speak the language, but more importantly, students need to become aware of – and not afraid of –

100 the second identity that may be emerging within them.

6. Motivation and concern for good pronunciation

Some learners are not particularly concerned about their pronunciation while others are. The extent to which their intrinsic motivation propels them toward improvement will be perhaps the strongest influence of all six of the factors. If that motivation and concern is high, then the necessary effort will be expended in pursuit of goals. You can help learners to perceive or develop that motivation by showing, among other things, how clarity of speech is significant in shaping their self image and ultimately, in reaching some of their higher goals.



Problems with speaking activities

1. Inhibition
Unlike reading, writing and listening activities, speaking requires some degree of real-time exposure to an audience. Learners are often inhibited about trying to say things in foreign language in the classroom: worried about making mistakes, fearful of criticism or losing face, or simply shy of the attention that their speech attracts.
2. Nothing to say
Even if they are not inhibited, you often hear learners to complain that they cannot think of anything to say: they have no motive to express themselves beyond the guilty feeling that they should be speaking
3. Low or uneven participation
Only one participant can talk at a time if he or she is to be heard. In a large group this means that each one will have only very little talking time. This problem is compounded by the tendency of some learners to dominate, while others speak very little or not at all
4. Mother-tongue use

In classes where all, or a number of, the learners share the same mother tongue, they may tend to use it. Because it is easier, because it feels unnatural to speak to one another in a foreign language, and because they feel less exposed if they are speaking their mother tongue.

What the teacher can do to help to solve some of the problems:

1. Use group work
2. Base the activity on easy language
3. Make a careful choice of topic and task to stimulate interest.
4. Give some instruction or training in discussion skills.
5. Keep the students speaking the target language

Principles for designing speaking Techniques

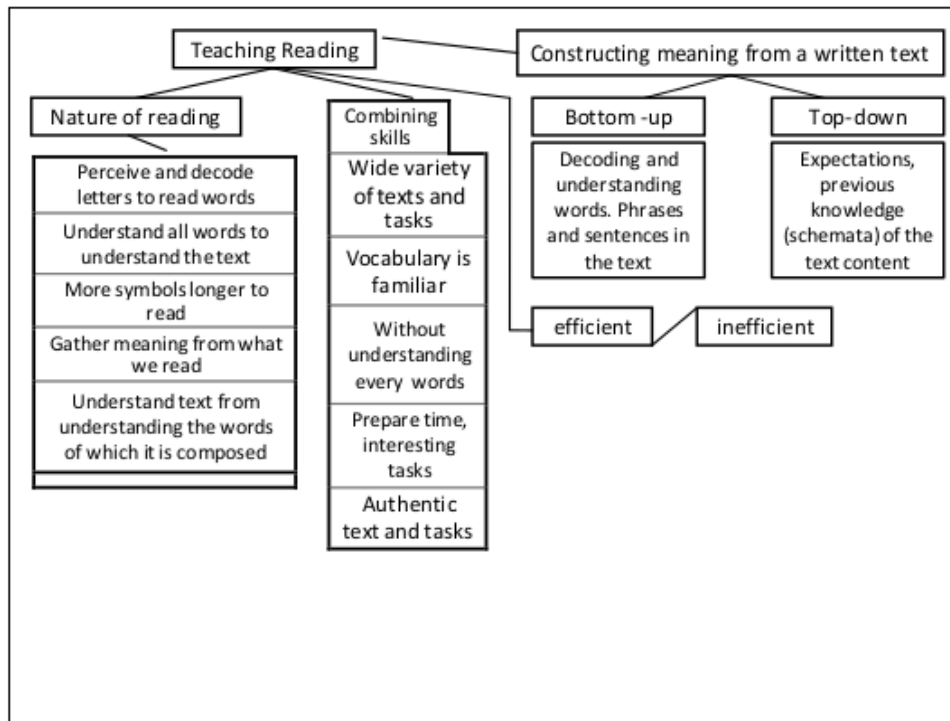
1. Techniques should cover the spectrum of learner needs, from language base focus on accuracy to message based focus on interaction, meaning and fluency.
2. Techniques should be intrinsically motivating
3. Techniques should encourage the use of authentic language in meaningful contexts
4. Provide appropriate feedback and correction
5. Capitalize on natural link between speaking and listening.
6. Give students opportunities to initiate oral communication
7. Encourage the development of speaking strategies

Techniques for teaching oral communication skills

No	techniques	Examples ³²
1	Pronunciation: Rhythm and Thought groups	a. In Illinois,/driving around the house in low gear/is said to cure a family member's illness./ b. If you break a mirror,/then you will have seven years bad luck,/unless you throw the broken pieces in a moving stream./
2	pronunciation: Intonation (pitch changes, rising and falling pitch,)	a. Scenario: a husband and wife are preparing to go out to a party or dinner, but the baby sitter has just phoned to say she could not make it, and so now they may not be able to go out after all. b. Scenario: a young man has come to pick up his date, but she can not go because the babysitter didn't show up so she would have to stay home and babysit.
3	pronunciation: Meaningful minimal pairs	drilling techniques that have been modified to bring context, interest, and a bit of authenticity
4	pronunciation: stress	
5	grammar	pay attention to a specific rules or structures

6	discourse	play a tape as a model
7	strategy consciousness raising	outside the classroom
8	interactive techniques	<div>124</div> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interviews • Guessing games • Jigsaw tasks • Ranking exercise • Discussions • Problem solving activities • Role play • simulations
9	individual practice	oral and written dialog journals (the students records thoughts, ideas, reaction, and the teacher read the respond with written comments)

Chapter 4 Teaching Reading



The purpose of teaching English reading is to develop student's competence in reading skills which covers the basic standard of competence in Curriculum-Based Competence (CBC). For university students, reading is the key to gain as much knowledge as possible. Thus, it is important for reading lecturers to create a comfortable reading atmosphere in the class not only by asking the students to read or checking their understanding but also recognizing their conditions. For quite long, teaching reading in STAIN English Study Program tends to only force students to read and do the tasks based on the text. Consequently, most students are only able to do the reading task without mastering the way to transfer the reading skills when they are faced other reading texts.

As students, especially in reading subject, perhaps we have experienced learning to read in a language that is not our native or dominant language. As lecturer, we should bring a certain amount of knowledge to the students. We are supposed to teach reading, either in the students' native language (L1) or in their second or foreign language (L2/FL). In Indonesia, English acts as a foreign language. We learn English in formal education. McWhorter states that people take English to fulfill their purposes, such as to run education, to get job, and others and English reading is one of the skills in learning to reach those purposes.

In English Study Program of STAIN Curup, particularly for reading class, there are some realities which give a little support to the development of students' reading skill. For instance, the setting of studying is unconsciously monotonous: the lecturer distributes the text, explains the instructions, and has the students do the tasks individually, finally, about 30 minutes before the class over, he guides the class discussion for searching the correct answers. The role of the lecturer is almost as a corrector, rather than a facilitator. The lecturers' orientation seems only teaching and giving the materials without considering the students' need. Most of the reading class activities during the semester are spent by reading the text individually and in peers answering questions based on the text whether orally or in written form, after that the class is ended. The time for one meeting reading class which should be 2 credits, sometimes too long. In contrast, frequently, the class is over before the schedule.

Another phenomenon for reading class, particularly about the lecturer is it seems difficult to find English lecturer who happily accept the responsibility to teach English reading. Perhaps if they are offered to choose the subjects they should teach, reading will become their last choice. From a grand tour during 2004-2005 and informal interviews with some English

lecturers in STAIN Curup, the writer finds some causes of this phenomenon. First, they have already predicted how bored the class will be, because it needs time to actively create variation of activities in the class. Second, it is difficult to find sources which are suitable for L2/FL reading, particularly for Islamic reading texts. Third, they feel it is difficult to arrange the syllabus, and develop the reading materials for one semester is time consuming. However, the lecturers' orientation seems only teaching and giving the materials without considering the students' need.

The limitation of knowledge about teaching L2/FL reading is the real problem. It creates a limitation of teaching activity. In L1 reading, the students have the ability to read in their own native language, and they have knowledge about what reading is, even though they may no longer be conscious of what they do when they read or how they learned to read. Furthermore, they have been students in classes where the teacher helps them learn how to read. Reading in the L1 (first language) shares numerous important basic elements with reading in the L2 (second language) or FL (foreign language), and the process also differ significantly. Some studies show that reading proficiency in an L1 has little influence on reading proficiency in an L2/FL; others show that there is a correlation between the two. These two aspects should be considered by L2 reading teacher because they will affect the process and the result of teaching reading itself.

In fact, formal reading class is one of the students' opportunities to get the basic knowledge about reading skills which further should be applied in their studying for every subject, not only for English department students but also other departments. A proverb says that "Reading is a window of the world". Besides, reading class is also a moment for them in order to get used with English reading. Moreover, by following reading class actively, the students can

comprehend the strategy in understanding English reading and develop their reading abilities. It is a phenomenon that most of the students only use reading class to read English texts. It can be assumed that if there is no reading class, the students almost do not read English reading. In other word, there are only several students who use their time to read English sources outside the class. By maximizing the function of reading class effectively, students are forced to read. It is the first step to make them accustomed to do it, even though it needs time and a long process in order to make reading become their habit. These reasons show how important English reading class for students.

Based on the realities of teaching L2/FL reading and some reasons of the importance of English reading class, this article tries to discuss the six factors that influence reading in an L2/FL: cognitive development, language proficiency in L1, metacognitive knowledge, language proficiency in L2, degree of differences between L1 and L2, and cultural orientation. This article will also try to elaborate four principles of designing the reading course: goals and objectives, approaches, materials and evaluation. This article is expected to be beneficial to build an effective, useful, and comfortable reading class based on the students' need, not only for academic purposes but also for wider purposes.

