



---

# Teaching English as a Foreign Language

## TEFL

Compiled by

**Dr. Haggag Mohamed Haggag**

PhD in Applied Linguistics

Karl-Franzens University, Austria

Vice-Dean, Hurghada Faculty of Languages



---

## Table of contents

<b>Chapters</b>	<b>Content</b>
<b>Chapter One</b>	<b>Key terms in TEFL</b>
<b>Chapter Two</b>	<b>Approaches to TEFL and Planning</b>
<b>Chapter three</b>	<b>Teaching Vocabulary</b>
<b>Chapter four</b>	<b>Teaching writing</b>
<b>Chapter five</b>	<b>Teaching Reading</b>
<b>Chapter Six</b>	<b>Classroom Management</b>



---

## Chapter One

### Key Terms in Teaching

*Dr. Haggag Mohamed Haggag*

"Learning is not a spectator sport. Students do not learn much just by sitting in class listening to teachers, memorizing prepackaged assignments, and spitting out answers. They must talk about what they are learning, write about it, relate it to past experiences, and apply it to their daily lives. They must make what they learn part of themselves."  
(Chickering & Gamson: 1987)

Due to the aim of this research, which is to present and to test a course that develops the English language proficiency, the following paragraphs discuss some key issues that have been a subject for debate and study in the design processes of language proficiency tests. This section discusses the definition of language proficiency, testing language proficiency and general characteristics of language tests. These issues present a framework for the design, implementation and interpretation of scores that were obtained from the test.



---

### 1.1. Definitions of English language proficiency.

Definitions of language proficiency encompass the problem of lack of consensus or reference. English language proficiency definitions face the obstacle of limiting proficiency to English in particular and not the language in general. This problem of definition was discussed in many studies and researches (see Cummins: (1984), Valdés & Figueroa (1994), Oller & Damico (1991), Rivera (1995), Vecchio & Guerrero (1995). Valdés and Figueroa (1994:34) for instance claimed that “what it means to know a language goes beyond simplistic views of good pronunciation, "correct" grammar, and even mastery of rules of politeness. Knowing a language and knowing *how to* use a language involves a mastery and control of a large number of interdependent components and elements that interact with one another and that are affected by the nature of the situation in which communication takes place”. Definitions of English language proficiency vary from considering the performance of the person or components of the language itself as means to define the proficiency. Following are some English language proficiency definitions:

- Language proficiency according to Abo Zeid (1998) refers to “the degree of skill with which a person uses a language; such as how well a person can read, write, speak or understand the language”. He distinguished between the level of proficiency and achievement; the first is not related to achievement in a person’s particular course of instruction. Language proficiency is the learner’s general level of language mastery and it is measured through a proficiency test. The latter is measured by achievement test.



- 
- According to Richards, et.al. (1992), Davies et.al. (1999) and Puengpipattrakul (1997), The English language proficiency is viewed as the degree of a learner's skill with which a learner can use a language, such as how learner can read, write, speak or understand the language. It refers to a learner's skill in using the English language for a specific purpose as academic or occupational purposes. It is tested by language proficiency tests as the Test of English as a Foreign Language TOEFL or test of English for international communication.
  - Canales (1994) referred to English language proficiency as a coherent orchestration of discrete elements, such as vocabulary, discourse structure and gestures, to communicate meaning in a specific context as the school.
  - The Council of Chief State School Officers CCSSO (1992) defines English language proficiency from the student view as “a fully English proficient student is able to use English to ask questions, to understand teachers and reading materials, to test ideas, and to challenge what is being asked in the classroom”.
  - The Council of Chief State School Officers CCSSO (1992: 7) defines English language proficiency from a student side as “a fully English proficient student is able to use English to ask questions, to understand teachers, and reading materials, to test ideas, and to challenge what is being asked in the classroom. Four language skills contribute to proficiency as follows:



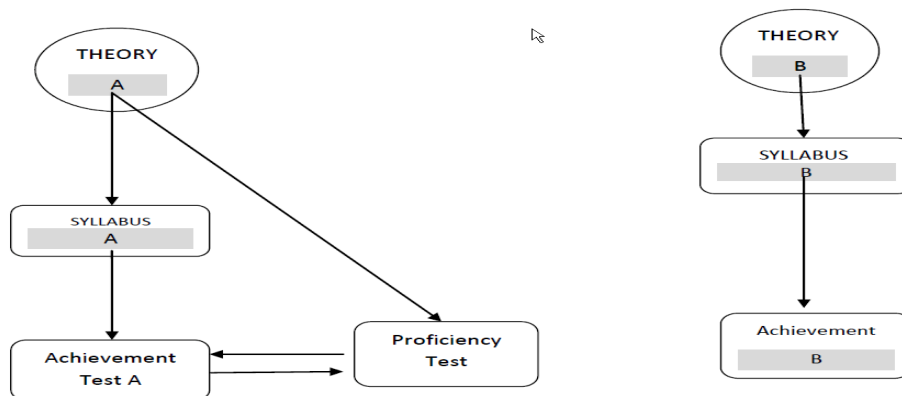
- 
- i. Reading: the ability to comprehend and interpret text at the age and grade appropriate level.
  - ii. Listening: the ability to understand the language of the teacher and instruction, comprehend and extract information, and follow the instructional discourse through which teachers provide information.
  - iii. Speaking: the ability to use oral language appropriately and effectively in learning activities (such as peer tutoring, collaborative learning activities, and question/answer sessions) within the classroom and in social interactions within the school”.
  - iv. Writing: the ability to produce written text with content and format fulfilling classroom assignments at the age and grade-appropriate level.

## **1.2. Testing the language proficiency**

A proficiency test is one of the different types of language tests. It aims at providing the test-taker with a general diagnostic language level. It, thus, describes the benchmarks or levels of learner's competencies in the four language skills. A proficiency test should cover the four language skills and this is one of the reasons that many researches criticized the paper form of TOEFL (Choy & Davenport: 1986, Woodford: 1978). The current TOEFL-IBT overcame this criticism because



it covers the four language skills. There are different classifications for the language tests according to their objectives or content. The main classification of the language tests according to purpose is achievement and proficiency tests. Bachman (1996: 71) classified language tests into proficiency and achievement tests. He called the theory-based tests as proficiency tests and the syllabus-based ones as achievement tests. Figure (1) below by Bachman (ibid) illustrates the relationships among the theory, syllabus and test content. It suggests that syllabuses rely on different theories and based on these syllabuses different achievement tests are designed as a basis for the language proficiency, which is tested by proficiency tests.



Bachman (ibid) claims that whether or not the specific abilities measured by a given proficiency test actually differ from those measured by a given achievement test. Proficiency tests depend on the extent to which the theory upon which it is based. For example, a language proficiency test based on a theory of grammatical competence is likely to be quite similar to an achievement test based on a



---

grammar-based syllabus, but quite different from an achievement test based on a national functional syllabus.

### **1.3. General Characteristics of language tests**

A good language test should have essential measurement qualities, which are statistically called *test-usefulness* aspects. These measurement qualities include validity, reliability, authenticity, interactivity, impact and practicality.

#### **1.3.1. Reliability**

Reliability refers to the consistency of the scores. The American Psychological Association (APA: 1985) defined reliability as a quality of test scores, and a perfectly reliable score, or measure, would be one which is free from errors of measurement. Wells and Wollak (2003) defined reliability as the consistency of scores students would receive on alternate forms of the same test. According to Bachman (1995: 24) it has to do with "the consistency of measures across different times, test forms, raters, and other characteristics of the measurement context". There are many ways to measure reliability as classified by Bachman (ibid.). The first is the *Inter-Rater or Inter-Observer Reliability*. It is used to assess the degree to which different raters/observers give consistent estimates of the same phenomenon. The second is *Test-Retest Reliability*, which is used to assess the consistency of a measure from one time to another. The third is the *Parallel-Forms Reliability*, which is used to assess the consistency of the results of two tests constructed in the same way from the same content domain. The fourth is the *Internal Consistency Reliability*, which is used to assess the consistency of results across items within a test.





---

### 1.3.2. Test Validity

Validity according to Hughes (1989:22) refers to discovering whether a test "measures accurately what it is intended to measure". Aiken (1991: 541) defined validity to mean the extent to which an assessment instrument measures what it was designed to measure. Validity can be assessed in several ways: by analyzing the test content (*content validity*), by relating scores to a criterion (*predictive and concurrent validity*), and by a more thorough analysis of the extent to which the instrument is a measure of a certain psychological construct (*construct validity*). Henning (1987: 170) viewed it to mean "uncovering the appropriateness of a given test or any of its component parts as a measure of what it is supposed to measure". According to Davidson (2007) when we write a test we have an intention to measure something , that this something is real, and that the validity enquiry concerns finding out whether a test actually does measure" what is intended". In sum, a test is valid if it tests what it should test.

### 1.3.3. Authenticity

Authenticity in language tests according to Bachman and Palmer (2004: 23) refers to the degree of correspondence of the characteristics of a given language test task to the features of a target language use TLU tasks. There are two types of authenticity: the first is the situational authenticity: the perceived match between the characteristics of test tasks to target language use TLU tasks. The second is the interactional authenticity: the interaction between the test taker and the test task (Bachman: 1991).



Figure (1) shows a distinction has been made by Mueller (2011) between traditional and authentic testing:

*Figure (1): Traditional vs. Authentic testing*

<b>Traditional Testing</b>	<b>VS.</b>	<b>Authentic Testing</b>
Selecting a Response -----		Performing a Task
Contrived -----		Real-life
Recall/Recognition -----		Construction/Application
Teacher-structured -----		Student-structured
Indirect Evidence -----		Direct Evidence

Figure (1) shows that in the authentic testing the students perform or do the task but in the traditional testing students only select a response passively. The type of test items in the authentic testing is a real life one while the second is contrived. Knowledge levels in the authentic testing are construction and application levels but in the second test items test recalling and recognition levels. Authentic testing is student-structured while traditional testing is teacher-structured. Authentic testing provides direct evidence for students' performance while in the traditional testing only indirect evidences are presented. The above comparison clearly indicates the need for authentic testing for the communicative courses and this is what the main study strongly supports as will be discussed in the model part in this chapter.

#### **1.3.4. Impact and Practicality**

According to Bachman (2000), test impact refers to the effect created by a test, both in terms of influence on general educational processes, and in terms of the



---

individuals who are affected by test results. Test practicality means that the test should be as economical as possible in terms of time and cost. Practicality of the test can be achieved by considering four constraints; administration, time, ease of marking and reproduction of test material.

In sum, the previous characteristics are essential for designing language tests. Good language tests are valid, reliable, and authentic, have an impact and should be practical. In the light of the above characteristics TOEFL-iBT is designed as any other language test. This test is the core of the study and the main indicator for the effectiveness of the participants of the research. The next section discusses this test in detail, its form, content and procedures.



---

## **Chapter Two**

### **Approaches to TEFL**

#### **Video Link**

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZlVZpcan7q0>

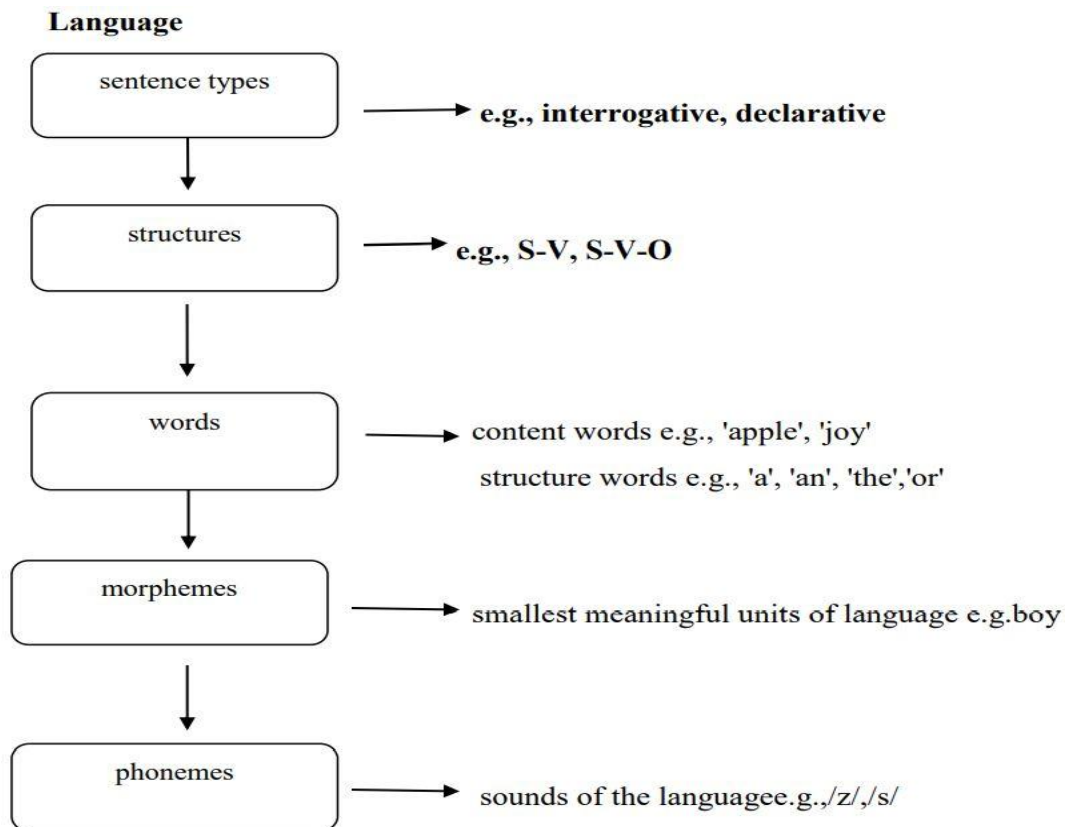
#### **(1) Structural Approach**

It is also known as Aural-oral Approach. Each language has its own pattern of structure. The structural approach is an outcome of the experiments carried out in language teaching in the army campus during World War II. Meaningful words are used in particular order. Every structure embodies an important grammatical point. A sentence needs a grammatical background. The different arrangements or patterns of words are called structures. Here words are used in particular order to



---

convey their sense and meaning. In this way structures are the tools of language and should not be confused with sentences. According to Brewington "Structural approach is a scientific study of the fundamental structures of the English language, their analysis and logical arrangement". The structural approach to English is teaching the learner certain selected structures in a certain order. The different arrangement or patterns of words are called structures. Structure may be complete patterns or they may form a part of a large pattern. Language is viewed as structurally related elements for the encoding of meaning the elements being phonemes, morphemes, words, structures and sentence types. It can be diagrammatically represented as:



(\*Nagaraj, G. 2012.English Language Teaching (second edition).Orient Blackswan.)

in the structural approach there may be four kinds of structures namely; Sentence patterns; Phrase patterns; Formulas and Idioms. Sentence Pattern are the word model from sentence types structures words morphemes phonemes which many things of the same kind and shape can be made like cars which look the same or shoes made alike all of the same size and shape though perhaps of different colours. A sentence pattern is therefore a model for sentence which will be of the same shape and construction although made up of different words.

Phrase Pattern is a group of words which express an idea without its being a sentence or clause e.g. in the house, on the table, into the tub etc. Formulas are those words which are used on certain occasions e.g. How are you?, Good morning; Thank you; etc. Idioms like 'Rome was not built in a day', 'hit the iron when it is hot', etc. come in this category. These should be taught as a whole.



---

**1 Principles of Structural Approach:** It is based on three main principles:

- (i) Importance is given to student's activity rather than the activity of the teacher.
- (ii) Importance is given to speech work.
- (iii) Importance is given in developing correct language habits among the students, particularly the habits of arranging words in English in order to replace the sentence patterns of the pupil's mother tongue.

**Aims of Structural Approach:**

The main aim of structural approach is to teach four fundamental skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. It also enlarges the vocabulary of the student's. It correlates the teaching of grammar and composition with the lesson of the text-book. It improves and corrects pupil's speech habit. It makes classroom environment interesting and natural. It develops student's interest in creating meaningful situations. It lays proper emphasis on the aural-oral approach, active methods and the condemnation of formal grammar for its own sake. It also enables the children to attain mastery over an essential vocabulary of about 3000 root words for active use.

**Merits of the Structural Approach –**

The merits of this approach are that it can be adopted for all stages of education. It stress habit formation, through intensive drills, the students cultivate the habit of speaking the English language, due to much oral drilling, whatever is learnt in the class remains stable in the minds of the students. It provides enough opportunities to the students to express their ideas and feelings and makes both teacher and students active which is psychologically sound. It puts more emphasis on speech or oral aspects of learning. The students are provided with carefully selected and graded language material. Making use of this approach the teacher can attend to more or almost all students of his class.

**Demerits of the structural Approach**



The demerits of this approach are that it is suitable only in lower classes. Only well selected sentence patterns are taught through this approach. It is rarely successful in overcrowded classroom. It neglects reading of all types. This approach does not take into consideration the fact that pupil is a learner. This approach needs specially planned text-books and well trained teachers to create appropriate environment for learning the language.

While teaching through this approach each structure should be repeatedly taught many times with different words. The teacher should care that the students get adequate practice in the use of special words. New words should be introduced gradually and they must be corrected with the structures already taught. Sufficient practice should be given in respect of each structure before the next is introduced. New words at early stages should refer to objects and actions which can be seen and demonstrated in the classroom.

Thus this approach is based on the assumption that language learning is a matter of habit formation, which involves a lot of repetition and conscious drilling of the language items.

## **(2) Situational Approach**

Hornby used the term situational approach in the title of a popular series of article published in ELT (1950). The approach suggests that any language item, whether it is structure or a word, should not be presented in isolation. It has to be introduced and practised in a context or situation. In the situational approach, explanations are discouraged and the learner is expected to apply the language learnt in the classroom to situation outside the classroom. By using situation the use of mother tongue can be avoided. If the language item is given in the meaningful situations the learner can deduce the meaning and context from the situation in which it is used.

The situational approach indicates as to how a teacher should create a real situation in the classroom. Now the question that arises is how these real situations





can be created in the classroom? The Situational Approach tries to solve this problem. A particular situation helps the teacher to provide practice to the pupils to explain its meaning. A particular situation may be created in the classroom by use of maps, pictures, various objects, actions or by drawing on the black board. It can thus be realized that to create a relevant situation is practical problem.

According to this approach the English as a second language should be taught by forming links between the new words and the real situations encountered by the child while learning their mother tongue. All the items are learnt by a child in real situations. The situation in which the child learns his mother-tongue are repeated again and again and whatever the child understands or expresses about his experiences of his own life are then in same way connected with the terminology of the English Language. The structure or a word conveys its meaning to the pupil only when it is used in particular situations. This particular situation helps the teacher to familiarize the pupils with the structure. But how a teacher can create a real situation, may be created in the classroom and outside by the use of objects, by the use of pictures, by drawing or displaying maps and sketches, by gestures and by action etc. Conversation is another way to create real situations in the classrooms. The teacher may ask questions also. They may have discussion or extempore etc.

## **1 Characteristics of situational approach**

Speech is the basis of language teaching. The new language items and vocabulary items are graded according to their usefulness, frequency and teachability. The language items thus selected and graded are presented and practised in meaningful situations. Reading and writing are based on items which have already been introduced and practised orally. New words are introduced incidentally in the class. Opportunities are provided to the pupils to associate the meaning of new words with the created situation. Lot of appropriate material is used to create proper and real situations. Examples are given to make the things clear. Teacher gives continuous statements about his actions – He puts before his pupils several questions and answers them himself. The use of mother-tongue is emphasized.



---

For example – If the teacher wants to teach the parts of a flower. He can show various pictures to the students depicting different parts of a flower. He may also write the names of the parts of the trees on these pictures. First of all he will explain orally only and then the teacher may take the help of the pictures to make his teaching more effective and interesting.

### **.2 Merits of the Situational Approach**

- (1) It creates interest among the students.
- (2) Emphasis is given on learning by play.
- (3) Action chains make the classroom atmosphere lively.
- (4) Lot of material aid is used to make the learning stable and interesting.
- (5) Lot of examples can be given
- (6) The teacher can make his illustrations clear by using various materials or by pictures etc.
- (7) Stress is given on learning through hearing.

### **.3 Demerits of the Situational Approach**

- (1) It is suitable only in the lower classes as this approach cannot be made applicable to the senior classes.
- (2) Text books cannot be taught by this method.
- (3) Only well selected sentence patterns can be taught by this approach.
- (4) That minimum makes the classroom dull.
- (5) Trained teachers are required for it.
- (6) Prose, poetry, rapid reader etc. cannot be taught through this approach.
- (7) Sometimes it becomes difficult to relate the statement of the teacher with the created situation.



---

Situational Language Teaching involves accurate use of vocabulary items and grammar rules in order to achieve a practical mastery of the four basic skills. Learners must be able to produce accurate pronunciation and use of grammar. The ultimate aim is to be able to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations with an automatic control of basic structures and sentence patterns.

### **(3) Communicative Approach**

The development of language learning or teaching from form-based to a meaning-based approach, the move towards the eclectic approach from a rigid method, the shift from teacher centered to learner centered classes, are all subsumed under the broad term communicative approach. The communicative approach is the recent and latest approach of teaching English. This approach lays a great emphasis on the use of language. It enables the students to communicate his ideas in a better way. The socio linguists Dell Hymes propagated this approach. According to him the purpose of teaching language is the communicative competence. The following materials are used in this approach; different functions such as requesting, informing, expressing likes and dislikes; notions of time, location and duration etc.; using language to perform different tasks such as solving puzzles, dramatization, role play etc. Teachers have known that their aim is to get students communicating successfully outside the classroom.

Communicative competence not only applies the grammatical rules of a language in order to form a grammatically correct sentence, but also to know when and where to use these sentences- in other words, to use them appropriately.

#### **.1 Characteristics of the approach**

The communicative approach aim to make all the learner attain communicative competence i.e. use language accurately and appropriately. The prime focus is on learner and teacher is just a facilitator. It is based upon need analysis and planning to prepare communicative curricular and syllabuses. It is based upon the concept of how language is used and what is functional utility of language. It lays less stress on grammar and emphasis on language in use rather than language as structure. It gives emphasis on the semantic objective of the language which means the meaning of language in real life situation and contexts. The skills of



speaking and writing are included in communicative approach. It provides the communicative opportunities where the students may be able to communicate their ideas through dialogue, discussion, debate, literary and cultural activities of the schools.

### **.2 Merits of communicative approach:**

1. The merits of communicative approach is to develop the speech ability among the students.
2. It teaches of different ways of expression.
3. This approach is based on the practical utility.
4. It lays more stress on the functional value of language.
5. It enables the students to communicative their ideas both inside and outside the class-room.

### **.3 Demerits of communicative approach:**

1. This approach ignores grammar and structures.
2. It is not properly and scientifically developed as yet.
3. It is a new approach and it is to be used and tested in our schools for language teaching.
4. Practical utility of this approach is yet to be confirmed.
5. Trained teachers are not available in this approach to teach English language.
6. Students don't get proper environment for communication.

In communicative approach techniques such as information gap tasks are used. An information gap occurs in a situation where one person knows something which other person do not. Information gap task used in the classroom are language games, role play, retrieving text order etc.

In this approach the teacher is no longer regarded as sole arbiter and controller of what goes in the language classroom. The independent status of learner is fully accepted. The communicative approach has implications for the classroom teacher



---

in terms of their way of teaching and attitude. Thus communicative approach can be the effective way of developing language competence among learners.

#### **(4) Constructive Approach**

This view represents the shift from education based on behaviourism, to education based on cognitive theory. Thus, behaviourist epistemology essence is based on intelligence, domains of objectives, levels of knowledge and reinforcement; however in the case of constructivist epistemology it is the learner who constructs their knowledge on the basis of interaction with the environment. The primary message of constructivism is that active learning enables the students to construct their own knowledge and make their own meaning of what is being thought. According to this approach, acquiring second language will be effective in authentic and complex learning environment or situation. One of the primary goals of using constructivist Check your progress Note: a) Write your answer in the space provided after each item. b) Compare your answers with those given in the end of the unit. 3. What do you understand by communicative approach of teaching English? teaching is that students learn how to learn by giving them the training to take initiative for their own learning experiences.

According to Reinfried constructivist language learning should be action oriented where language is learned through collaboration, free creation is praised, and learning is achieved by actively doing projects and self teaching. Constructivist language learning should be learner centred that supports individualization of learning and autonomy. Learner should develop awareness not only for learning but for the language itself and for the intercultural aspect as well.