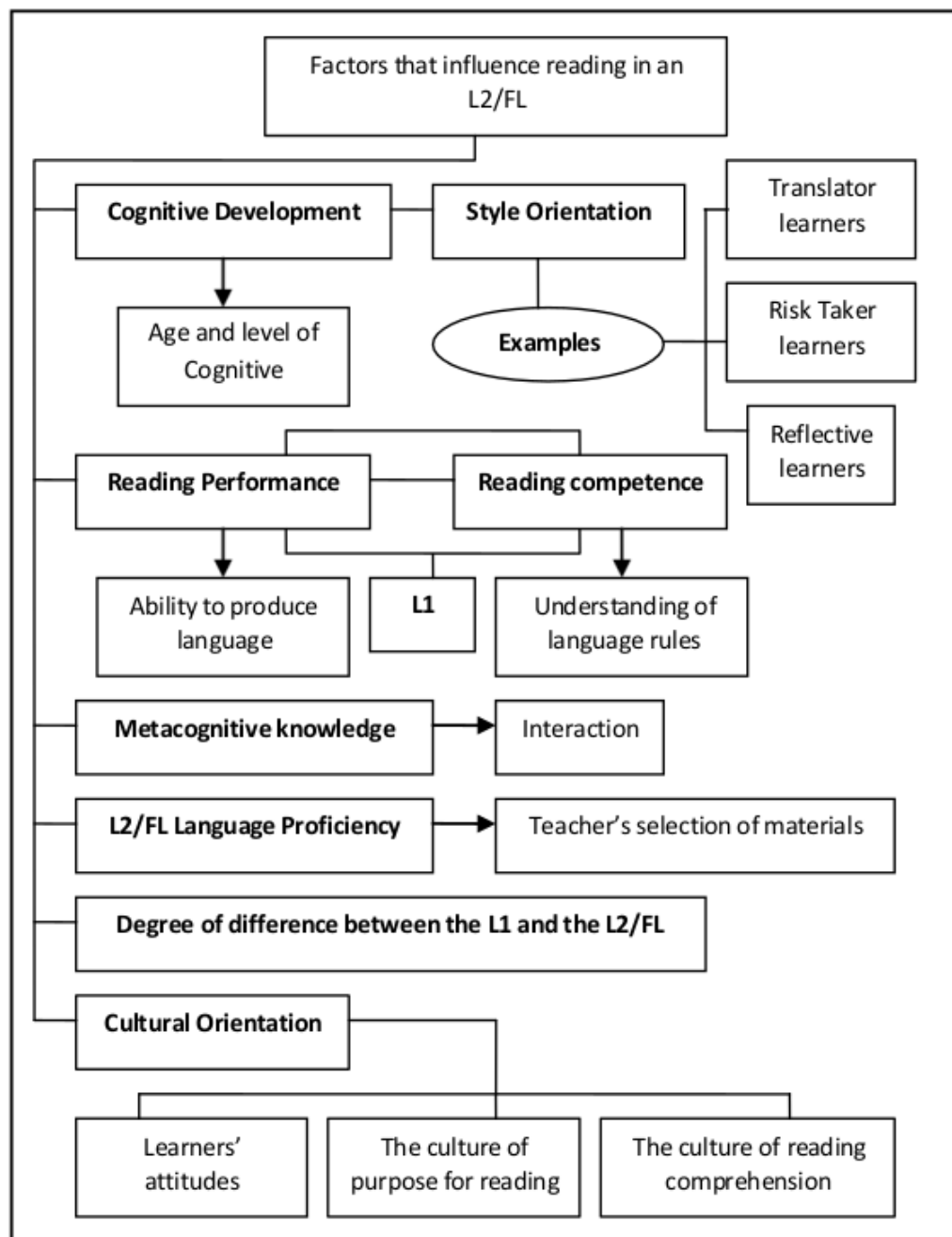
Six factors that influence reading in an L2/FL

The reading demands of college students are wide and diverse. Textbooks, the student's primary reading material, represent unique academic disciplines. Each differ in style, content and conceptual complexity. In STAIN, the students should also read literatures about Islam religion as the primary sources. The reality that the students come from different background of high schools, not only from Islamic high schools and they are different in English language level

proficiency should become considerations for lecturers in order to create an effective, useful and comfortable reading class. Grabe notes that students begin reading in an L2/FL with a different knowledge base that they had when starting to read in their L1². He also states that most L1 readers know several thousand words before they begin to read, and they have some ability to handle the basic grammar of their own language. L2/FL readers have neither of those advantages. Furthermore he notes a variety of conditions that may influence the L2/FL reading: Some are illiterate in their first language, some have little experience reading for academic purposes, some may not transfer abilities from their L1 to the L2/FL, and most try to read texts that are beyond their level of L2/FL proficiency. Aebersold proposes four factors that influence reading in an L2/FL; they are grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence³. From those theories above, we have a list of factors that influence reading in L2/FL:

- Cognitive development and cognitive style orientation at the time of beginning L2/FL study
- Language proficiency in the L1
- Metacognitive knowledge of L1 structure, grammar, and syntax
- Language proficiency in an L2/FL
- Degree of difference between the L1 and an L2/FL (writing systems, rhetorical structure, appropriate strategies)
- Cultural orientation

By considering these factors, teacher can develop some ideas to maximize the L2/FL reading class. Those aspects can be presented as in the following diagram:



1. Cognitive Development and Style Orientation

Reading teachers, however, have little control over cognitive or mental development levels at the time of beginning L2/FL. L1 and L2 reading use different underlying cognitive processes. Hatch argues that different learning strategies, reading levels, world knowledge between L1 and L2 are influenced by the age of the learner, and can influence the success of language learning⁴. College students have passed the critical period of age and arrived at mature age. However, cognitive is beyond teacher's control.

Each student brings a preferred style, whether consciously or unconsciously, to the learning process. For example, the reflective learner tends to think about new information and process it carefully before going on to the next text. In contrast, a risk taker might make a guess and go to a new task without much reflection. The students whose style has always been to translate every word in a text will have a difficult time adjusting to skimming and scanning exercises. Skilled teachers have to be careful to observe and need to know as much as possible about the behaviours of their students.

2. Reading Performance and Competence in the L1

Aebersold concludes that there is a transfer of reading skills from the L1 to an L2/FL and that teaching reading in the native language may facilitate the transfer⁵. Skilled teachers should be able to improve the transfer process so that the students in L2/FL reading do not repeat the same knowledge of reading. Teachers must try hard to use the students' competence in the L1 to increase their ability in the L2/FL. It can be done by teaching the basic knowledge of L2/FL reading, whether its **competence** – understanding the language rules, or its **performance** –

ability to produce language. The writer sees that the teachers' improvement can be started from motivating the students to use their competence in the L1 to increase their L2 reading in combination with how to perform it. So competence and performance are used together. For instance, do not only ask the students to answer the questions from the text by using the appropriate tenses, but also train them to use their memory about the text, make them produce their own sentence whether in written form or orally.

3. *Metacognitive Knowledge*

Aebersold defines metacognitive knowledge as the students' ability to discuss, describe, give rules for, and comment on L1 language use⁶. The writer sees the point of metacognitive knowledge is **interactive**. Teachers need to observe the relationships among the students all. Variety activity and classroom setting in every meeting can motivate the students interact each other and decrease the boring situation. Ask the students to work in small groups or pairs to discuss the concept, compare experiences, and develop ideas, encourage them to cooperate and collaborate. To some extent, the group takes pressure off the individual learner and places responsibility on the collective. By working through the problem in the less threatening environment of the group, individual learners gain confidence and use the L2/FL more than they would dare to in front of the whole class. It is true that working with student groups is time consuming, but students learn well and enjoy learning in these situations.

Brown⁷ states some principles for designing interactive reading techniques:

1. Techniques should be intrinsically motivating

2. techniques should utilize authentic language and contexts
3. encourage the development of reading strategies
4. include both bottom-up and top-down techniques
5. consider subdividing your techniques into pre-reading, during-reading, and after-reading phases
6. build in some evaluative aspects to your techniques.

4. *L2/FL Language Proficiency*

L2/FL readers will not be able to read as well in the foreign language as in their first language until they have reached a threshold level of competence in that foreign language. This should be considered by the teacher in keeping the balance of what the students have already taken and what they will take. Language proficiency also influences the teachers' selection of materials for the reading class. The materials should be suitable to the level of their competence. For instance, college students in the first semester who have got structure 1, and not yet writing 1, should be considered to have the first step beginner for reading text. For the next semester when they have already got structure 2 and writing, the materials for reading should be a step more difficult. Nunan notes that the materials should always be $N + 1$ or one step more difficult than before⁸. However, it is also important to avoid the frustration and despair that arise from constantly being required to tackle L2/FL reading texts that are far beyond the students' language competence.

Other examples of considering students' language proficiency are, giving pre-reading activity to the students at the beginning and low-intermediate levels of L2/FL proficiency - even though these low-intermediate students come to a text with different degree of knowledge about the text, their knowledge of the L2/FL is minimal to

nonexistent - and sometimes letting them use their first language in order to facilitate them to learn the L2/FL. But when there is an opportunity to introduce a phrase or word in the L2, teachers must interject the L2/FL as the discussion progress in the L1. This activity can also be done for the same reasons as students with higher levels of language proficiency.