---

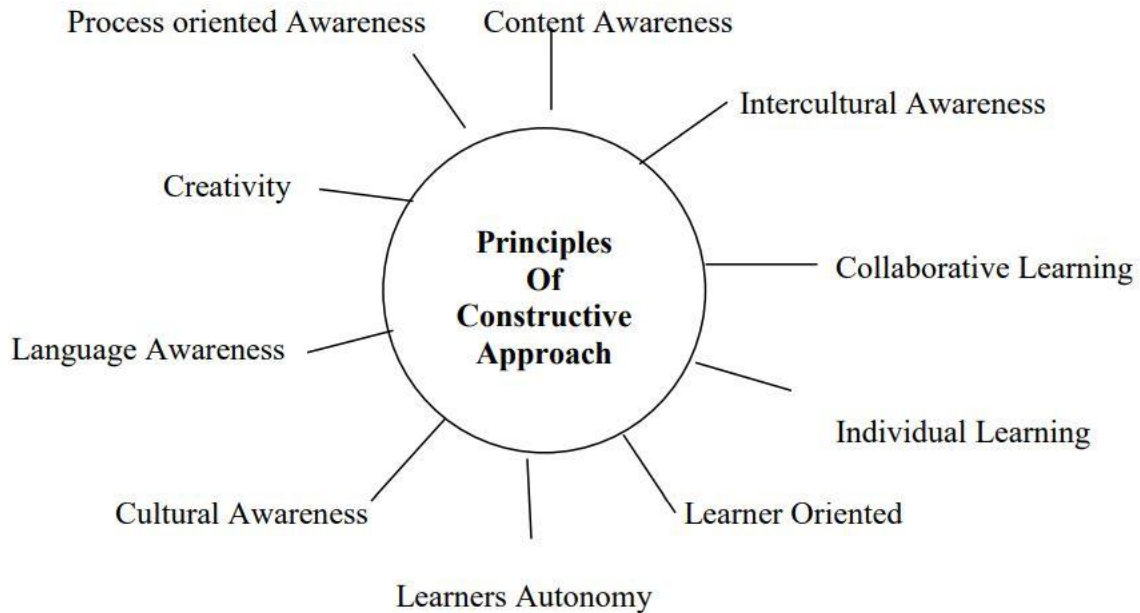
Constructivist language learning is to be holistic with content oriented perspective, authentic and complex learning environment.

### **1. Principle of Constructive approach**

One of the most important principles in constructivist approach to language teaching is action orientation. Co-operative learning (such as pair work, group work or any other social forms of learning), creative and active participation in classroom activities, learning by preparing various projects as well as learning by teaching (when the student is asked to take over teacher's role) have been treated as the major tasks referring to the action oriented method.

The second principle in constructive language teaching is individualization of learning which is centered on the learner. It is the learner who is allowed to decide about the fragments and sections of the materials provided by the teacher during the lesson. This possibility to make choices fosters learner's autonomy, thus it takes into account their preferable style and type of learning.

Another principle of constructive approach refers to holistic language experience which refers to content-oriented language teaching and usually takes place in bilingual classes. Constructive approach to language teaching is based on the foundation that knowledge is constructed not received. It is based on thinking and analyzing not memorizing. It also lays emphasis on understanding and applying and not repeating.



**Figure3 Principles of Constructive Second Language Teaching**

Constructivist teaching involves negotiation and scaffolding. Negotiation is an important aspect of a constructivist classroom. It unites teachers and students in a common purpose. It is important for the teacher to talk openly with the learners about the choice of new information as well as the way of introducing it during classes, and the formal constraints such as obligatory curriculum. Scaffolding is a more systemic approach to supporting the learner, focusing on the task, the environment, the teacher, and the learner. Scaffolding provides temporary frameworks to support learning and student performance beyond their capacities.



---

The concept of scaffolding represents any kind of support for cognitive activity that is provided by an adult when the child and adult are performing the task together (Wood & Middleton, 1975).

Instructional practice in constructivist classrooms values prior knowledge, is context embedded, integrates cooperative group work, multidimensional assessment, integrates language, content, and process.

In the constructivist classroom, the teacher's role is to prompt and facilitate discussion. Thus, the teacher's main focus should be on guiding students by asking questions that will lead them to develop their own conclusions on the subject. Teaching strategies which can be used in this approach is that a teacher can use a picture from students' cultural background. Ask students Principles Of Constructive Approach to describe as they say the words, and write the words on paper, put words together and look for patterns. Write sentences from the words formed.

Some of the activities that could be involved in constructive classroom while teaching language are role playing, theme and content based, oral presentations, discussions and debates, metaphors, interactive, collaborative, real life examples, portfolio evaluation etc. Students can construct additional knowledge by writing poems, short plays, screen plays, legal briefs, journals, diaries etc.

## **2 Merits of Constructive Approach**

This method of teaching is effective for students who learn better in a hands-on environment and helps students to better relate the information learned in the classroom to their lives. Children learn more, and enjoy learning more when they





---

are actively involved, rather than passive listeners. Education works best when it concentrates on thinking and understanding, rather than on rote memorization. Constructivism concentrates on learning how to think and understand. Constructivist learning is transferable. In constructivist classrooms, students create organizing principles that they can take with them to other learning settings. Constructivism gives students ownership of what they learn, since learning is based on students' questions and explorations, and often the students have a hand in designing the assessments as well. Constructivism promotes social and communication skills by creating a classroom environment that emphasizes collaboration and exchange of ideas.

## **2 Demerits of Constructive Approach**

There are also some demerits to constructive teaching. The training necessary, for constructive teaching is extensive and often requires costly long-term professional development. With an average number of students in one classroom, teachers are unable to customize the curriculum to each student, as their prior knowledge will vary. The constructivism curriculum also eliminates standardized testing and grades. It requires more time and energy.



---

## Language Teaching Methods

### Introduction

For some decades now, researchers in language studies have delved into finding out several ways in which language teaching will be enhanced. Out of practical experiences in the teaching of language and the challenges associated with such experiences, several methods of teaching language have emerged. Language scholars such as Asher (1977), Krashen (1982), Brown (1994), Olaoye (1998), Rifkin (2003), Anozie (2007) etc., have somehow discussed some of these methods, which we feel that a conceptual approach to this subject matter will not be out of place. While Olaoye (1989) considered only five methods, Anozie (2007) included what he calls the newer methods, and all are highlighted in the works of Krashen (1982).

### Language Teaching Methods

Krashen (1982 : 125) discusses several approaches or what he calls “the most widely used methods” to language teaching, with the questions – on each approach to classroom teaching: what extent it satisfies the requirements for optimal input”, and “what extent it puts learning in its proper place”. These approaches have positively advanced the course of language teaching and learning so much so that there is the need to have more insight on the approaches and what contribution they can still make to our contemporary language study.



---

## **Grammar-Translation Method**

Earlier in the Western world, around 17th, 18th and 19th centuries the focus of foreign language learning was to promote intellects of the speaker with special biases on the learning of Latin and Greek language. The learning emphasis was on grammatical rules, syntactic structures, and rote memorization of vocabulary and translation of literary texts. Oral use of languages was deemphasized since the teaching and learning of Greek and Latin is only for scholarly or erudite purposes. The classical method became known as the Grammar Translation Method at the late of 19th Century with the same emphasis on grammatical rules as well as the process of translating from the second to the native language.

The intention of most teachers that employ the grammatical methods to teach English language was to equip the learners with the knowledge of literature, develop their minds mentally, building in them the kinds of grammar, reading vocabulary and translation skills that expedite their success in written tests or entrance examinations to the higher institutions.

The key features, notes Prator&Celce-Murcia (1979), found in this method are as follows:

- i. Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
- ii. Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.
- iii. Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.
- iv. Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.
- v. Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.



- 
- vi. Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
  - vii. Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
  - viii. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

In the same vein, Krashen (1982), though with some variation, recognizes activities of grammar translation method which are as follows:

- i. Explanation of a grammar rule, with example sentences.
- i. Vocabulary, presented in form of bilingual list.
- ii. A reading selection, emphasizing the rule presented in (i) above and the vocabulary presented in (2).
- iii. Exercises designed to provide practice on the grammar and vocabulary of the lesson. These exercises emphasize the conscious control of structure and include translation in both directions, from L1 to L2, and L2 or L1. Krashen (1982) also posits the requirements for optimal input, each with its associated shortcomings. These are – A. comprehensible – GTM provides scraps of comprehensible input-model sentences that are designed to focus students on form. B. interest/relevant: An attempt is made to provide the students with topics of interest, but learners will always remember that they are written in another language. C. not grammatically sequenced: Texts sequenced from what the author considers easy rules to move complex rules, yet each lesson introduces certain rules, so that rules dominate the



lesson. D. quality: Not only that comprehensible input is scanty, the teacher rarely plays much role in the target language. E. Affective filter level: GTM violates the tenets of input hypothesis, with the tendency of putting the learners on the defensive, and even raise their anxiety level, (Celce-Murcia, 1979). F. tools for conversational management: learners are helpless in conversational management with native speaker. The contribution of grammar-translation method to language learning has been limited since it has shifted the focus from the real language to linguistic categories such as nouns, adjectives, prepositions with less attention to the communicative ability in the foreign language.

### **The Direct Method**

The frustration experienced by the limits of the Grammar Translation Method in terms of its inability to create communicative competences in learners gave rise to direct method. This revolution began towards the end of 18th century. The teaching of foreign or second language began to be approached along language acquisition perspective. Those areas where GTM deemphasized or omitted out rightly namely, Oral communication. Spontaneous use of the language, developing the ability to think in the target language, etc., became the area of concern. Direct method, therefore, concerns itself with employing the target language as a means of instruction with no translation and an emphasis on linking meaning to the language being learned. The direct method functions well in private schools more than the public. Krashen (1982) points out the characteristics of Direct method: discussion/all classroom for both teacher /learners language is the target language;



---

inductive teaching of grammar; learners should guess or work out the rules of the language; induction is motivated and facilitated by teachers questions that can lead the learners into conversation etc. This method insists on accuracy, while errors are corrected in class.

One of the problems of direct method according to Brown (1994) is that it is met with constraints of budget, classroom size, and time and teacher background in public education. As a result of this, its practices began to decline. However, it later got revived and metamorphosed into what we have as Audio-lingual method.

### **The Audio-lingual Method**

This method also known as fundamental skill method, aural-oral method or Army method came as a result of the need for American soldiers who were to travel overseas to communicate in foreign languages during the Second World War. The council of American learning society has to produce many language speakers where total immersion language courses were introduced. To this end, bits and pieces of the Direct Method were appropriated in order to enhance this method.

The Audio-lingual method draws its practices from linguistic and psychological theory that investigates different language using scientific descriptive analytic approach. The behavioristic psychologists with the conditioning and habit-formation models of learning had a major role to play in Audio-lingual method (krashen, 1982): Lesson begins with a dialogue which contains the structures and vocabulary; the learners mimic the dialogue; the learners memorize the dialogue;



---

there is pattern drill on the structure to strengthen habits. These can clearly be stated in the following form:

- Dependence on mimicry and memorization of set phrases.
- Teaching structural patterns by means of repetitive drills.
- No grammatical explanation.
- Learning vocabulary in context.
- Use of tapes and visual aids.
- Focus on pronunciation.
- Immediate reinforcement of correct responses.

Just like the preceding methods, Audio-lingual methods had its shortcoming, which is, the inability to promote communicative ability as it paid undue attention to memorization and drilling and less attention to the role of context and world knowledge in language learning. The discovery that language was not acquired through a process of habit formation and that errors were not necessarily a problem to the learner weakened this method.

### **Total Physical Response Method (TPR)**

Around 1960s James Asher experimented with a method he tagged Total Physical Response (TPR) which consists basically of obeying commands given by the instructor that involve an overt physical response (Krashen, 1982). This method



---

draws insight also from “trace theory” that memory is stimulated and increased when it is closely associated with motor activity. It also draws much from the basic principles of language acquisition in young learners – the process that involves listening and comprehension combined with various physical responses e.g., smiling, grabbing, , looking etc., - well, before learners start using the language verbally,. The key features of the Total Physical Response method are: i. the teacher directs and students act in response. Asher (1977: 43) states that “the instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors”. ii. Listening and physical response skills are emphasized over oral production. iii. The imperative mood is the most common language function employed.

Interrogatives are heavily used. iv. Humor is also created to make the lesson lively. v. emphasis is laid on Grammar and Vocabulary over other areas. vi. Students response in speech is only when they are naturally ready to do so. Asher (1977) lists the three principles of the TPR method:

- Delay speech from students until understanding of spoken language has been extensively internalized.
- Achieve understanding of spoken language through utterances by the instructor in the imperative.
- Expect that, at some point in the understanding of spoken language, students will indicate a readiness to talk.