5. *Degree of Difference between the L1 and the L2/FL*

Wallace explains that “Languages may be so different in the way they represent meaning in their written form that there is, arguably, no generalization¹⁴⁵ from the first to the target language”⁹. The greater the differences between the native language and the target language, the more difficult it is to acquire the target language and to become a proficient reader in it.

English language which is as a foreign language in Indonesia has more complex rules than Bahasa Indonesia as native language (L1). Teachers can use the differences as comparison to simplify the explanation of the lesson. In reading, fortunately, Bahasa Indonesia¹³³ has identical contents of knowledge. For example, paragraph - which consists of topic sentence, supporting sentences, and concluding sentence -, punctuation and their functions, and others. Many foreign vocabularies, including English words, enrich Bahasa Indonesia vocabularies. The idea of context clues in English reading is almost the same as in Bahasa Indonesia. However, there are differences such as in sentence structure, reference and of course the language itself. However, the strategy in teaching L2/FL should be innovated to the more suitable one, not only imitating the teaching of L1.

6. Cultural Orientation

Understanding the types of reading skills and strategies appropriate in the L2/FL based on the cultural orientation is also one of factors that influence successful reading in an L2/FL. College students need the skills and strategies for success in an academic situation, such as being able to read long texts efficiently, being able to infer meaning, being able to interpret and understand ambiguity, and being able to recognize implicit meaning in texts.

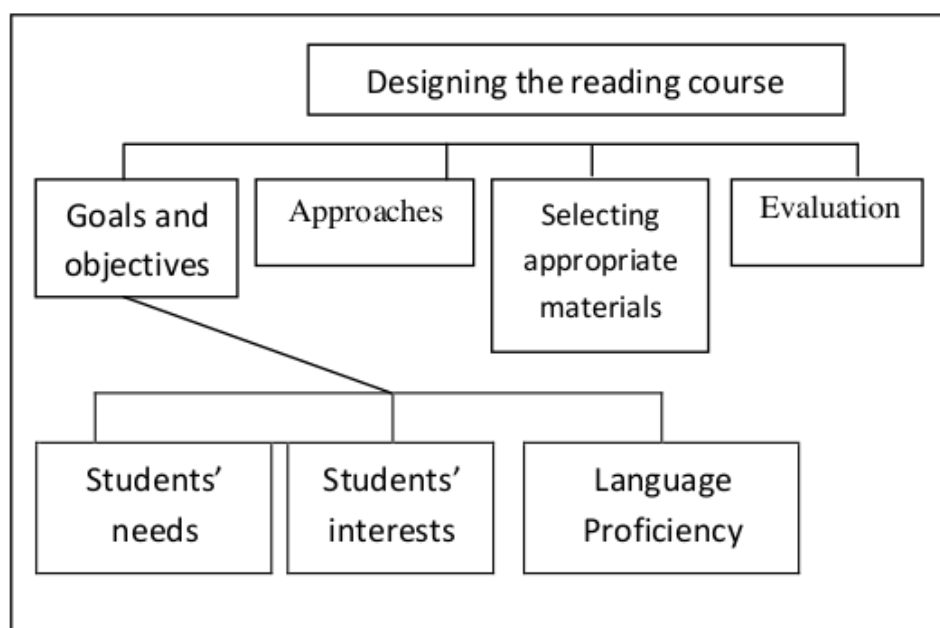
The culture in doing reading itself should be a consideration too for the teachers. It is reality that students in Indonesia spend very little time to read not only in L1 reading moreover in L2/FL reading. Teacher needs some tricks so that the students are accustomed to reading, particularly for L2/FL reading. For instance, ask the students read any readings that interest them, and then report to the class in the form of essay, story or report. By this way the students are given a large opportunity to use their language performance.

From the textbooks and the assignments given by teacher in reading subject, it seems the culture of reading comprehension in Indonesia is the ability to do the exercises correctly. This can be seen from the way teacher evaluates the students' comprehension. Most of teachers tend to give question and answer, multiple choices, true false, synonyms. Those kinds of tasks only limit the students' creativity in describing their comprehension. Aebersold describes some cultural orientation from several countries about reading class: international students who come to study in United States are often surprised at the lengthy reading assignments they receive in a history or literature class; American students abroad are amazed at the level of detail that is expected of them in university settings¹⁰. In some cultures, comprehension means the

ability to explain the grammar and structure of page of text; in others it means the ability to summarize the thesis and argument of a whole book in a few sentences.

The application of the six factors into the designing of reading course

From the six factors that influence reading in an L2/FL above, and general description of reading class, teachers can design the L2 reading class more effective for academic success and for wider purposes. In general, there are preparations need to be made before the teacher enters the reading class, as in the following diagram:



1. Goal and Objectives

Stating goals and objectives are not new things for teachers. For years, curriculum provides some guidance and also the suitable materials. Goals are broad, general statements about what students will achieve during the

semester/class. Objectives are specifically stated aims that teachers use in creating individual lesson plan. Teachers need to put more attention on how to keep on focus on these goals and objectives during the semester. Be consistent and sure that the results of these goals will be achieved by the students.

The latest curriculum – Competence-Based Curriculum – provides a large opportunity for teachers in deciding the goals, objectives and materials in teaching, but the idea is based on the students' need. Aebersold suggests that goals and objectives are better stated and must arise directly from students' needs, interests, and abilities¹¹. Teachers were not accustomed to doing this. Perhaps, they find difficulty in gaining the information about them. Most reliable way finding out what students think they need is to ask them. Variety of ways can be used to collect information about students' need: questionnaires, individual interviews or oral reports, observation of small group discussions and survey. Furthermore, survey is one easy and useful way to collect information which consists of questions for students to answer. Involving students in establishing purposes for reading will make them understand why they are in a reading class. By taking into account both teacher-perceived and students' contributed need when planning reading goals, teachers and students work together to build a learning environment that is relevant to both.

The involvement of students is also needed in specific lessons. The students' reception of activities and their comments about activities serve as a guide to their needs and interests. Teacher can share the responsibility for learning and the power of planning with their students. For example, students could decide what strategies they want the class to explore with certain reading texts. By

doing this, students are not only developing their knowledge of how to approach a text in the L2/FL but also their confidence in doing so.

Students' interest is also needed as a contribution in deciding goals. In the background of this paper, from the writer's experience, it is possible that very few students have needs that motivate them to read in the L2/FL. However, probably all have interests that could be used to propel them into reading in the L2/FL. The more interested students are, the more they will persevere in reading. Even, intense interest motivates people to read materials that are beyond their range of language proficiency.

The other consideration is language proficiency. There are varieties of language proficiencies among the students in one class. It is a great challenge for teachers to build multiple lesson plans and a range of materials to address all the students by using variety of performances.

2. Approaches to Teaching Reading

Richards and Rodgers define approach as "theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching"¹². So far, we have already known two main approaches to teaching reading. The first is intensive approach which currently reigns in most L2/FL classrooms and books. The second is extensive approach which mostly gives freedom to the students to choose materials based on their needs and interests or their language proficiency.

Intensive approach is the basic needs for L2/FL students. By this approach, students do intensive reading with the help from teachers. Students practice the theories of reading intensively. Perhaps the text used is limited but the point is how to exercise students in comprehending

them. Skilled teachers should create exercises which can cover a broad range of reading skills. They should consider the appropriate method to be used which is suitable to the condition of students' language proficiency, and needs. Task and setting or classroom arrangements also take role. For college students as adult learners, teachers should always create and modify more flexible class arrangements to avoid boring situation or monotonous environment which is an ordinary case in reading class. One of the ways to create variety include using various modes, the use of free, open-ended activities versus highly structured activities, and the used of student group and collaborative learning. Variety in reading classes is virtually unlimited. The secret to using variety in activities is to balance the old and the new, or the known and the unknown, in order to keep students mentally working toward the objectives of the class. Classroom interaction such as pair work, small group work, whole class, should perform changeably. This classroom interaction must always be monitored by teacher to avoid students spend time during the class with unrelated things to the lesson. Here the teacher acts more as observer and facilitator.

Since the theories of reading comprehension need to be developed and the students' knowledge must be improved, a wider opportunity to practice those theories by using unlimited sources is needed. Extensive reading is one of the opportunities, Teacher uses extensive approach and he can monitor the students' reading by asking them to report what they have read in the form of essay, report, description, and others. Because these activities need a lot of time, teacher can use them as students' homework for every meeting. Besides, extensive reading can motivate students to make reading as their habits and students need to know that they can read effectively on their own, without

a teacher there to make all the decisions for them. That confidence comes only from experience of having tried it on their own and having been successful most of the time.

In conclusion, teachers better use an approach which is integrated from a combination of intensive and extensive approach in every meeting.

3. Selecting Appropriate Materials

It is suggested that in selecting appropriate materials, teachers refer to the goals and approach in teaching. In extensive approach, besides letting the students choose the materials by themselves freely, sometimes teachers need to interrupt it by deciding the topic, the length of text, kind of text and the way students report their reading. Sources such as magazines, newspapers, articles, and many others are recommended. In other side, in intensive approach where teachers mostly take role in selecting materials, textbook seems to be the only source. The most common type of L2/FL textbook teaches reading with a mixture of intensive and extensive approaches and contains both informational and story/narrative texts written in modified language. Each text has accompanying exercises that develop the use of reading strategies, vocabularies and sometimes grammar comprehension. Other kind of 99tbook is reading skills textbook which focus on the development of various reading strategies, such as skimming, scanning, finding main ideas of the paragraph, summarizing and other skills. For the beginning and intermediate levels of L2/FL there are often found series textbooks which the heavy emphasis is on grammar and vocabulary. Reading skill practice may be limited.