Among the primary objectives of TPR is that learning needs to be more enjoyable and less stressful. The use of TPR ensures active participation of students and helps the teacher know when utterances are understood and also provides contacts





---

to help student understand the language they hear. However, a limitation can be identified due to its practice only inside the classroom and also because of constraints imposed by the continuous use of imperatives and the grammatical focus of lessons.

### **Community language learning**

The proponent of this method Charles Curren developed a new educational model he called affective factors as paramount in the learning process. In this method, students or learners are seen as a group and not as a class. Students are also to be seen as clients while the teachers take the position of counselor.

Issues in adult learning spurred Curren to work out the Counseling-Learning educational model in order to cushion the threatening effect on the nature of a new learning situation to many adult learners and the anxiety caused by the education context. Thus, an interactive community of fellow learners would be of great help to lower the instinctive defenses that are found among adult learners and also reduce the anxiety in their learning situations. The role of the teacher who takes the position of a counselor is empathetic and not a threat. Having extended this model to language, we now have the term – Community Language Learning.

The practice is that the teachers see the students as whole persons with feelings, intellect, interpersonal relationships, and protective reactions with desire to learn. The students sit in a circle, with the teacher outside the ring. They use their first language for interaction first, and the teacher assists in translating it to the target language. The students repeat the target language after the teacher severally until



---

the students are able to stand on their own. Some of the features of the Community Language Learning Method are:

- Students are to be considered as ‘learner-clients’ and the teacher as a ‘teacher counselor’.
- Students are permitted to use their native language and are provided with translations from the teacher, which they will also apply.
- A relationship of mutual trust and support is considered essential to the learning process.
- Grammar and vocabulary are taught inductively.
- There is a record of the target language produced by the students that is transcribed in their native language, which they use for their working texts.
- Students apply the target language when they are confident enough to do so.
- Students are encouraged to express how they feel about the language and the learners’ process involved which draws empathy and understanding from the teacher.
- A variety of activities can be employed, e.g., grammar, or pronunciation, creating new sentences etc.

### **Suggestopedia**

Georgi Lozanov, a Bulgarian psychologist, around late 70s came up with the thinking that most students have naturally set up psychological barriers because of



---

fears supposing that they are limited to a certain learning capacity. Lozanov believes that learners have been underutilizing their mental capacity 5 – 10 percent while the brain can retain much more if given optimum condition for learning. As a result, he was led to developing a language learning method that deals on “desuggestion” of the limitations learners think they have, and providing them with a condition that might keep their minds in a relaxed form in order to attain to its full potential capacity. Suggestopedia reflects, therefore, the application of the power of suggestion to the field of pedagogy.

Krashen (1982) posits that Suggestopedia class, as conducted in Lozanov’s Institute of Suggestology in Sofia, Bulgaria, consists of small groups, around 12 students at a time, and are intensive, meeting for four hours per day. Bankroft (1978) in Krashen (1982) adds that each four-hour class consists of three parts:

- i. Review, done through traditional conversations, games, plays etc. Some exercises and error correction, may be included, but no language laboratory. Use or pattern drill.
- ii. New material is introduced in the form of dialogues based on situations familiar to the students.
- iii. The “truly original feature” of Suggestopedia in in two parts – 1. The active séance, the dialogue is read by the teacher, while students follow the text and engage in deep and rhythmic Yoga breathing, and the teacher reads the language materials in different other times, starting from Bulgaria (L1) translation (two seconds); foreign language phrase (four seconds); pause (two seconds).



The second part is the passive or convert part of the séance. This involves the playing of a Baroque music. Baroque music has a specific rhythm and a pattern of 60 beats per minute, and Lozanov thinks it creates a level of concentration that can facilitate the intake and retention of huge quantities of material. This increase in learning potential was put down to the increase in alpha brain waves and decreases in blood pressure and heart rate that result from listening to Baroque music. There is also the introduction of providing soft comfortable chairs and dim lighting in the classroom. The activity involves the teacher reading the dialogue “with an emotional intonation” while the students with eyes closed meditate on the text. The features of Suggestopedia are:

- Learning is facilitated in an environment that is as comfortable as possible, featuring soft cushioned seats and dim lights.
- Learning is encouraged peripherally as the learning environment is beautified with posters and decorations in the target language.
- The teacher assumes a role of complete authority and control in the classroom.
- Self-perceived and psychological barriers to learners’ potential to learn are “digested”
- Students are encouraged to be child-like and think along with their teachers, and assume new roles and names in the target language.
- Baroque music is played softly at the background to increase mental relaxation in order to assist in retaining new material during lesson.
- Students work from lengthy dialogue in the target language with an accompanying translation into the student’s native language.



- 
- Errors are tolerated. The emphasis is on content and not structure.
  - Homework is limited to students re-reading the dialogue they are studying once before they go to sleep at night and once in the morning before they get up.
  - Music, drama and “the Arts” are integrated into the learning process as often as possible. Just like every other method is bound to have a short coming, however, wonderful the contributions to language learning may appear, Suggestopedia cannot thrive well where the Classrooms are bereft of such amenities as comfortable seats, dim lights, music, compact disk players etc. The method can also be sleep-inducing among the students.

### The Natural Approach

In the early eighties, Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrel developed the Natural approach which is based on Krashen’s theories about second language acquisitions. The Natural approach shares a lot in common with Asher’s Total Physical Response method: the emphasis on silent phase, waiting for the student’s use of the target language at will; the emphasis on learner’s relaxation during learning process. Krashen (1982: 138) describes the natural method in the following principles:

- i. Class time is devoted primarily to providing input for acquisition.
- ii. The teacher speaks only the target language in the classroom. Students may use either the first or second language; their errors are not corrected unless communication is affected.



- 
- iii. Homework may include formal grammar work. Error correction is employed in correcting homework. OBUDU JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES. VOL. 9 NO. 1 (2015). P.20-34.
  - iv. The goals of the course are “semantic”, activities may involve the use of a certain structure, but the goals are to enable students to talk about ideas perform tasks, and solve problems.

Other activities involved in Natural method include games, role plays, dialogues, group work and discussions. Three generic stages involved are:

- i. preposition – developing listening skill.
- ii. Early production – students struggle with the language and make many errors which are corrected based on content and not structure.
- iii. Extending production – promoting fluency through a variety of more challenging activities.

Natural method faced criticism on the matter of recommending a silent period which terminates when students feel ready to emerge into oral production and also the idea of comprehensible input. The argument of the critics is that students emerge at different times or perhaps, not at all, and determine which forms of language input that will be comprehensible to student is a hard task. However, the Natural Approach led generally to preferring a general accepted norm for effective language teaching known as Communicative Language Teaching.



---

## Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

This is a broad approach that encompassed various methods, motivations for learning the target language, types of teachers and the needs of individual classrooms and students themselves. It is one ‘umbrella’ approach to language teaching approach that has become the accepted ‘norm’ in this field. The basic premises of this approach are:

- Focuses on all the components of communicative competence not only grammatical or linguistic competence.
- Engages learner in the programmatic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes.
- Views fluency and accuracy as complementary principles underpinning communicative techniques.
- Uses the language in unrehearsed contexts.

The all-embracing nature of communicative language teaching (CLT) as a method has currently been of the pre-occupation of modern language researchers and has also been of great interest and pursuit of many college and university foreign language programmes. Rifkin (2003: 169) notes that “many college and university foreign language programmes are designed to help students achieve certain goals”. These goals according him are:

- Listening comprehension (and, in some cases, viewing comprehension).
- Reading comprehension.
- Speaking ability.



- Writing ability.
- Understanding the culture(s) in which the language is spoken.
- Understanding the perspectives of different culture.

Labeling Communicative Language Teaching as taking the lead among other methods is simply because language (whether to be acquired or learnt) is useless being in use. The teaching methods that are methods that are mostly tested with foreign languages, especially English. The application of any or all of these methods to study can only be determined as we examine our own target language.

## **Conclusion**

The teaching and learning of languages have been considered very vital as far as linguistic research is concerned. And this is why we cannot over-emphasize the highlights of these methodologies. It is out of these researches, that the aforementioned and discussed methodologies have emerged. This implies that the language teacher is already handy and has the choice of approaching language teaching with any of these methods. In the same way, a language learner who has the privileged information on any of these methods is on an advantaged position to perform well in language learning.

It is also important to mention that no one method is preferred to the other. A language teacher is always trained to be eclectic in approaching the teaching of a language as there are several factors that determine what a language teacher





---

does as well as the student's behaviour at a particular point in time. The most important thing is that the language learning takes place.



---

## TEACHING NEW VOCABULARY

### Introduction

Throughout the history of language teaching/learning, teaching vocabulary was sometimes neglected by both methodologists and language teachers. It was assumed that vocabulary was less important compared with an area such as grammar, and therefore, it should be dealt with quickly and implicitly without giving it a special focus (Nunan, 1991; Rivers, 1981). Thus, priority was given to grammar, especially within the audio-lingual method. However, with the development of the communicative approach to language teaching, the status of vocabulary enhanced considerably. Many methodologists argued that in the early stages of learning and using a second/foreign language, one is better served by vocabulary than grammar, and that one can ‘bypass’ grammar in going for meaning if one has a reasonable vocabulary base (Nunan, 1991: p117). Moreover, Rivers (1983: p125) argue that the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary is essential for successful second/foreign language use, and that vocabulary expansion becomes easier as one matures; the more one’s vocabulary develops, the easier it is to add new words. Usually, the first few words in a new language are quite hard to acquire, but as the learner accumulates more words and get familiar with the target language, vocabulary acquisition becomes much easier than before. There are many arguments as to the best way to grade or order vocabulary in a language syllabus. Some scholars suggest that vocabulary should be graded in terms of **frequency** (i.e., the most frequent words should precede the less frequent



---

ones). Proponents of general-purpose English, for example, argue that learners should be taught a ‘common core’ of high frequency items rather than items specific to a particular domain (Nunan, 1991). Others suggest that vocabulary should be graded in terms of **difficulty** (i.e., easy words should precede difficult ones). Some others divide vocabulary into **active** words and **passive** words suggesting that active words should be introduced first. Active words refer to those words that language learners need to **understand**, learn, and master very well to use the target language properly, while passive words refer to those that learners need to only understand, with no obligation to use them. It should be noted that the same passive vocabulary can become active at a later stage of learning (see also: <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/knowledge-wiki/passive-vocabulary>).

The nature of the English language as a language that has been subject to many influences from other languages makes the issue of teaching new vocabulary of a special concern. Although linguists have tried to facilitate the learning of English vocabulary by creating some rules and generalizations, the irregularities in spelling have made learning English words a problematic issue. Compared with Arabic, for example, English sounds much more irregular and complicated in terms of spelling, and therefore, Arab learners who study English as a foreign language usually struggle with learning new vocabulary.

### **Why is Teaching New Vocabulary So Important within the Egyptian Context?**



**Link:**

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pzIv02E9vU8>

Teaching new vocabulary is an important issue as far as teaching English as a foreign language is concerned, especially within the Egyptian context. This importance, in my opinion, can be attributed to the nature of the English language itself and how the words are spelled. Unlike Arabic and many other Western languages, writing/spelling in English is a problematic issue. Tracing the history of the English language, it can be noted that English was the subject of many foreign influences (e.g., the Norman invasion, and subsequently the French language and the Latin language). These influences created discrepancies in English spelling and writing, which led sometimes to mismatch between the pronunciation of a word on the one hand, and the orthographical representation (i.e., the written shape of it as it appears on paper) on the other. These irregularities in spelling made it difficult to devise comprehensive rough rules that can help foreign learners to predict how any new word should be written, without seeing it before. For example, suppose that a learner is required to write a word like ‘right’ without seeing it before...Just based on dictation. How on earth will s/he be able to write it? Will s/he (as an Arab learner) write it as: ‘right’, ‘rite’, ‘write’, ‘rait’, or ‘rayet’? Similarly, if s/he has not seen the word ‘photograph’ before, will s/he write it as: ‘photograph’, ‘fotograf’, or ‘photograf’?

The same applies to a word like: ‘feast’ which, when only heard, holds many possible written forms (many of which are not English at all!) such as: ‘feest’, ‘fiest’, ‘feist’, ‘fist’, ‘pheast’; also ‘see’, which can be otherwise written as: ‘sea’,



---

‘cea’, ‘cee’, ‘si’, ‘sie’; ‘tyre’, which can also be written as ‘tire’ and ‘tyer’. A famous example of a complicated word is ‘psychology’ which, if not seen before, can be written as: ‘sychology’, ‘saikologi’, ‘psaicology’, ‘sikologie’, ‘saickology’, etc.