Selecting appropriate materials are including selecting appropriate topics in reading. Nowadays, if we take a close look at some topics in reading, brings us to the idea that

some of them have been selected on the basis of the importance of the knowledge for its own sake instead of its communicative value for the learners. They seem to be well familiar. Using such reading materials as presented, the best that the teacher can do is teaching reading no more for information, but for language use. The teacher would creatively ask comprehension that encourages students' imagination, projection, inference, or even extrapolation but still based on the information in the text as the basis. It is self-evident that in order for the teacher to be able to take advantage out of incompatible materials, the teachers have to master a set of skill-using, some of which are unprecedented, or no more than skill-getting.

Authentic materials are suggested. They can be taken directly from L1 sources and are not changed in any way before they are used in the classroom. Articles or advertisements from an L2/FL newspaper and train schedules are examples of authentic materials. Modified materials are also permitted to allow students whose L2/FL proficiency is below that of the original text to read the text with sufficient understanding to comprehend the message. Authentic materials are better started from students' daily life to the wider aspects.

4. Evaluation

All decisions about how to evaluate student progress toward meeting course goals should be made before the course begins. Furthermore, the decisions - whether teacher will evaluate the students during the class or only at the end of the semester - should be made in concert with the course goals and the approach used in teaching the course. So far, the criteria to evaluate the students in reading class depend on how far that the students can do the exercises correctly. It happens almost in all level of

students' language proficiency. If the test which is given at the end of semester, as the final test, uses different text from the students get in every meeting, it means teacher only evaluate the student reading competence in that meeting. In fact, teacher needs to evaluate the students reading performance too. It is true that tests are one option. If a teacher has decided that he is going to use only tests to determine if course goals and evaluative outcome statements have been met, then the entire course grade will depend upon test scores. If, however other evaluate tasks are used during the course, those should be factored into the final course grade. Some reading teachers also like to put some criteria of evaluation outside the tests, such as class participation, homework, or attendance. The important thing is to make sure that the evaluation really evaluates the students' achievement in reading, not only as formal evaluation.

The traditional methods of testing reading are multiple-choice questions, cloze tests (students are asked to supply words that have been deleted from a reading text where the teacher determines the key words), completion tasks, short answer and open-ended questions, and contextualized or authentic tasks. Aebersold mentions that there are some guidelines to help the process of evaluation¹³:

- Keep the course objectives clearly in mind at every step
- Carefully match the test to what is to be tested
- Recognize the potential for bias and variation
- Design the test to assess what the students know

Experience is the best teacher for constructing assessment plans, and regular evaluation of the plan is the best critic. The best assessment, whether alternative or traditional, is

integrated into the course and becomes an important part of the instructional process. The assessment provides the feedback that every teacher needs in the classroom.

Reading in a second or foreign language is a dynamic and interactive process in which learners make use of background knowledge, text schema, lexical and grammatical awareness, L1-related knowledge, and real-world knowledge as well as their own personal purposes and goals, to arrive at an understanding of written material. Teachers of reading in an L2/FL must understand the factors that influence their students' reading processes. L2/FL reading teachers who can recognize these factors at work are better equipped to help their students. Those factors are cognitive development and style orientation, reading performance and competence in the L1, metacognitive knowledge, language proficiency in L2/FL, degree of difference between the L1 and the L2/FL, and cultural orientation. By using the six factors which influence students' reading processes as the guidance, the teacher can design a better reading course for academic successes or the wider purposes. Designing a reading course that will further students' knowledge and abilities demands that the course designer and the teacher keep many relevant points in mind so that the students will learn in the best possible way.

Designing a reading course in general, concerns with deciding goals and objectives, using the suitable approach in teaching reading, selecting appropriate materials, and making decision how to evaluate the students progress. These aspects should be applied in making the lessons.

In many second or foreign language teaching situation. Reading receives a special focus there are number of this of reason for this. First, many foreign language students often

have reading as one of their most important goal. They want to be able to read for information⁸⁶ and pleasure. For this career, and study purposes. In fact, in most EFL situation, the ability to read in a foreign language is all that student ever want to the acquire. Second written text serve various pedagogical purposes. Extensive exposure to linguistically comprehensive writ⁶⁷ text can enhance the process of language acquisition. Good reading text also provided good model for writing, and provided opportunity to introduce new topic. to stimulate discussion, and to study language (e.g.. Vocabulary, grammar and idiom) Reading then, is a skill which is highly valued by student and teacher alike. But, what is reading instruction like in the classroom? How do we teach reading? Do teachers teach according to principle the rived from research finding? The three article in this section, to varying degrees. Seek to throw light on principles and practice of teaching reading.

In the first paper, grabe erratically examiner the relationship between research and practice in both L1 and L2 reading. He point out the relationship between research and instruction in L1 reading context is quite straight forward, L1 reading instruction has to a large extent be³⁷ influenced by the research findings. For example. L1 reading teachers are now aware of

- The important for devolving letter sound corresponded for early reading
- The need for a large vocabulary for fluent reading
- The need for students to become effective strategy users
- The value extensive reading
- The usefulness" of content-based instruction

The purpose of this report has two priorities. First, the reports attempts to highlight the importance of writing

skills for students and the declining trends concerning writing proficiency with American students. Second, the report looks at different teaching techniques towards writing instruction and compares their effectiveness in improving writing proficiency for students 4th through 12th grade.

The methodology used for this research consisted of a meta-analysis approach which allowed the researchers to establish the consistency and strength of the effects of certain instructional practices focusing on student writing quality

Meta-analysis looks at a number of previous empirical research studies that cover the same issue and summarizes the conclusions of each study into a single empirical analysis. The comparison of the different research is done through the assigning of an effect size that measures the magnitude and direction an effect has on the issue focused on in the study.

For the Graham and Perin study, the effect sizes report the average difference between a type of instruction technique and a comparison condition. Graham and Perin looked at eleven possible writing techniques that had been addressed in previous diverse studies (which focused on different grade levels, different types of students, and different teaching techniques) and calculated an effect size for technique to have on the quality of writing (quality determined by coherency, well-developed and pertinent ideas, supporting examples and appropriate detail).

The techniques covered included:

1. Writing Strategies
2. Summarization
3. Collaborative Writing
4. Specific Product Goals
5. Word Processing

6. Sentence-Combining
7. Prewriting
8. Inquiry Activities
9. Process Writing Approach
10. Study of Models
11. Writing for Content Learning

The effect sizes for each of these techniques were created by calculating Cohen's d or the standardized mean difference. This involved subtracting the mean performance of the control or the comparison group at posttest from the mean performance of the treatment group at posttest and dividing by the pooled standard deviation of the two groups. Any previous meta-analysis studies that were included in this study had their effect sizes recalculated.

The measurement of effect size went by the following scale:

0.20 = small or mild effect

0.50 = medium or moderate effect

0.80 = large or strong effect

For example, **Writing Strategies** was calculated to have an effect size of .82, as **Sentence Combining** had an effect of .50.

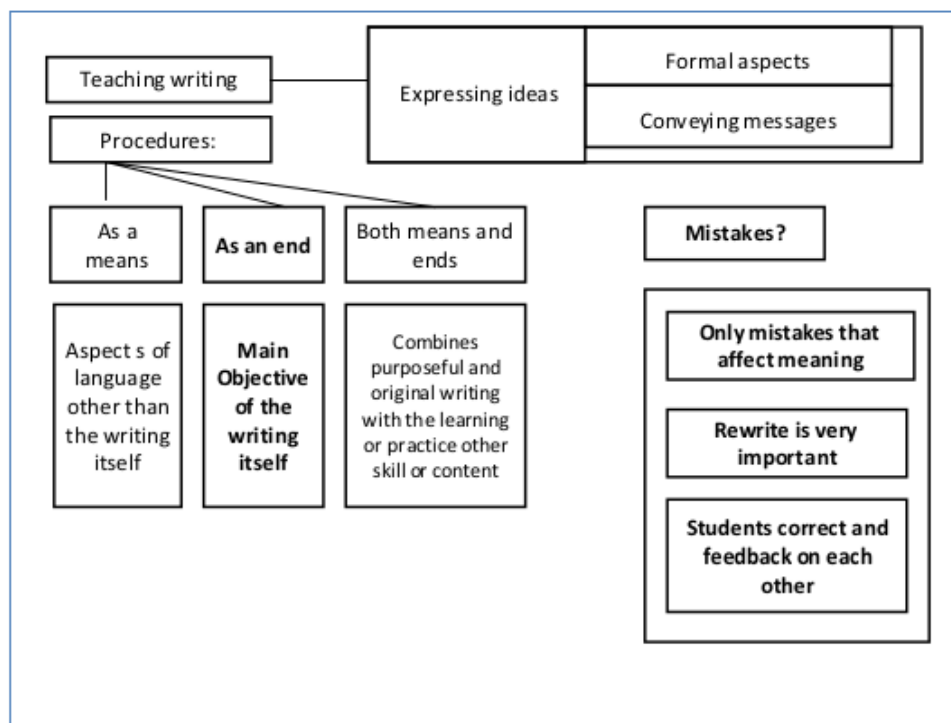
Graham and Perin conclude without making a preference for which technique should be used in writing instruction. The elements described as shown to be effective are to be taken on by instructors, but should not be made into a curriculum. Instead, instructors should focus on the needs of their students and model their lessons accordingly. The authors state that a combination of techniques can and should be used by instructors to aid them in improving the writing quality of students.

Some limitations due to the meta-analysis prevented the researchers from including pertinent data in their study and caused some results to be distorted. These limitations included studies that did not contain a comparison group;

studies which did not measure writing quality as an outcome; the inability to include other techniques such as enhancing student vocabulary due to the lack of research on the topic; some of the research on certain techniques did not cover all grade levels; some of the research did not cover low achieving students and some studies included students with learning disabilities with low achieving students; subjective decision making in the meta-analysis; question of coherency with comparisons in meta-analysis approach.

Chapter 7

Teaching Writing²⁷



6

The objective of the teaching of writing in a foreign language is to get learners to acquire the abilities and skills they need to produce a range of different kinds of written texts similar to those an educated person would be expected to be able to produce in their own language.

72

²⁷ Ur, Penny. 2000. *A Course in Language Teaching Practice and Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. h.

Writing as a mean or as an end

1. As a means

Writing is widely used within foreign language courses as a convenient means for engaging with aspects of language other than the writing itself. For example: learners note down new vocabulary; copy out grammar rules; write out answers to reading or listening comprehension questions; do written tests. In these examples, writing is simply used either as a means of getting the students to attend to and practice a particular language point, or even more frequently as a convenient method of testing it: providing information as to how well something has been learned in a form which the teacher can then check at his or her leisure.

2. As an end

Other activities take as their main objective the writing itself. At the micro level they practice specific written forms at the level of word or sentence (handwriting or typing, spelling, punctuation); at the macro level the emphasis is on content and organization: tasks invite learners to express themselves using their own words, state a purpose for writing. And often specify an audience. Examples of such activities would be: narrating a story, writing a letter.

3. As both means and end

A third kind activity combines purposeful and original writing with the learning ⁴⁹ practice of some other skill or content. For example, a written response to the reading of a controversial newspaper article (combines writing with reading); the writing of anecdotes to illustrate the

meaning of idioms combines writing with vocabulary practice).

In principle, the purpose of writing is the expression of ideas, the conveying of a message to the reader; so the ideas themselves should arguably be seen as the most important aspect of writing. On the other hand, the writer needs also to pay some attention to formal aspects ; neat handwriting, correct spelling and punctuation, as well as acceptable grammar and careful selection of vocabulary.

Writing Activities

No	Tasks	Comments
1	book report	can be fairly routine, rather boring, exercise; usually done in order to check that the students have read a book, rather than for a sake of the writing. Some preliminary guidance is sometimes needed on content and organization
2	book review	also needing preliminary guidance, but the writing is more purposeful, audience-oriented and interesting to do. There is some points in rewriting and polishing the reviews for publishing within the class
3	instruction sheet	students usually find this interesting to do and a little easier than book report and book review, you may wish to give some advise on the layout of instructions.
4	narratives	a fairly interesting task that can be

		adapted for most levels. It does depend on preparation of suitable pictures, perhaps out from magazines.
5	personal story	on the whole students are motivated to write (and read) about personal experiences, also each can write at his or her own level of proficiency. Preparations: perhaps a brief sample of personal story contributed by the teacher or volunteer students
6	describe a view	this can be interesting. But should be kept fairly short. It can be done at various level of proficiency. If no window of view is available, students can be asked to recall and describe a view they are familiar with
7	describe someone	fairly easy to do, and straightforward to present. And can be interesting both to write and read.
8	describing people	of about the same level at describing someone, can also be interesting because of the stimulus to the imagination, but of course demand more preparation
9	answer a letter	usually a highly motivating task, fairly advanced, with a clear audience and purpose. You need to prepare original letter; an alternative is to ask all students to

		write letters of complaint, and later answer each other's letter. Some pre-teaching of conventional letter formalities and layout in the target language is necessary.
10	job application	some conventions about letters like this will need to be taught, and perhaps some details about the exact job being applied for
11	propose change	advanced writing, involving the organized in convincing presentation of an argument, you may or may not feel it necessary to read a similar piece of writing with the students in advance, to supply the model.
12	news report	this is clear „model-imitation“ writing, which is perhaps useful, but not very interesting to do, it may be more interesting if is a report of a genuine local event. In preparation, you may need to draw learner's attention to the typical features of this genre of written discourse.
13	ideal school	a task which is interesting and relevant for schoolchildren, little preparation is necessary. Apart from, perhaps, some preliminary brainstorming of the kinds of topics they may wish to include.
14	describe process	a more sophisticated task, requiring precise and orderly representation

		of facts. Suitable particularly for learner in science or technology.
15	film music	a stimulating, fun task for imaginative students, but it make take time to select and prepare a suitable piece of music.

Part Three

Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching

Bagian ini akan terdiri dari 2 *chapter* yang tiap *chapter*nya memuat 4 metode beserta teknik dan contoh aplikasi keduanya pada aktivitas kelas. Ada 8 metode yang diuraikan berdasarkan urutan masa keemasan penggunaannya, yakni masa dimana diperoleh keberhasilan yang cukup signifikan saat diterapkan pada kelas bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing. Akan dijelaskan juga kelebihan serta kelemahan tiap metode. Bagian tiga ini akan semakin memperkuat pemahaman mahasiswa akan definisi dan perbedaan metode, strategi dan teknik pengajaran Bahasa Inggris. Bagian ini juga akan memuat contoh aplikasi aktivitas kelas tiap metode dan teknik yang disesuaikan dengan tema dan pokok bahasan. Contoh-contoh tersebut akan membantu mahasiswa menguraikan prinsip dasar tiap metode dan teknik serta mengenali karakter tiap metode dan teknik itu sendiri.

Bagian tiga ini dirancang untuk membantu mencapai tujuan pengajaran mata kuliah TEFL yakni Mahasiswa diharapkan mampu menganalisa kelebihan dan kelemahan berbagai metode, teknik dan aktivitas pengajaran Bahasa Inggris untuk dapat memilih metode dan teknik yang paling sesuai dengan konteks pengajaran yang mereka hadapi.

Chapter 1

Techniques in Teaching English I

A method is seen as superordinate, comprising both „principles“ and „techniques“. The principles involve five aspects of second or foreign language teaching: the teacher, the learner, the teaching process, the learning process and the target language culture. Taken together the principles represent the theoretical framework of the method. The techniques are the behavioral manifestation of the principles, in other words, the classroom activities and procedures derived from the application of the principles. A particular technique maybe compatible with more than one method, depending on the way in which the technique is used. Yet, it is also true that certain techniques are frequently associated with a particular method.

By reading this chapter, we will gain an understanding of the principles on which these methods are based and of the techniques associated with each method. These eight were chosen because they are all currently practiced today. In elaborating each method, there are points taken for each which will allow us to see some salient differences between and among the methods presented. Pay attention to find these ten questions after you read each method.

1. What are the goals of teachers who use the method?
2. What is the role of the teacher? What are the roles of students?
3. What are some characteristics of the teaching learning process?
4. What is the nature of student-teacher interaction? What is the nature of student-student interaction?
5. How are the feelings of the students dealt with?
6. How is language viewed? How is culture viewed?

7. What areas of language are emphasized? What language skills are emphasized?
8. What the roles of students' native language?
9. How is the evaluation accomplished?
10. How does the teacher respond to student errors?

A. The Grammar Translation Method²⁸

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	the class is reading a text	fundamental purpose: to be able to read its literature (Students' study of foreign culture is limited to its literature and fine arts)
2	students translate the passage from target language to their native language	translation is important as a character of successful language learners
3	question and answer in students' native language	ability to communicate in the target language is not the goal
4	write answers to reading comprehension questions	reading and writing are skills to be developed.
5	students are given grammar rules	form of target language is important
6	students apply the rules	grammar is taught

²⁸ Combs, Bryan. 1995. *Successful Teaching: A Practical Handbook*. Heinemann. h.

	to examples, the teacher asks students to state grammar rule	deductively
--	--	-------------

B. The Direct Method²⁹

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	read aloud the passage	reading should be taught from the beginning
2	Question and answers in the class by using the target language.	direct association between the target language and meaning. Think the target language as soon as possible.
3	students ask questions	the purpose of language learning: communication, opportunities for the students to use the target language
4	teacher works with the students' pronunciation	pronunciation from the beginning
5	corrects the grammar by asking the students to make choice	students' self correction
6	teaching grammar starts with examples then the rules	teaching grammar inductively

²⁹ *ibid.*, h.

7	teacher dictates	writing is important
8		the syllabus based on the situations or topics not on linguistic structures
9	discuss the culture	involves learning how speaker of that language live

C. The Audio-lingual Method³⁰

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	use substitution drills	
2	the teacher says „very good“ when the students answer correctly	positive reinforcement develops correct habits
3	the teacher uses spoken cues and pictures cues	students should learn to respond to both verbal and non verbal stimuli
4	the teacher introduces a new dialog	language forms occur most naturally within a context
5	the teacher only uses the target language in the classroom	students' native language as little as possible
6		the teacher acts as the model
7	the students repeat each line of the dialog	language learning is a process of habit formation
8		direct correction of

³⁰ *Ibid.*, h.

³¹ *Ibid.*, h.