Another similar standard example of this irregularity is the word ‘psalm’ (Pronounced: /sa:m/), and which can be written as: ‘sam’, ‘salm’, or ‘psam’...and so on and so forth!

The point I am making is that it is extremely hard for Arab learners in general and Egyptian ones in particular, to learn new English words without practicing them. This calls for adequate ways that teachers should use to present new English words.

Moreover, there is a need to explain to learners the spelling difficulties in these words by, for example, comparing these new words with previously learned ones. This way, learners can internally create linguistic patterns and/or conceptual frameworks that might help them to envisage certain rules. Gradually, they might be able to easily grasp some regularities and irregularities. Though there are some spelling rules in English, a great number of exceptions exist as well. For example, I learned in the past that when the letter ‘g’ is followed by any of the letters ‘e’, ‘i’, and ‘y’, it is pronounced /j/; otherwise, it is pronounced /g/. But what about words like ‘give’, ‘gear’, ‘begin’, ‘anger’, ‘monger’, and ‘eager’? Why the ‘g’ in them is pronounced /g/, and not /j/?

## **Golden Rules for Teaching New Vocabulary**



---

To all EFL student teachers: as teachers, you should keep in mind the following important points which you should keep in mind as golden rules for the successful teaching of vocabulary:

**- Never teach lists of de-contextualized vocabulary items.**

The focus in class should be on encouraging learners to develop strategies of inferring the meaning of new words from the context in which they occur (Nunan, 1991: p121). After all, learners will forget these isolated lists.

**- Before the English class, check the new words yourself.**

You must be a good model for your students by mastering these new words yourself. Thus, you should, for example, consult your dictionary for pronunciation if you are in doubt. In Egypt, many of us are still experiencing problems with pronouncing some English words like 'exhausted', 'vehicle', 'cupboard', and 'dawn', simply because our teachers in the early days did not pronounce them correctly. As a result, we have developed wrong pronunciation of these words for a considerably long time.

**Before teaching a new word, check whether your students know it.** If they already know it, much time and effort will be saved for you! Usually ask them a question like: "Does any of you know what this word means?".

**New words should be taught in context.**

Creating lists of words to teach in advance of the activity/exercise at hand is not the practice I prefer. If you do this, you might need to revisit these words again when you read them in context!

- Never ever tell your students that the word at hand has this meaning only.**



This way, you will confine their thinking, and consequently bad language learning habits might develop. Hence, language learners' minds should be, right from the beginning, open to a wide range of possibilities. Take, for example, words like 'spring', 'set', 'can', 'post', 'pound', 'stamp', and 'fire'. How many meanings do these words have in your reckoning? Consult your dictionary or check them online at:

<http://dictionary.cambridge.org>

□ **Don't use ARABIC TRANSLATION when you have many other appropriate techniques for conveying meaning.** This does not mean that using Arabic is a crime! Sometimes using Arabic strengthens the meaning and helps with retention. I remember that some teachers in the past used to teach their students how to use mnemonics in Arabic to help them to easily recall the meaning of certain English words (e.g., using the Arabic equivalent of the word 'elephant' which is pronounced 'feel' in a meaningful context to introduce the English verb, 'feel', and thus saying in Arabic: "If an elephant/FEEL presses my leg, I will FEEL with much pain!"). In his thesis that was conducted within the Egyptian context, Hassanein (2004) elaborated on the effectiveness of these mnemonic strategies on developing English vocabulary retention and retrieval. However, try other techniques that might help your students understand and learn the new word in English. This might be better if you want to create an English context in the classroom that allows for more language practice.

**-Do not write any Arabic synonyms on the Board.**

Try to use Arabic orally rather than in writing, unless you are dealing with translation exercises.

**-You can use more than one technique at the same time for teaching a new**



---

**word.**

Teachers should be flexible and open in this regard. Sometimes you find yourself using dramatization along with another technique like drawing to communicate the meaning of an action word like ‘wait’.

**New words should be taught communicatively and contextually.**

This brings back again the listing technique mentioned above. According to the communicative approach to language teaching, new words should be taught communicatively in context while the teacher is using them in simulated life situations, and then allowing students to practise these words. In this regard, you should create situations for your students in which they can use the new words purposefully and pragmatically. For example, they should use the target language for accomplishing realistic communicative/functional goals like: expressing opinion, talking about likes/dislikes, suggesting something or responding to a suggestion made, presenting a new idea, etc. (see also Abdallah, 2010a).

□ **Help your students to develop effective ways for retaining new vocabulary such as creating semantic networks.**

A semantic network consists of words which share certain semantic features or components (e.g., being mass media components, being members of the family, being tools used in the classroom, being Internet-related stuff, etc.). A famous activity related to semantic networks is ‘Find/Spot the odd one out!’ in which a group of similar words belonging to the same category are given and which includes ONE word that is different in a sense. Learners are asked to identify this word and indicate the reason why it is different.

**Steps Used for Teaching New Vocabulary**

There are different points of view regarding the order of those steps to be used





---

by the teacher for teaching new vocabulary, but, whatever this order is, the process should involve the following essential steps:

**1-Modelling the word:** This involves providing a native-like model for your students in terms of: (1) pronunciation (i.e., saying the word); (2) spelling (i.e. writing the word on the Board explaining any spelling rules or difficulties associated with it); and (3) contextualization (i.e., giving several examples to show how the word is used in real context).

**2-Using technique(s) for showing the meaning:** Usually this step is an essential one that every teacher uses when s/he presents a new word. Unfortunately, a lot of Egyptian teachers, owing to time constraints and the great number of the new language items that they have to present in the same lesson sometimes, skip the other steps. However, it is important, especially for EFL student teachers in their teaching practice sessions, to follow all these steps. There are many techniques that can be used to present the meaning of a new English word. ‘Arabic translation’ is mostly used by Egyptian English teachers despite the wide range of the other various techniques available to them (e.g., drawings, miming, facial expressions, gestures, dramatisation, giving synonyms/antonyms in English, and using several examples in context) (see also Nazir, 1998). However, many teachers resort to Arabic translation as if it was the only technique just to save time and effort, disregarding the other useful techniques which might help their students to develop schema or schemata in English. One of the important things that teachers should consider while teaching is to try their best to help their students to THINK in English.



---

**3-Checking students' understanding:** This is very important; otherwise, how else can a teacher know that students have already understood and internalized the target vocabulary? There are many techniques that a teacher can use to check his/her students' understanding such as: (1) asking them to say the meaning in Arabic; (2) asking them to use the target word in a meaningful sentence; and (3) asking them to perform some actions that denote understanding (see also Nazir, 1998).

#### **4-Practice:**

Practising is important for learners to consolidate the new word.

There are many techniques that teachers can use to enable their students to practise the new words. These include: (a) using the same word in different sentences; (b) writing the word on the Board or in a notebook; (c) including the word in the personal Word Journal; (d) checking the word online using free online dictionaries such as: <http://dictionary.cambridge.org>; (e) Googling the word using 'Google Images' to see the resulting images for the target word; and (f) using the new word to produce some meaningful utterances or to accomplish some communicative purposes through interacting with other class mates.

#### **Techniques Used for Showing the Meaning of a New Word**

- There are so many techniques to be used (see below) all of which



---

can be effective. However, a certain technique(s) might be appropriate with a certain word rather than another. For example, which is better to use for presenting the word ‘smile’: definition or facial expressions? Presumably, using ‘facial expressions’ is more suitable here as it is more direct, more time saving, and easier to use and understand than a ‘definition’.

□ *Arabic translation is not the only technique, and teachers should not resort to it once there are some other possible techniques to try.* The principle that should guide the teacher in this regard is "fitness for purpose". In other words, the teacher’s objective(s) and teaching situation should guide him/her while choosing the appropriate technique. If the main teaching method used is a communicative one, not a Grammar-Translation one for example, then more use of the target language (i.e. English), and less use of the native language (i.e. Arabic as the mother tongue) is encouraged. Thus, Arabic translation should be used in a very limited way so that an English context is created.

With certain words, a teacher can use other techniques which may be more effective than Arabic translation. Arabic translation is frequently used with abstract words.

These techniques are used in ONE step (i.e. showing the meaning of the new word). Hence, there is a big difference between the steps/procedures used for teaching new words on one hand, and the techniques/strategies used for presenting



---

the meaning. The first includes the second, and thus, the second is done as one of the steps/procedures of the whole process of teaching new vocabulary. Using different techniques to present new vocabulary.

- The teacher can present the meaning of the new words using a range of possible techniques. In this regard, there are many techniques to use.
  
- The choice of one technique over another depends on some factors such as: (1) the nature of the word (i.e. being concrete vs. abstract or being noun vs. verb); (2) the teacher's abilities and presentation skills; and (3) students' academic levels.

**What are these techniques?** (See also Nazir, 1998)

**- Real objects (realia):**

This is the direct technique that any teacher, if appropriate and applicable, should think of as the first option. According to Edger Dale's Cone of Experience (see Dale, 1969), direct experience or doing/viewing the real thing is the most effective aid for remembering, learning, and comprehension.



---

□ **Outside environment (surroundings):**

This is another level of real objects that involves pointing to visible surroundings existing outside the classroom or school (e.g., playground, headmaster's office, tree, street, flag, factory, farm, people, car, bus, bus stop, etc.)

□ **Definitions:**

These are the dictionary-like accounts that a teacher can give to explain what a word means. I think that all or most of the words used in a definition should be familiar to learners. Otherwise, the technique will not be fruitful. A teacher can copy a definition from an English-English dictionary or an encyclopedia; or s/he can simply check it online using Google definitions, a technique that personally has been so useful for me enabling one to access all the definitions available online. All what s/he should do is to go to [www.google.com](http://www.google.com), and then write in the search bar 'define', followed immediately by a colon, and then the target word/term (e.g., define: cloning). I have just done it and got many definitions, the first of which is: Cloning: a general term for the research activity that creates a copy of some biological entity (a gene or organism or cell).

**- Examples:**

Examples, especially when concrete and realistic, help with clarifying the meaning of a new word. The more these examples are simple, short, direct, and relevant to learners' lives, the more influential they will be.



---

### - Context:

This technique is quite close to ‘examples’, since examples are intended to contextualize the target word to make it meaningful. Teaching new words in isolation is not effective as learners are likely to forget them. Putting the word in a proper, relevant context gives it more significance.

### - Synonyms/Antonyms:

A ‘synonym’ stands for the word/phrase which is equivalent in meaning, while an ‘antonym’ stands for the word/phrase which is opposite in meaning. What is particular about this technique is that it builds on the learner’s knowledge base or his previously known vocabulary. Therefore, a web of connected words can be gradually formed and enhanced within the learner’s mind. However, it is an essential requirement that a teacher should be 100% sure that his/her learners have already studied the words s/he is building on and/or referring to. Otherwise, the technique will do harm rather than good. Examples include: convenient = suitable; sibling = a person’s brother or sister; white ≠ black ; sad ≠happy.

But a teacher should always ensure accuracy by presenting the appropriate synonym/antonym to the target word. As I noticed, the English language, unlike the Arabic language, does not entail clear \_cut boundaries or what I can definitely call a ‘sharp contrast’ between words.



---

For example, here in England, when I ask an English person: ‘How are you?’, s/he always replies: ‘Not so bad, Mahmoud!’ This answer is not roughly equal to: ‘I’m fine’, ‘I’m happy’, or ‘I’m doing very well!’. Similarly, ‘not so hard’ is NOT the same as ‘easy’; ‘cheerful’ or ‘pleased’ is not EXACTLY the same as ‘happy’; ‘bring’ is not the same thing as ‘fetch’; and ‘sad’ is NOT roughly the same as ‘unhappy’ or ‘disappointed’.

#### **- Gestures and Miming:**

They say that the teacher himself/herself is the best teaching aid! Therefore, s/he has to use gestures and miming to explain the meaning of a new word. This is a very good technique as it costs nothing, but a teacher should check understanding to make sure that his/her students understand his/her gestures and miming.

#### **- Dramatization:**

Many teachers are good actors by nature. Therefore, they have to exploit this natural gift in their teaching in general, and in showing the meaning in particular. A teacher can make use of other students while dramatizing if this will be beneficial in some way or another.