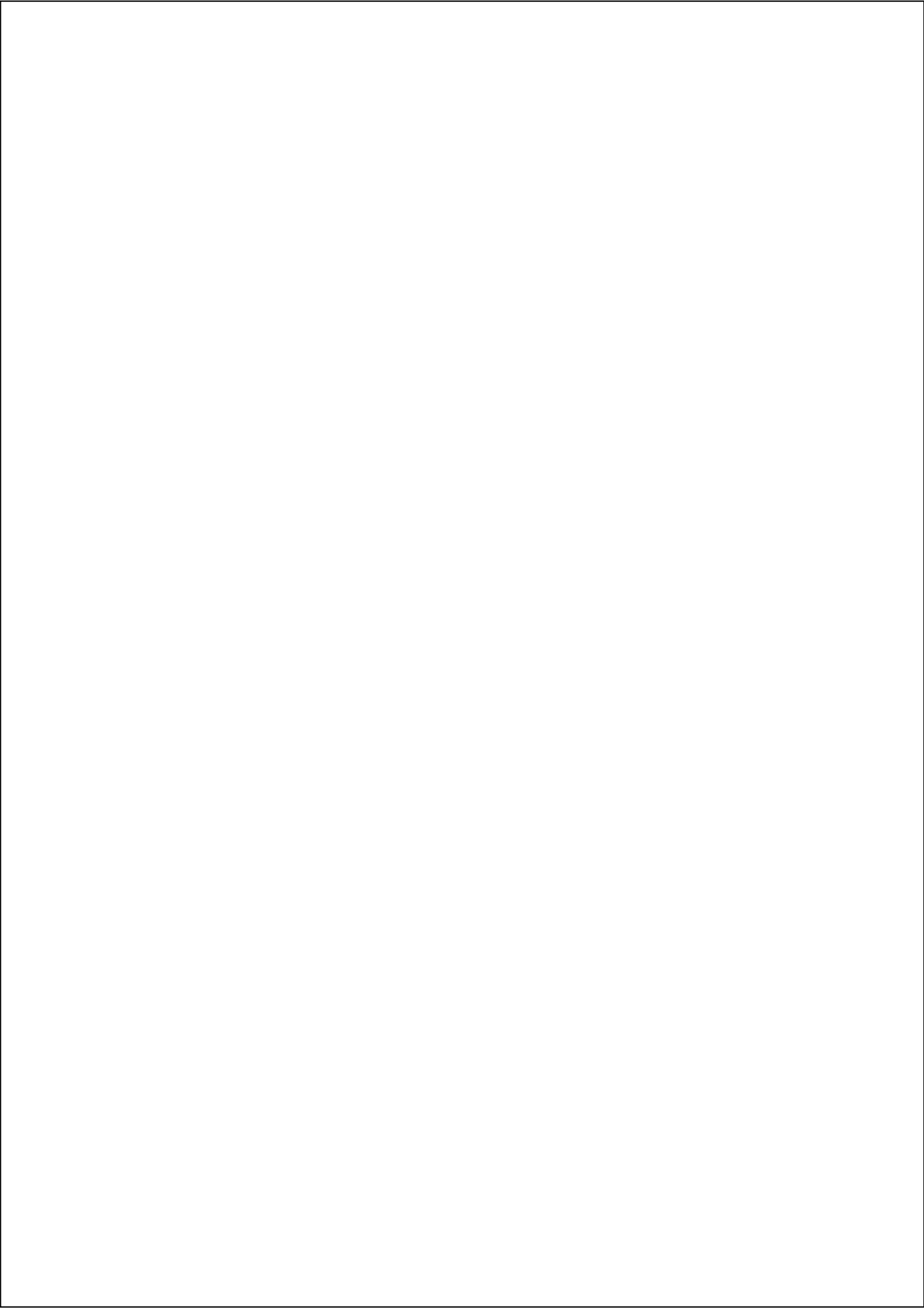
		students" error
9	each student greets another	learning how to use the language
10	the teacher provides the students with cues, calls on individuals, smiles encouragement, holds up pictures one after another	teacher should be like an orchestra leader-conducting, guiding and controlling
11	new vocabularies are introduces through lines of the dialog	language teaching objective: structural patterns
12	students are given no grammar rules	inductive teaching for grammar
13		speech is more basic than the written form,
14		Language cannot be separated from culture.

D. The Silent Way³¹

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	teacher points to five color which represent five English vowels	the teacher should start with something that the students already knows
2		students should learn to rely on each other and themselves

3	the teacher works with gesture, sometimes instruction in the students native language	the teacher works with the students and the students work on the language
4	the teacher sits down at the table and is silent	silence is a tool.
5		meaning is made clear by focusing students' perceptions, not through translation
6		students can learn from one another . the teacher's silence encourage group cooperation
7		meaningful practice without repetition
8		language is for self-expression
9		the syllabus is composed of linguistic structures
10	students will practice writing the sentences they create	the skills of speaking, reading and writing reinforce one another

³¹ *Ibid.*, h.



Reviewing the principles

points	grammar translation method	direct method	audio-lingual method	silent way
goals of teacher	able to read literature	communicate by using the target language	use the target language communicatively	use the language for self expression
role of teacher	authority in the classroom	directs the class activities	orchestra leader, directing and controlling	technician or engineer, works with the students
role of students	do what teacher says	less passive than GTM	imitators	works with the language
characteristics of teaching/learning process	translate one language to another, study grammar deductively	no translation, situational syllabus, study grammar inductively	new vocab through dialogs, drills (repetition, backward build-up, chain, substitution, transformation, question and answer)	focuses on structure, practice without repetition,
the nature of student-	teacher to student	interaction both,	drills, teacher and	teacher is mostly

teacher interaction		teacher students and students teacher	students	silent, speak as minimum as possible, still very active by using gestures
the nature of student-student interaction	little students initiation and interaction			help each other
area of language emphasized	vocabulary and grammar	vocabulary over grammar	structures	pronunciation, structures, and vocabulary
skills of language emphasized	reading and writing	reading and writing	listening, speaking, reading and writing	all the four
the roles of students' native language	native language is mostly used through translation	students' native language should not be used in the classroom	interfere with the students' attempts to master the target language	can be used to give instruction when necessary

Chapter 2

Techniques in Teaching English 2

A. Suggestopedia

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	the students are seated in cushioned armchairs, the lighting is dim, soft music is playing	learning is facilitated in a relaxed, comfortable environment
2	among posters hanging around the room are several containing grammatical information	a student can learn what is present in the environment
3	the teacher speaks reassuringly	if the students respect and trust the teachers' authority, they will accept and retain information better
4	the teacher tell them that learning the target language will be easy and enjoyable	the teacher should „desuggests“ the learners certain psychological barriers that they bring to the learning situation
5	the teacher invites the students to take a mental trip with her	activating the learners' imagination will aid learning.
6	the students choose	allow them more open

	new names and identities	
7	the students use the new English sentences as if they were at a party	when their attention is off the form of the language, and on the process of communicating, students will learn best ²⁶
8	the teacher briefly mentions a few points about English Grammar and Vocabulary	the teacher should explain the grammar and vocabulary, but not dwell on them ⁴⁵
9	the teacher reads the script a second time as the students close their eyes and listen. This is done to different music.	the state one experiences when listening to a concert, is ideal for overcoming psychological barriers and for taking advantage for learning potential
10	for homework, the students are to read the dialog at night and in the morning	²⁶ these times, the distinction between conscious and subconscious is more blurred and, therefore optimal learning can ³³ occur
11	the teacher instructs the students to pretend they are auditioning for a play	the fine arts (music, art, and drama) enable suggestion to reach the subconscious. The arts should therefore be integrated as much as possible into the teaching process.
12	the teacher leads the class in various	the teacher should help the students „activate“ the

	activities involving the dialog, for example, question and answer, repetition, and translation	material to which they have been exposed.
13	she teaches the students a children's song	music and movement reinforce the linguistic material
14	The students make an error by saying, "How you do?" the teacher ignores the error at the time, but later uses the correct questions structures herself	error are to be tolerated, the emphasis being on content, not form. The teacher should use the form a little later so the students will hear it used correctly

B. Community Language Learning

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	the teacher greets the students, introduce himself and has the students introduce themselves.	building a relationship with and among students is very important
2	students have a conversation	language is for communication
3	the teacher translates what the students want to say in chunks	the teacher should be sensitive to students' limitations and not overwhelm them with more

	15	they can handle
4	students are invited to talk about how they felt during the conversation	teacher and students are whole persons.
5	the teacher accept what the students says	guided by the knowledge that each learner is unique, the teacher creates an accepting atmosphere. Learners feel free to lower their defenses and the learning experiences becomes less threatening.
6	the teacher understand what the students say	the teacher „counsels“ the students. He shows them that he is really listening to them and understand what they are saying.
7	the students listen to the tape and give the Indonesian translation	the students“ native is use to make the meaning clear. Students will feel secure when they understand everything
8		the teacher encourage the students initiative and independence
9		students need quite reflection time in order to learn
10	students works together in a group of three	in groups, students can begin to feel a sense of community and can learn from each other as well as

		the teacher. Cooperation, not competition, is encouraged.
11	the teacher corrects by repeating correctly the sentence the students 53ve created.	teacher should work in a non-threatening way with what the learner has 53duced.
12	the students read their sentences to the other members of the class	developing a community among the class members builds trust and can help to reduce the threat of the new learning situation
13	the teacher plays the tape while the students listen	learning tends not to take place when the material is too new, or conversely, too familiar.
14	the students are once again invite to talk about the experience they has that evening	students reflect on what they have experienced. Learning about their own learning as well as learning about the language.
15		in the beginning class, syllabus is designed by the students. Students are more willing when they have created the material themselves.

C. The Total Physical Response (TPR)

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	the teacher gives a command in the target language and performs it with the students	meaning in the target language can often be conveyed through actions
2	the students say nothing	the students' understanding of the target language should be developed before speaking
3	the teacher gives commands quite quickly	students can initially learn one part of the language rapidly by moving their bodies
4	the teacher sits down and issues commands to the volunteers	students can learn through observing actions as well as by performing the actions themselves
5	the teacher introduces new commands after she is satisfied that the first six have been mastered	it is very important that students feel successful. Feelings of success and low anxiety facilitate learning
6	the teacher changes the order of the commands	students should not be made to memorize fixed routines
7	when the students make errors, teacher repeat the commands while acting it out	correction should be carried out in an unobtrusive manner

8	the teacher gives commands that they have not heard before	the students need to understand more than the exact sentences used in training
9		language learning is more effective when it is fun
10	the teacher writes the new commands on the blackboard	spoken language should be emphasized over written language
11	a few weeks later, a student who has not spoken before gives commands	students will begin to speak when they are ready
12		students are expected to make errors when they first begin speaking. Teacher should be tolerant of them.

D. The Communicative Approach

No	examples of classroom activities	Principles
1	the teacher gives the students the direction 109 the activity in the target language	the target language is vehicle for the classroom communication, not just the object of the study
2		authentic language , use in real context, should be introduced
3		one function can have many different linguistic forms

4		students should work with the language at the discourse or suprasentential (above the sentence)
5	the students play a language game	games are important
6	the students are asked how they feel about the prediction	students should be given an opportunity to express their ideas and opinions
7	a student makes error. The teacher and the students ignore it.	errors are tolerated and seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills.
8		one of the teacher's major responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication
9	the students work with a partner to predict what the next picture in the strip story will look like	communicative interaction encourages cooperative relationships among students 118
10	the students are to do a role play	the social context of the communicative event is essential in giving meaning to the utterances 126
11		learning is to use language forms appropriately is an important part of communicative competence
12		the teacher acts as advisor during the communicative activities

13		in communicating, a speaker has a choice not only about what to say but also how to say it
14		the grammar and vocabulary that the students learn follow from the function, situational context, and the roles of the interlocutors
15	for their homeworks, the students are listened to a debate on the radio or watch it on television	students should be given opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting language as it is actually used by native speaker

Reviewing the principles

points	Suggesto- pedia	Total Physical Response	Community Language Learning	Communi cative Approach
goals of teacher	accelerate the process ²⁶ which students learn to use a foreign language for everyday communication	students enjoy their experience in learning to communicate in a foreign language	how to use the target language communicatively	to have one's students become communicatively competent
role of	authority in	director	counselor	facilitator .

teacher	the classroom			manager of classroom activities, advisor during the activities.
role of students	trust and respect the teacher	imitators of teacher's non verbal model	clients	Students are communicators
characteristics of teaching/learning process	comfortable learning process, relax and fun	modeling, commands (nonverbal)	native language then translation	use the language with a communicative intent
the nature of student-teacher interaction	teacher interact with group of students and individuals	teacher interact with group of students and individuals, teacher speaking and the students respond nonverbally	change within the lesson and change overtime, facilitators	the teacher is initiator and the students interact with one another
the nature of student-student interaction	interact each other	command one another and speak	cooperation, not competition	interact one to another

area of language emphasized	vocabulary	grammatical structures and vocabularies	grammar points, pronunciation patterns and vocabulary	language functions are emphasized over forms
skills of language emphasized	speaking communicatively	written language	understanding and speaking the language	all skills
the roles of students' native language	used to make the meaning clear	introduction language and commands	a tool to make the meaning clear	explaining unfamiliar vocabularies

References

- Harmer, Jeremy. *How to Teach English: An Introduction to the Practice of English Language Teaching*. 1998. England: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Harmer, Jeremy. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. --- England: Longman.
- Allen, Virginia French. *Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary*. 1983. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Riyanto, Slamet. *Developing Vocabulary Skills*. 2010. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- Thornbury, Scoot. *How to Teach Vocabulary*. 2001. England: Longman.
- Brown, H. Douglas. *Teaching by Principles*. 1994. Prentice Hall Inc. New York.
- Richards, Jack C and Willy Renandya. *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. 2004. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Savignon, Sandra. 1983. *Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice*. Addison – Wesley Publishing.
- Combs, Bryan. 1995. *Successful Teaching: A Practical Handbook*. Heinemann.
- Byrne, Donn. 1991. *Teaching Writing Skills*. Longman.

- Tarigan, Guntur. 1989. *Kompetensi Komunikatif*. Bandung: Angkasa.
- Larsen, Diane – Freeman. *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press.
- Brown, Gillian and George Yule. 1999. *Teaching the Spoken Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- De Parto, Beatriz Chelle. 1997. Developing Speaking Skill by Creating Our Own Simulations for the EFL Courses, *English Teaching Forum*, July. 1997. Vol. 3. No-3 p. 51-54.
- Donald, Olf. 2005. Teaching Speaking Skill http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/speak_skills.html Taken on 10 September 2011.
- Hadley, Alice Ommagio. 2001. *Teaching Language in Context*. United States: Heinle and Heinle Thomson Learning.
- Ur, Penny. 2000. *A Course in Language Teaching Practice and Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Murcia, Marriane Celce. 2001. Ed. *Teaching English as A Second or Foreign Language*. Third Edition. United States: Heinle and Heinle Thomson.
- Nunan, david. 2000. *Language Teaching Methodology. A textbook for Teachers*. Sydney : Longman.
- Oxford, R. L. 1990. *Language Learning Strategies*. New York: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

- Bloomfield, Leonard. 1995. *Language*. Jakarta: PT Gramedia.
- Brown, Gillian and George Yule. 1983a. *Teaching the spoken Language: An Approach based on the analysis of Conversational English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 1983b. *Discourse Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Swann, J, Pugh and Lee (Ed). 1980. *Language and Language Use*. London: Heineman Educational Books Ltd.
- Harley, Trevor. 1995. *The Psychology of Language*. Great Britain: Erlbaum Taylor & Francis.
- Bloom. L. *Language development; Form and function in Emerging Grammar*. Mass: MIT, Cambridge. 1970. p. 112
- Nunan, D. and Clarice Lamb. 1996. *The Self-directed Teacher: Managing the learning process*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, G., Malmkjar, K., and Williams, J. 1996. *Performance and Competence in Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.
- Canale, M. 1983. From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy. In Richards, J.C. and R.W. Schmidt, *Language and Communication*. London: Longman.
- Widdowson, H. G. 1978. *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford: Oxford University

- Zainil. 2003. *Language Teaching Methods*. Padang: Universitas Negeri Padang Press.
- 2005. *Good Language Learner Strategies and Communicative Language Teaching*. Padang: Universitas Negeri Padang Press.



Biodata Penulis

Leffi Noviyenty dilahirkan di Curup-Bengkulu pada 6 Nopember 1976, putri kedua dari Ridwan Effendi dan Nurhayani Amri (Almrh) ini menyelesaikan pendidikan S1 nya selama 4 tahun dengan prestasi Cumlaude IPK (3,74) tertinggi pada Universitas Bengkulu tahun 1999. Tahun 2004-2006 ia menyelesaikan program Master di Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris Universitas Negeri Padang juga dengan prestasi Cumlaude IPK tertinggi (3,83). Menikah dengan Dr. **Fakhruddin, M. Pd. I** tahun 2006, seorang dosen Filsafat Pendidikan Islam Sekolah Tinggi Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Curup dan telah dikaruniai 3 orang putra, **Azzam Al Farras Fawwaz Ziddan** (15 tahun), **Aufa Azka Sakha Az Zhafir** (13 tahun) dan **Keynan Af Fathin Siraj** (11 tahun), dan seorang putri Malayeka Larisha Sibil (4,5 tahun).

EFL Teaching

ORIGINALITY REPORT

10%

SIMILARITY INDEX

8%

INTERNET SOURCES

2%

PUBLICATIONS

5%

STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

1

www.ukessays.com

Internet Source

<1 %

2

Submitted to Yonsei University

Student Paper

<1 %

3

academic.ntue.edu.tw

Internet Source

<1 %

4

helpmeout.info

Internet Source

<1 %

5

journal.uniku.ac.id

Internet Source

<1 %

6

repository.uinib.ac.id

Internet Source

<1 %

7

Submitted to Anglia Ruskin University

Student Paper

<1 %

8

digilib.unimed.ac.id

Internet Source

<1 %

9

ir.unilag.edu.ng

Internet Source

<1 %

10

journal.unnes.ac.id

Internet Source

<1 %

11	pdf4pro.com Internet Source	<1 %
12	Submitted to Universidad de Jaén Student Paper	<1 %
13	learnalanguageortwo.blogspot.de Internet Source	<1 %
14	www.thegaes.org Internet Source	<1 %
15	Submitted to Firat Üniversitesi Student Paper	<1 %
16	archive.org Internet Source	<1 %
17	docplayer.info Internet Source	<1 %
18	cdigital.uv.mx Internet Source	<1 %
19	Submitted to Florida International University Student Paper	<1 %
20	Submitted to University of Central Lancashire Student Paper	<1 %
21	conduongcoxua.files.wordpress.com Internet Source	<1 %
22	eprints.ioe.ac.uk Internet Source	<1 %

23	Submitted to essex Student Paper	<1 %
24	wrap.warwick.ac.uk Internet Source	<1 %
25	www.iranianlinguistics.org Internet Source	<1 %
26	everydayisamazing.blogspot.com Internet Source	<1 %
27	Submitted to Hanoi Pedagogical University 2 Student Paper	<1 %
28	digilib.unila.ac.id Internet Source	<1 %
29	smartisstudy.blogspot.com Internet Source	<1 %
30	acervodigital.ufpr.br Internet Source	<1 %
31	grammarperspectives.blogspot.com Internet Source	<1 %
32	www.nytimes.com Internet Source	<1 %
33	Arini Nurul Hidayati. "Falling into Culturist Trap: Practice of Othering in An Indonesian English Language Classroom", Jurnal Penelitian Humaniora, 2018 Publication	<1 %