#### **- Actions:**



---

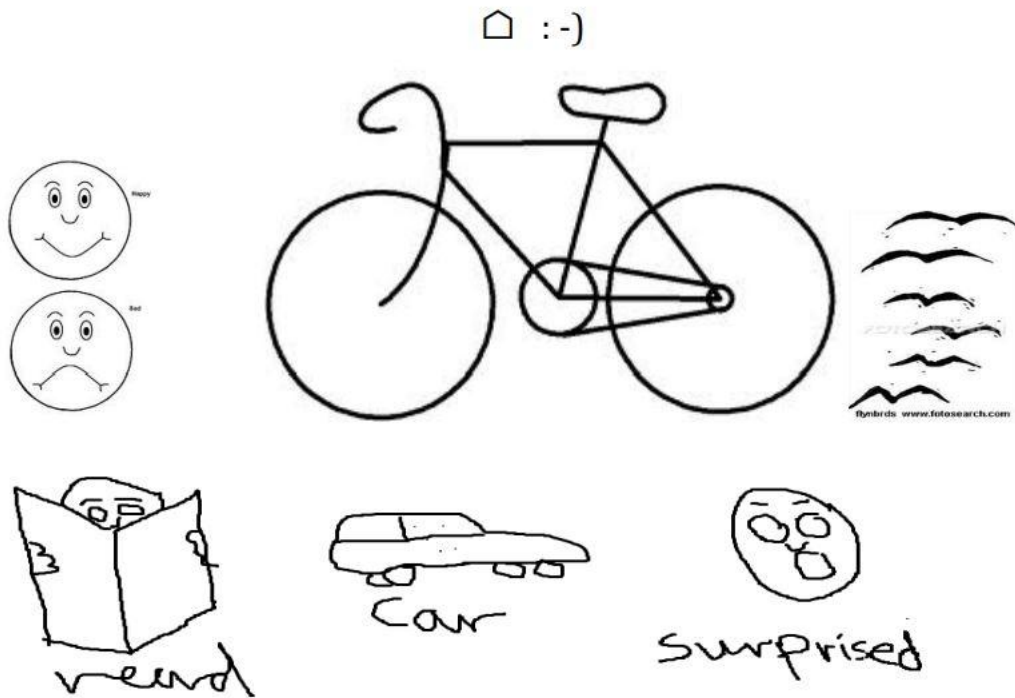
Actions might be used to show the meaning of many words like action verbs (e.g., draw, run, jump, walk, move, etc.). If a teacher is too shy to do this, especially within the Egyptian socio-cultural context, for any reason (e.g., because of gender, disability, and classroom management), s/he can whisper to a student in Arabic to act this.

**- Drawings:**

Drawing on the Board is a good technique that is commonly used. Simple drawings that show the main features of something are enough, and hence, the teacher does not have to be a gifted artist or painter to do this. Figure 2 below presents examples of some simple drawings that any teacher can do.



Figure 2: Examples of simple drawings



### -Pictures:

Pictures would save time and effort for the teacher as they are already there. Nowadays, it is easy to locate any pictures online using the Google Image service. If a computer and/or Internet connection are not available in the classroom, the teacher can use instead traditional paper-based pictures already there, for example, in books, magazines, wall charts, and newspaper. Sometimes pictures are more effective than drawing, especially when the teacher is not so



---

good at drawing. Besides, they might show clearly some needed complicated and necessary details.

□ **Arabic translation:**

This is a technique that is mostly resorted to when previous techniques fail or become inappropriate. Usually, Arabic translation is used to explain the meaning of abstract and

complicated English words such as: policy, honesty, pragmatism, stressful, and meaningful. Sometimes, the meaning of a word becomes clearer and more precise when conveyed in the native language, especially for beginners. At advanced levels and when learners have mastered a great number of words and developed a sense of the English language, using English to present the meaning of such words might be much more appropriate and useful.



---

## Introducing the Main Language skills

like any other language, the English language includes four main language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Each of these skills has its own set of sub-skills. However, things are not so evident and straightforward as they might seem. I have noticed that linguists have attempted many classifications of these skills from different perspectives. In this regard, the four skills were divided into two main categories **active skills (which include speaking and writing)** and **passive skills (which include listening and reading)**. This division is based on how active the person's performance and mental processes are while using a certain skill; thus, a person is assumed to be totally passive while s/he is listening or reading doing nothing more than deciphering or decoding the language content s/he receives; on the other hand, s/he is assumed to be active during speaking and writing, making use of all his/her mental abilities to produce a linguistic content, either orally or in writing.

Unfortunately, this classification is quite inaccurate and incomprehensive since in reality the person is not totally passive while s/he is listening or reading; his/her mental abilities are always in action since s/he is supposed to **comprehend** the target content s/he is listening to or reading, and sometimes gives feedback, comments, and/or interferes to correct something or take notes.

Therefore, a new alternative classification from a different perspective came to the fore: dividing the four language skills into **receptive** skills (i.e., listening and



---

reading) and **productive** skills (i.e. speaking and writing). I think this classification sounds more accurate as it draws on the person's dominant performance while using a certain skill. In this sense, a receptive skill is not an equivalent to a passive skill; a receptive skill can be active in a way or another.

Sometimes the language skills are classified in terms of **communication channels** into oral skills (i.e. listening and speaking, both of which rely on the **oral** channel), and written skills (i.e. reading and writing, which rely on the **written** channel).

Current trends in language teaching are trying to minimize these artificial and superficial boundaries and divisions. In theory, such divisions might be acceptable at a conceptual level. In practice, however, it is hard to isolate in the teaching/learning situation the language skills into discrete units or entities and assume that they can stand separate from each other. For example, in speaking exercises, it is impossible not to utilize (and sometimes develop) the listening skill. Oral interactions between teacher and students or among students themselves depend greatly on their ability to listen carefully and pay attention to what is being said before/while speaking.

Thus, an integrative approach that treats the four language skills as connected to (and independent on) each other, is currently dominant. According to this approach, the language teacher should utilise and develop the four language skills in concert so that learners use them coherently and flexibly without feeling with any boundaries or dichotomies. This approach is also known as the holistic approach: an approach to language teaching which seeks to focus on language in its entirety rather than breaking it down into separate components, such as reading, listening, and writing (Richards & Schmidt, 2002).



---

## **Listening as a Skill**

As a language skill, listening is so significant. The human baby spends considerable time hearing the surrounding voices (i.e. the silent period) till it is able to speak or do anything else. What is particular about listening, as Rost (2009) argues, is that it is not only a skill area in language performance, but is also a critical means of acquiring a second or foreign language. Moreover, it is the channel in which we process language in real time – employing pacing, units of encoding and pausing that are unique to spoken language.

Listening as a skill is not always passive or receptive; it is, on the contrary, an active and creative skill (Rivers, 1981: p160). The reason is that in order to comprehend the sounds falling on our ears, we take the raw material of words, arrangements of words, and the rise and fall of the voice, and from this material we create a significance. Of course there is a meaning in the linguistic arrangement that the speaker has already produced (i.e. the speaker's meaning), but significance is in the mind of the listener (i.e. how the listener processes and comprehends the spoken content). This implies, as I think, that there is a subjective part of the listening skill that depends on the listener himself/herself, which is more important than the seemingly objective utterance which might seem the same if, for example, it is tape-recorded.

Therefore, listening is a complicated skill that includes many overlapping components: a linguistic component, a communicative component, a mental component, a social component, and a cultural component. It is described as a goal-oriented activity that involves 'bottom-up' processing, in which listeners attend to data in the incoming speech signals, and 'top-down' processing, in which



---

listeners utilize prior knowledge and expectations to create meaning (Rost, 2009: p7). Thus, in psycholinguistic terms (see also Rivers, 1981), there are many mental processes that go on inside a learner's mind during listening. These processes are represented in:

- ♣ Recognizing **speech patterns and phonological features** (e.g., intonation, stress, falling and rising tone), and employing these in understanding an utterance.
  - ♣ Conducting **information processing** by, for example, **transferring** selected parts of the auditory input stored in the short-term memory to the long-term memory before they are lost, to facilitate **retention**.
  - ♣ **Recognising vocabulary**, which involves understanding the **key words** that should help with getting the main message.
  - ♣ **Matching** the new linguistic input with the already existing **knowledgebase** , and activating any relevant prior knowledge with the aim of **encoding** and comprehending this new input.
  - ♣ **Working out the main message** and the **overall meaning** from the utterance by **summarizing** it and focusing on the most important bits only since it is hard for a listener to remember every word that was said.
  - ♣ In extracting significance, a listener has to make many bridging **inferences** which help him/her to understand the **logic of the sequence**. This involves being able to recognize logical connectives and relational words (e.g., **because of, since, and there**)
- Thus, it is quite evident that all main skills such as listening are divided into



some sub-skills. According to the official BBC teaching English website (<http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/knowledge-wiki/sub-skills>), those sub-skills are behaviors that language users do in order to be effective in the main skill. Reviewing some websites (e.g., <http://miguelbengoa.com/elt/?p=86>), I found a reasonable number of listening sub-skills which sound consistent with the mental processes discussed above:

1. **Deducing meaning** and **use** of unfamiliar lexical items through understanding **word formation and contextual clues** in utterances and spoken text.
2. **Recognizing and understanding phonological features** of speech [especially those forms associated with supra-segmental features].
3. **Understanding relationships within the sentence:** the syntactic and morphological forms characteristic of spoken language.
4. **Understanding relationships between parts of text and utterances** through cohesive devices [especially grammatical cohesive devices such as reference].
5. **Understanding relationships between parts of text by recognizing discourse markers** [especially for transition and conclusion of ideas, for anticipation of objections or contrary views and for turn-taking].
6. **Understanding the communicative function** and value of utterances with and without explicit markers [e.g., definition and exemplification].
7. **Understanding conceptual meaning** in spoken text and utterances [e.g., comparison, degree, cause & effect, result, and audience & purpose].



- 
8. **Understanding attitudinal meaning** in spoken text and utterances [especially ability to recognize the speaker's attitude towards the listener and the topic by intonation].
  9. **Identifying the main points** or important information in discourse [especially through vocal underlining and verbal cues].
  10. **Distinguishing main ideas from supporting detail** [the whole & its parts, fact & opinion, statement & example, and proposition & argument].
  11. **Understanding explicitly stated ideas** and information.
  12. **Understanding ideas and information in spoken text** and utterances which are not explicitly stated [e.g., through making inferences].
  13. **Interpreting spoken text** by going outside information in the text to information not contained in the text.
  14. **Transferring and transforming information** in speech to diagrammatic display [e.g., through completing a diagram, table, or chart].
  15. **Skimming**: listening to obtain the **gist** of spoken text.
  16. **Scanning**: listening for **specific details** in spoken text.
  17. **Note-taking** from spoken text:
    - Extracting salient points to summarize specific idea or topic in text.
    - Selectively extracting relevant key points from text .





- 
- Reducing text through rejection of redundant or irrelevant items or information [e.g., determiners, repetition, compression of examples, use of abbreviations, and use of symbols denoting relationships between states or processes].

### **Stages of Comprehension**

Rivers (1981: p157) identifies several stages which any student learning a new language should go through. On first contact, utterances strike students' ears as a stream of undifferentiated noises. The more they listen, the more the students gradually perceive some order in the noise. As they learn some of the arbitrary occasions of the target language (e.g., vocabulary, verb groups, and simple expressions), they begin to distinguish the phonic and syntactic patterning (which is not yet comprehension).

Later on, language learners pass through a stage when they recognize familiar elements in the mass of speech without being able to recognize the interrelationships within the whole stream of sound (not yet full comprehension). At this stage they feel as if they are walking in a fog where they sometimes see clearly and, at other times, things around become obscure.

As they hear much speech in the new language, they acquire facility in recognising the crucial elements which determine the message. They are aided in this by their growing knowledge of syntax, which enables them to chunk the language, that is to group elements into coherent segments, thus reducing the processing loads. At this more advanced stage, they may recognize the essentials of the message, but not be able to remember what they have



recognized simply because of their inability to concentrate their attention on the crucial elements of the message long enough.

## **Teaching Listening**

### **Introduction**

As far as teaching listening is concerned, listening as a language skill was not given much focus due to the dominance of the written mode as the standard format of presenting a foreign language. However, later on, linguists started to realise the important role that listening plays in language acquisition. Gradually, the spoken language was gaining ground as a means of foreign language learning. In particular, Bloomfield (1942) declared that “one learns to understand and speak a language primarily by hearing and imitating native speakers”. This great focus on the listening skill was clearly evident in the development of the audio-lingual method in the US that draws heavily on the behavioristic approach to learning that was dominant at the time. In contrast to this behaviouristic approach in the US that highlighted imitation and forming habits, there was a growing interest in the United Kingdom in situational approaches. Firth and his contemporaries believed that the ‘context of situation’ – rather than linguistic units themselves – determined the meaning of utterances. This implied that meaning is a function of the situation and cultural context in which it occurs, and that language understanding involved an integration of linguistic comprehension and non-linguistic understanding (Rost, 2009).

Other key influences emerged later in Chomsky’s and Hymes’ works and arguments. Thus, Chomsky’s innatist views (i.e. innatism goes counter to



behaviourism, proposing that the human child possesses innate knowledge of language structure facilitated by an unobservable Language Acquisition Device [LAD] that contains language universals) led to the notion of the meaningmaking mind and the concept of a ‘natural approach’ to language learning. In response to Chomsky’s notion of language competence, Hymes proposed the notion of ‘communicative competence’, stating that what is crucial is not so much a better understanding of how language is structured internally, but a better understanding of how language is used.

The communicative language teaching (CLT) movement viewed listening as an integral part of communicative competence. Listening for meaning became the primary focus, and finding relevant input for the learner assumed greater importance (Rost, 2009: p8).

### **Why to teach/learn listening**

In fact, there are many reasons for teaching listening. For example, Rivers (1981) argues that teaching the comprehension of spoken language is of primary importance if the communication aim is to be achieved. Language learners must be exposed to authentic material including a linguistic input as said by native speakers. The teacher’s voice is OK, but is not sufficient alone to provide the natural sense of the English language. Usually, the Egyptian teacher pronounces English differently and adjusts the linguistic input to suit his/her teaching and his/her students’ learning levels. Unfortunately, this is not the authentic language material that students need to hear. Authentic material usually refers to all those resources that present language as is really and



---

naturally used in its real context without any adjustments made by the teacher to make it simpler and easier (Harmer, 2007).

In this context, Harmer (2007: p133) presents some of the reasons why students should listen to the English language and why teachers should teach listening. These include:

- ♣ Most students need to understand the English they hear and language teachers should do anything to make this possible;
- ♣ Listening is good for students' pronunciation in that the more they hear and understand English being spoken, the more they absorb appropriate pitch and intonation, and also identify how words are pronounced in connected speech; thus, listening texts stand as good pronunciation models.
- ♣ Throughout listening to samples of the English language as used in reality, students can come to grips with the varieties that English takes in Britain as the country of origin.

Moreover, in teaching listening, the teacher can organize the authentic material into meaningful tasks; thus, students will listen to English with a purpose or objective in mind to achieve. Such meaningful, goal-oriented tasks will help students to make sense of the language they hear and exert some efforts to understand the content rather than just focusing on pronunciation and other linguistic features. Such linguistic features are important in their own right, but focusing on them alone without employing them for understanding the main message would not be very useful. Besides, students will be much more focused while listening to a clip, for example, when there is a task to be done, such as



answering a question or writing some conclusions, than when they listen to the same clip just for pleasure.

In brief, the **reasons** for teaching and learning listening can be summarized in the following points:

- ♣ Language learners should be exposed to authentic language material that includes examples of how language is used in real contexts.
- ♣ Learners should feel with the natural sense of the target language and develop the communication skills necessary for acquiring and learning it.
- ♣ Learners need to listen to models of the target language as it is really uttered by native speakers, which might in turn help them with improving their pronunciation.
- ♣ Learners need to be trained on how to understand the overall message of specific auditory segments, and hence on how to develop comprehension as an essential component of the listening activity.
- ♣ Learners need to hear complete and continuous segments of the target language without any interruptions and/or adjustments made by the teacher.

### **How to teach listening**

Reviewing literature in the field (e.g., Harmer, 2007; Nunan, 1991; Rivers, 1981; Rost, 2009), I came out with some **principles** that should act as guidelines for English language teachers while teaching listening:

- ♣ If listening materials are not included in the formal textbooks, the teacher should be able to carefully select the appropriate input sources (which must be



---

authentic) that suit his/her teaching purposes and his/her learners' levels, and present them effectively.

- ♣ Listening tasks should be designed creatively; they should be wellstructured, enabling opportunities for learners to activate their own knowledge and monitor what they are doing.

- ♣ Listening should be integrated with other learning purposes, and linked appropriately with speaking, reading, and writing.

- ♣ Listening instruction should resemble real-life listening in which the listener builds a sense of purpose, and where a listener's response is necessary.

- ♣ Listening activities should go through three main phases: pre-, while-, and post-listening phases.

- ♣ The teacher should encourage students to listen as often and as much as possible and direct them to the useful resources (e.g., online clips and CDs); the more students listen, the better they get at listening.

- ♣ The teacher should help students to prepare to listen by asking them, for example, to look at pictures, discuss the topic, and/or predict what will happen; this way, students become engaged with the topic and the task at hand.

- ♣ The teacher should encourage students to respond to the content of listening, not just to the language.

- ♣ The teacher should set different tasks for different listening stages since there are different things we might want to do with a listening text. For example, for a first listening, the task(s) should be fairly straightforward and general so that



students' general understanding and response can be successful. After all, it will be the teacher's job to make the full use of the text at hand.

♣ The teacher should play the audio track or say the script more than once so that students hear it again to pick up the things they missed the first time, and study some of the language features that the audio segment or clip might include. The first listening to a text is usually used just to give students an idea of what the speakers sound like, and what the general topic is so that subsequent listenings become easier for them. For subsequent listenings, the audio track might be stopped at various points, or only extracts from it are played (see Harmer, 2007: p135).

### **A communicative model for teaching listening**

Now that communicative language teaching (CLT) is currently the dominant approach for teaching English as a foreign language, I will present here a model based on CLT and which is usually used in main stream education in Egypt. This model is composed of three main stages: **the pre-listening** stage, **the while-listening** (or actual-listening) stage, and the **post-listening** stage. During the three stages, the teacher should consider the main principles/guidelines stated above and try his/her best to help his/her students to achieve the full benefit of the listening activity or task at hand.

#### **a) The pre-listening stage**



---

This is the stage that precedes playing the audio clip or saying the text, the main goal of which is to introduce students to the task and prepare them well before they are exposed to the listening material. Thus, the teacher should:

♣ **Warm-up** students and **familiarize** them with **the topic** of the clip by talking generally about it and/or developing a short informal discussion among students (even in Arabic). If there are pictures in the textbook related to the task, the teacher can ask some questions to get students to understand what it is all about (e.g., What do you see in the pictures? Why do you think...? How many...are there in ...? etc.).

♣ **Introduce** any necessary or difficult language items that might help students to understand the clip.

♣ **Explain the task** by stating clearly (in simple and straightforward language) what exactly students are going to do while listening. The teacher should make sure that students understand what they are supposed to do. In this regard, s/he can check understanding, even in Arabic, to ensure that all students know what to do; otherwise, the task will be meaningless and insignificant. For example, the teacher can talk like this:

Now you're going to listen to a conversation between two English friends who are preparing for a visit to Egypt. I'd like you to look at the map while listening to circle the city or place which both of them agree to visit. Please listen carefully to tell me the names of those places after I stop the recorder.





---

♣ **State any specific instructions** related to the task, such as whether you want your students to work individually, in pairs, or in small groups, and whether they will listen to the segment just once or more.

**b) The while-listening (actual-listening) stage**

This is the stage when the students are directly exposed to the audio clip without any interference or interruption from the teacher. But this does not mean that the teacher should go out of the classroom till the clip ends. Instead, the teacher has to do many things such as:

♣ **Playing the clip or recorder** (or saying the script if no recorder is used), making sure that students are listening to the right clip, and stopping it when it is over;

♣ **Checking, monitoring, and going around** to make sure that students are doing the task properly.

♣ **Keeping an eye-contact** with students and monitoring their reactions.

**c) The post-listening stage**

During this stage the teacher gets the main outcomes out of the task. This involves getting students to speak up and say their answers. In particular, the teacher should:



- 
- ♣ Get students to **answer the pre-listening questions**, for example, or read any specific conclusions that they have made during listening.
  - ♣ **Play the audio clip again**, if necessary, to reinforce some details or ideas, or to teach specific items.
  - ♣ Ask students to **summarize** the clip and tell their **personal impressions** about it.
  - ♣ **Discuss** with students how the task might have **added to their knowledge** or helped them with improving their English.
  - ♣ **Guide students into similar audio clips** available online (e.g., at [www.youtube.com](http://www.youtube.com)) and which they might employ for further extensive listening exercises that they can do independently and informally at home at their own convenience.



---

## Chapter three

### Teaching Speaking

[Link to Video](#)

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LB8YK9P3e3o>

#### **Introducing Speaking and Oral Communication**

For most people, mastering the art of speaking is the single most important aspect of learning a second or foreign language, and success is usually measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the target language (Nunan, 1991: p39). Unfortunately, speaking is a neglected skill in the Egyptian English classes. The main reason for that lies in the fact that English language tests are always written tests that do not include oral components; there are no oral tests in English in the mainstream education for assessing students' speaking and oral communication skills. The main problem here is that the classroom is usually the only place where Egyptian students speak English, and only if their English teachers encourage them to do so. Being a non-English speaking country, the Egyptian social context does not provide any opportunities for students to practice or speak English outside the classroom. This is very discouraging to students since they find no reason at all for learning English as a foreign language (Abdallah, 2010a).

In this regard, Shumin (1997: p11) argues that since most EFL learners learn the target language in their own culture, practice is available only in the



---

classroom. So, a key factor in L2 or foreign language development is the opportunities given to learners to speak in the target language. Teachers must arouse in the learners a willingness, need, and/or reason to speak. Therefore, Rivers (1981: p188) regards speaking as a skill which is more demanding on the teacher than any other language skill. Therefore, she advises teachers to give their students many opportunities to practice speaking.

Communication is a vital process which plays a very important role in our life. This process is not peculiar to human beings only; animals and all other living beings are able to communicate, but in their own ways to achieve their own purposes and satisfy their particular needs. This implies that life will be impossible without communication. Unlike all other living beings, humans have developed through speaking a linguistic system to make communication possible. Oral communication, along with other paralinguistic features that help with conveying the message, was used very early in the human history of development to exchange certain messages (Redmond, 2000).

Thus, as I argued elsewhere (Abdallah, 2010a), as human beings, we have our own ways of communication: we are able to speak and express ourselves orally. We have many languages which we can use to communicate orally, in addition to a non-verbal language system which is very common among us no matter how different we are from each other. In this regard, human communication is known as

*a special form of communication that occurs between and among people. The connection made among humans through communication involves the use of*



---

*spoken symbolic language – the words we speak – as well as nonverbal cues such as gestures, facial expressions, and tone of voice (Redmond, 2000, p6).*

Communication in a foreign language, either orally or in writing, is the ultimate goal of teaching it. It is a skill that students are supposed to master to achieve certain goals. In this regard, it is both an end in itself and a means towards an end. Students are required to express themselves in the target language so as to reflect their understanding of the comprehensible input they are exposed to by the teacher. This process could be a problem with the students who are studying English as a foreign language. Those students need to master some speaking skills that enable them to both pronounce accurately and communicate functionally.

In our everyday life, we communicate for many reasons. In a general sense, we normally communicate in order to satisfy needs, gain information, manage relationships, derive pleasure and entertainment, get self-validation, coordinate, and manage tasks, and persuade and gain something from others (Redmond, 2000, pp8-10). This brings to me an important distinction that we should always make between speaking or oral communication as a phonological skill, and speaking as a functional skill. In this sense, if a teacher wants his/her students to master the phonological speaking skills, then s/he needs to focus on the linguistic level of pronouncing words and saying them correctly. This is usually done at an early stage of language learning. On the other hand, if the functional speaking skills are his/her main focus, then s/he should focus on the communicative level of speaking that goes beyond the linguistic level and which includes the oral survival functions of the language, such as: asking and



---

answering questions, giving opinions, giving oral presentations, making suggestions and responding to suggestions made, etc. (Abdallah, 2010a).

In the communication process, we speak in order to convey the message that we have, and in this way, we encode a message. Simultaneously, we expect the listener to interpret or decode this message. This way, we frame our message and select the linguistic elements to express it so as to arouse in the receiver the meaning we are trying to convey (Rivers, 1981: p221).

Recently, the way through which speaking is looked upon has changed a lot. Scholars have begun to focus on the functional aspects of speaking. This has led to expanding the definition of speaking to involve the functional and communicative aspects. Thus, there has been a trend that focuses on communication activities that reflect a variety of settings: one-to-many, small group, one-to-one, and mass media. Another approach has been to focus on using communication to achieve specific purposes: to inform, to persuade, and to solve problems. A third trend has been to focus on basic competencies needed for everyday life, such as giving directions, asking for information, or providing basic information in an emergency situation (Mead & Rubin, 1985).