34	jalt-publications.org Internet Source	<1 %
35	otherreferats.allbest.ru Internet Source	<1 %
36	Hanoi University Publication	<1 %
37	Masagus Sulaiman, Harpiansi Harpiansi. "The Correlation Between Reading Habit and Students' Reading Comprehension Achievements", ALSUNA: JOURNAL OF ARABIC AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE, 2018 Publication	<1 %
38	dr.lib.iastate.edu Internet Source	<1 %
39	"Advances in Technology and Management", Springer Science and Business Media LLC, 2012 Publication	<1 %
40	ecampus.iainbatusangkar.ac.id Internet Source	<1 %
41	propertibazar.com Internet Source	<1 %
42	www.univ-bejaia.dz Internet Source	<1 %
43	Submitted to University of New South Wales Student Paper	<1 %

discovery.ucl.ac.uk

44

Internet Source

<1 %

45

docs.google.com

Internet Source

<1 %

46

spel3.upm.edu.my

Internet Source

<1 %

47

Submitted to Institute of Education

Student Paper

<1 %

48

Repository.umy.ac.id

Internet Source

<1 %

49

Submitted to Stefan cel Mare University of
Suceava

Student Paper

<1 %

50

id.123dok.com

Internet Source

<1 %

51

www.repository.uinjkt.ac.id

Internet Source

<1 %

52

www.thefreelibrary.com

Internet Source

<1 %

53

Submitted to British University In Dubai

Student Paper

<1 %

54

www.ijstr.org

Internet Source

<1 %

55

kbs.cnki.net

Internet Source

<1 %

ro.uow.edu.au

56

Internet Source

<1 %

57

mboop.blogspot.com

Internet Source

<1 %

58

Submitted to Universitas Sultan Ageng
Tirtayasa

Student Paper

<1 %

59

123dok.com

Internet Source

<1 %

60

Submitted to Aston University

Student Paper

<1 %

61

Submitted to La Trobe University

Student Paper

<1 %

62

sites.google.com

Internet Source

<1 %

63

www.ehow.com

Internet Source

<1 %

64

Ermailis Ermailis, Raudhoh Raudhoh, Risnita
Risnita. "Pengaruh Kepemimpinan Kepala
Madrasah dan Disiplin Guru terhadap
Profesionalitas Guru di Madrasah
Tsanawiyah Negeri Kota Jambi",
INNOVATIO: Journal for Religious Innovation
Studies, 2018

Publication

<1 %

65

Submitted to Nottingham Trent University

Student Paper

<1 %

66	Submitted to University of Glasgow Student Paper	<1 %
67	eprints.umg.ac.id Internet Source	<1 %
68	bu.umc.edu.dz Internet Source	<1 %
69	repository.sustech.edu Internet Source	<1 %
70	Submitted to Sheffield Hallam University Student Paper	<1 %
71	anzdoc.com Internet Source	<1 %
72	www.ummto.dz Internet Source	<1 %
73	desscimm.u-strasbg.fr Internet Source	<1 %
74	www.bartleby.com Internet Source	<1 %
75	025pass.cn Internet Source	<1 %
76	Nguyen Huynh Trang, Khau Hoang Anh. "Culture expectations in foreign language classrooms – A case in Vietnam", Heliyon, 2022 Publication	<1 %
77	Submitted to Bath Spa University College Student Paper	

<1 %

78

Submitted to University of Debrecen / DEA

Student Paper

<1 %

79

Submitted to University of Iowa

Student Paper

<1 %

80

Submitted to University of North Florida

Student Paper

<1 %

81

fac.umc.edu.dz

Internet Source

<1 %

82

infonomics-society.org

Internet Source

<1 %

83

englishpost.org

Internet Source

<1 %

84

www.syzx.net

Internet Source

<1 %

85

www.waiyulw.com

Internet Source

<1 %

86

Submitted to University of East London

Student Paper

<1 %

87

etd.uwc.ac.za

Internet Source

<1 %

88

www.studymode.com

Internet Source

<1 %

89

Submitted to Eastern Mediterranean
University

<1 %

-
- | | | |
|----|---|------|
| 90 | Submitted to Konya Necmettin Erbakan University
Student Paper | <1 % |
|----|---|------|
-
- | | | |
|----|-------------------------------------|------|
| 91 | doczz.net
Internet Source | <1 % |
|----|-------------------------------------|------|
-
- | | | |
|----|---|------|
| 92 | nooraeni-englishcorner.blogspot.com
Internet Source | <1 % |
|----|---|------|
-
- | | | |
|----|---|------|
| 93 | vivian0116.blogspot.com
Internet Source | <1 % |
|----|---|------|
-
- | | | |
|----|--|------|
| 94 | www.coursehero.com
Internet Source | <1 % |
|----|--|------|
-
- | | | |
|----|---|------|
| 95 | Koh Kameyama. "Consciousness-Raising about Environmental in the Language Learning Classroom", Eibeibunka: Studies in English Language, Literature and Culture, 1992
Publication | <1 % |
|----|---|------|
-
- | | | |
|----|--|------|
| 96 | Www.Coursehero.Com
Internet Source | <1 % |
|----|--|------|
-
- | | | |
|----|---|------|
| 97 | create.canterbury.ac.uk
Internet Source | <1 % |
|----|---|------|
-
- | | | |
|----|--|------|
| 98 | dspace.pucesi.edu.ec
Internet Source | <1 % |
|----|--|------|
-
- | | | |
|----|---|------|
| 99 | ia800905.us.archive.org
Internet Source | <1 % |
|----|---|------|
-

100	Internet Source	<1 %
101	opac.nu.ac.th Internet Source	<1 %
102	othes.univie.ac.at Internet Source	<1 %
103	Submitted to Oral Roberts University Student Paper	<1 %
104	Submitted to University of Edinburgh Student Paper	<1 %
105	Submitted to University of Westminster Student Paper	<1 %
106	Submitted to Waltham International College Student Paper	<1 %
107	earsiv.anadolu.edu.tr Internet Source	<1 %
108	repozitorij.ffos.hr Internet Source	<1 %
109	smileboys.blogspot.com Internet Source	<1 %
110	www.cn94.net Internet Source	<1 %
111	Submitted to 84752 Student Paper	<1 %
112	Hu, Xiaoli. "The Application of Schema Theory in College English Listening	<1 %

Teaching", Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 2012.

Publication

-
- | | | |
|------------|--|----------------|
| 113 | Lirije Ameti. "THE USE OF SKILLS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND DEVELOPING A BASIS FOR READING AND LEARNING", Knowledge International Journal, 2018
Publication | <1 % |
|------------|--|----------------|
-
- | | | |
|------------|--|----------------|
| 114 | didaytec.udistrital.edu.co
Internet Source | <1 % |
|------------|--|----------------|
-
- | | | |
|------------|---|----------------|
| 115 | novaekasari09.wordpress.com
Internet Source | <1 % |
|------------|---|----------------|
-
- | | | |
|------------|---|----------------|
| 116 | repositories.lib.utexas.edu
Internet Source | <1 % |
|------------|---|----------------|
-
- | | | |
|------------|--|----------------|
| 117 | Sherry Marx, Lisa Pray. "Living and learning in Mexico: developing empathy for English language learners through study abroad", Race Ethnicity and Education, 2011
Publication | <1 % |
|------------|--|----------------|
-
- | | | |
|------------|--|----------------|
| 118 | Submitted to University of Liverpool
Student Paper | <1 % |
|------------|--|----------------|
-
- | | | |
|------------|--|----------------|
| 119 | Submitted to University of Newcastle upon Tyne
Student Paper | <1 % |
|------------|--|----------------|
-
- | | | |
|------------|---|----------------|
| 120 | www.worldwidejournals.com
Internet Source | <1 % |
|------------|---|----------------|
-
- | | | |
|------------|--|----------------|
| 121 | www2.gsu.edu
Internet Source | <1 % |
|------------|--|----------------|
-

122	Submitted to Bilkent University Student Paper	<1 %
123	Submitted to Macquarie University Student Paper	<1 %
124	Submitted to Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia Student Paper	<1 %
125	repositorio.une.edu.pe Internet Source	<1 %
126	Submitted to International Islamic University Malaysia Student Paper	<1 %
127	Submitted to Murray State University Student Paper	<1 %
128	Pariwat Imsa-ard. "Reading Better?: Enhancing Thai EFL Secondary School Students' Reading Comprehension Abilities with the Use of Graphic Organizers", English Language Teaching, 2022 Publication	<1 %
129	repository.uinjkt.ac.id Internet Source	<1 %
130	saci-florence.edu Internet Source	<1 %
131	www.ilo.uva.nl Internet Source	<1 %
132	biblioteca.udenar.edu.co:8085 Internet Source	

<1 %

133 ffl.hcmute.edu.vn
Internet Source

<1 %

134 Submitted to Azusa Pacific University
Student Paper

<1 %

135 Submitted to Leeds Metropolitan University
Student Paper

<1 %

136 Submitted to Universidad Catolica de Oriente
Student Paper

<1 %

137 ejournal.unibba.ac.id
Internet Source

<1 %

138 endah.sekolahtetum.org
Internet Source

<1 %

139 i-courses.org
Internet Source

<1 %

140 is.muni.cz
Internet Source

<1 %

141 otik.uk.zcu.cz
Internet Source

<1 %

142 pt.scribd.com
Internet Source

<1 %

143 repositorio.ug.edu.ec
Internet Source

<1 %

repository.uinsaizu.ac.id

144

Internet Source

<1 %

145

tesolpracticum2011.weebly.com

Internet Source

<1 %

146

www.cal.org

Internet Source

<1 %

147

www.docme.ru

Internet Source

<1 %

Exclude quotes On

Exclude matches

< 10 words

Exclude bibliography On