Elsewhere (Abdallah, 2010a), I delineated the relationship between communication and the speaking skill as follows:

- ♣ Speaking is a means through which communication takes place.
- ♣ In the communication process there is a message to be conveyed by someone to another. This message can be conveyed by speaking.



- 
- ♣ By speaking, we form the message to be communicated in a linguistically valid way that can be understood by others.
  - ♣ Communication is always involved in and related to the main four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
  - ♣ In teaching English as a foreign language, we develop the students' speaking ability to the point at which they can concentrate on the message rather than on the code so as to make them communicate meaningfully in English.
  - ♣ The speaking skill involves more than the superficial learning of grammar and patterns of the language. To be able to speak involves the ability to use the language system for the purpose of communication (Reid, 1977: p33).
  - ♣ Speaking is sometimes used functionally to achieve realistic communicative purposes and needs.

The Internet or the Web has been recently influencing language communication by enabling two modes of communication: synchronous communication, enabled by tools such as chat rooms, and asynchronous communication, enabled by tools, such as e-mail. Synchronous communication takes place while people are simultaneously online, as it requires the presence of all participants at the same time during the communication process. Asynchronous communication, on the other hand, occurs when online interaction does not happen simultaneously between two parties (Pritchard, 2004: p10; Warschauer et al, 2000). Each mode has its own advantages and disadvantages. For example, though the synchronous mode allows for a live language and direct



interaction with native speakers, it does not allow for the reflection that the asynchronous mode enables.

### **Speaking as a Skill**

I can confidently conclude from the above discussion that speaking, like listening, is a **complicated** skill because it involves many processes and components which work together when a person talks. Speaking involves many overlapping aspects: **pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, cohesion, accuracy, and fluency**. In addition to the linguistic components, it includes other components or elements that give it specific shape as a language skill; it involves other social, psychological, paralinguistic, and cultural components. The social aspect of speaking is apparent when we deal with another one who may have a different social or cultural background. Therefore, when we define speaking, we should not restrict ourselves to the linguistic component which constitutes only small part of the speaking process. Moreover, we should think of which type of speaking we mean: for example, do we mean by it the mere pronunciation and accurate oral production of words, phrases, and/or sentences, or the **social interaction** with others that involves functional communication with realistic purposes in mind? In this regard, Rivers(1981: p186) stresses the fact that an act of speech involves more than knowledge of the code. It involves the selection of integrated patterns of elements of the code for the expression of an intention, and the assembling of the necessary features without hesitation. Keeping all these elements in mind, Florez (1999) defines speaking





---

There are many sub-skills that can be included under the main speaking skill. These sub-skills (see also <http://miguelbengoa.com/elt/?p=62>) can be represented in the following:

1. **Producing segmental features** of English at **word level** (e.g., vowel and consonant sounds, and stressed and unstressed syllables).
2. **Using supra-segmental features** of English (e.g., intonation, stress in sentences, word-linking, and weak forms) accurately in spoken utterances.
3. **Expressing grammatical relationships** in spoken utterances at the level of the sentence.
4. **Expressing relationships between parts of a spoken utterance** through cohesive devices (especially grammatical cohesion such as noun-pronoun reference).
5. **Using markers** in spoken discourse (e.g., introducing an idea, developing an idea, transition to another idea, concluding an idea, emphasizing a point to indicate important information, explaining or clarifying a point already made, and anticipating an objection or a contrary view).
6. **Sustaining communicative dialogue** with and without explicit markers.
7. **Expressing conceptual meaning** in spoken utterances.
8. **Expressing attitudinal meaning** in spoken text and utterances (especially by intonation).
9. **Marking the main points** or important information in spoken text and utterances (especially through emphasis or vocal underlining and through verbal cues).



10. **Expressing information or knowledge** in informal and semi-formal utterances.

11. **Planning and organizing information** in formal expository discourse (e.g., oral narrative and oral description of phenomena or ideas).

From a **functional** perspective, speaking (as an oral communication process) involves some sub-skills that are necessary for **survival** and getting along with others. These include (see also Abdallah, 2010a):

- ♣ Expressing one's opinion and communicating it to others.
- ♣ Responding to others' suggestions and opinions.
- ♣ Convincing others of something.
- ♣ Expressing sympathy and concern.
- ♣ Making requests.
- ♣ Responding to requests made.
- ♣ Making an oral presentation to present a new idea or topic.
- ♣ Explaining a difficult point to others.
- ♣ Relating personal experiences.
- ♣ Expressing and rationalizing personal attitudes.
- ♣ Correcting someone's mistakes.
- ♣ Rephrasing and revising an utterance to make it easier and simpler.



- 
- ♣ Sharing useful ideas and discoveries with others.
  - ♣ Discussing a topic with others.
  - ♣ Summarizing something such as a lecture, a talk, or a story to communicate the main idea (gist) to others.

### **Speaking Fostered by New Technologies**

New technologies have recently enabled new channels for oral communication and self expression. The Web, for example, has enabled anyone to upload any material online. Some people would be interested in sharing their viewpoints and experiences through social networking websites such as YouTube and Facebook. They can easily record videos for themselves and upload them easily online so that the whole world can watch them. This makes them focused on what they are saying and doing to get their message across, and consequently, they can improve their speaking ability. Moreover, the chat software enables language learners to communicate synchronously with native speakers. Throughout this communication, they can imitate those native speakers and do their best to speak clearly. Thus, the Web and other new technologies foster speaking by:

- ♣ Providing **channels** for self-expression.
- ♣ Exposing language learners to **authentic** audio and video material that they can imitate.
- ♣ Enabling them to contact native speakers.



- ♣ Enabling them to **share** useful **ideas** with others.
- ♣ Helping them to **understand** their **mistakes** and form good **speaking habits**.

## How to Teach Speaking

### Why to teach speaking

According to Harmer (2007) and Thornbury (2005), there are many reasons for teaching speaking which can be summarized in the following points:

- ♣ Speaking activities provide **rehearsal opportunities** (i.e. chances to practice real-life speaking in the classroom).
- ♣ Speaking tasks in which students **employ** any or all of the **language** they know **provide feedback** for both teacher and students.
- ♣ The more students have opportunities to **activate** the various elements of language they have stored in their brains, the **more automatic** their use of these elements become.
- ♣ Students are more likely to **internalize** and **improve** the target language if they are provided with **purposeful speaking** tasks/activities that go further than controlled language practice and the linguistic, phonological aspects.
- ♣ Students tend to **feel confident** about themselves while they are **speaking** the target language and expressing themselves in real situations.
- ♣ The **classroom** (as in Egypt) might be the **only place** where students might **speak** the target language, and therefore, the language teacher should **provide**



---

**opportunities** for students to **speak up** and **use** the language to accomplish realistic goals.

♣ Because the four language skills are practically connected together, **speaking activities usually improve other language skills**, such as listening and writing, and help students to activate their language input and think in English.

♣ Usually, the language learner's **mental abilities and thinking skills become highly active** while speaking since s/he becomes more focused and keen to exploit the maximum mental power to **produce** an acceptable utterance.

♣ Finally, speaking enables language learners to put all things together and practice the target language by exploiting vocabulary, grammar, and any language aspects they have already learned.

### **Speaking activities**

There are many **activities** that can be used in the classroom to develop speaking. In this context, Nunan (1991: pp51-52) suggests some **concrete** speaking activities that can be used in the classroom with **lower** proficiency learners. For me, they can be described as controlled activities in which language learners are given models or cues to guide them into producing certain outcomes. These activities include:

♣ Reading question cues and making up questions.

♣ Studying a substitution table and making up sentences accordingly.

♣ Reading a model dialogue and having a similar conversation using cues provided.



- 
- ♣ Looking at a picture and studying model sentences to make up similar sentences about a similar picture.
  - ♣ Listening to an interview, and then asking and answering.

Other more advanced activities (see Harmer, 2007) include:

- **Role play:** In this activity, the teacher assigns roles for students to play.

This might involve writing a script for students to perform. This script usually includes some language functions or expressions that students should use while they are acting real-life situations. During the activity, the teacher should write notes without interfering with the flow of conversation. In this regard, it is not a good idea to interrupt and correct students' errors/mistakes. In most cases, the main focus here is on fluency more than on accuracy. Therefore, the teacher should tolerate students' mistakes till the end of the activity. Later on, s/he can discuss with them any grammatical and/or lexical issues and re-teach certain aspects when necessary.

- **Discussion:** Generally speaking, discussion, whether spontaneous or planned, has the great advantage of provoking fluent language use (Harmer, 2007: p128). It is important to give students **pre-discussion** rehearsal time by, for example, dividing them into small groups to explore the discussion topic before organizing a discussion with the whole class. There should be an objective (or some objectives) guiding a discussion (e.g., By the end of the discussion, students should state the reasons why the world has become an awful place, or give their predictions for the future of mankind with the vast developments in



Information and Communication Technologies). It is sometimes important to set a purpose for the discussion to turn it into a goal-oriented activity that keeps students focused all the time. However, free/informal discussions are sometimes useful as they provide a more relaxing environment where students are able to use the language freely without feeling with pressure.

- **Information-gap activities:** When two persons have different information that they need to exchange so as to complete the whole picture, this is called 'information gap'. This 'gap' that exists between them should motivate them to talk with each other. For example, in pairs students each look at a picture which is very similar (though they do not know this) to the one their partner has. They have to find, say, ten differences between their pictures without showing their pictures to each other. This means that they will have to do a lot of describing (and questioning and answering) to find the differences (Harmer, 2007: p129).
- **Telling stories:** Telling stories in the target language is a very important activity. Normally, all people like to tell stories or listen to others' stories, but in their native language. The teacher can draw on this by asking students to tell stories of things that happened to them in the past. Further, the teacher can encourage students to invent stories based on given cues or drawings. Also, the teacher can ask them to **re-tell** famous stories in their own ways.
- **Balloon debate:** A group of students are in the basket of a balloon which is losing air. Only one person can stay in the balloon and survive



---

(the others have to jump out). Individual students representing famous characters (Napoleon, Ghandi, Cleopatra, etc.) or professions (teacher, doctor, lawyer, etc.) have to argue why they should be allowed to survive (Harmer, 2007: p131).

- **Favorite objects:** This activity is another way of getting students to tell stories. However, the stories here are very personal and are connected with one's personal life and the objects s/he prefers. Students are encouraged to think about how they would describe their favorite objects in terms of when they got them, why they got them, what they normally do with them, why they are so important to them, and whether there are any stories associated with them. In groups, they then tell each other about their objects, and the groups tell the class about which was the most unusual/interesting, etc. in their group (Harmer, 2007: p130).
- **Oral presentations:** This activity can be described as an advanced one since it might need advanced skills in the target language. Here individual students give a talk on a given topic. Students should be given sufficient time to prepare themselves, and gather/structure all necessary data. Students are guided into identifying the core components of an oral presentation (i.e. introduction, body, and conclusion) and that a presentation can be supported with some aids and illustrations. The rest of students listening to the student presenting something should be given some kind of listening tasks, such as giving feedback (see also Harmer, 2007: p130).





---

## The teacher's role during the speaking activities

The teacher's role is very important during the speaking activities. He should:

- ♣ Be a **guide on the side** and not a **sage on the stage**.
- ♣ **Facilitate** interactions without dominating them.
- ♣ **Organize** interactions and write scripts.
- ♣ **Monitor** students' performance and write notes
- ♣ **Give feedback** to help students to improve their future performance.
- ♣ **Re-teach** certain aspects if necessary based on weaknesses observed in his/her notes.
- ♣ **Intervene sometimes** when the activity does not go smoothly.
- ♣ **Provide corrections** but only after the activity is over.
- ♣ **Provide** any **tools** (e.g., cards, charts, and objects) necessary for carrying out the activity.

## Main principles and guidelines for teaching speaking

- ♣ Language teachers should consider the fact that **oral language**, because of its circumstances of production, tends to differ from **written language** in its typical



---

grammatical, lexical, and discourse patterns (Bygate, 2009: p14). The implication here is that oral skills and oral language should be **practiced** and **assessed** under **different conditions** from written skills, and therefore teaching should be adjusted accordingly.

♣ Learning to speak in a second or foreign language will be **facilitated** when learners are actively engaged in attempting to communicate.

♣ Both **bottom-up** processes (in which the learner starts from the small fragments and proceeds to the whole) and **top-down** processes (in which the learner starts from the whole thing, and then gradually divide it into smaller segments) are important for speaking, and therefore the teacher should draw on both to help his/her students to speak up and use the language functionally.

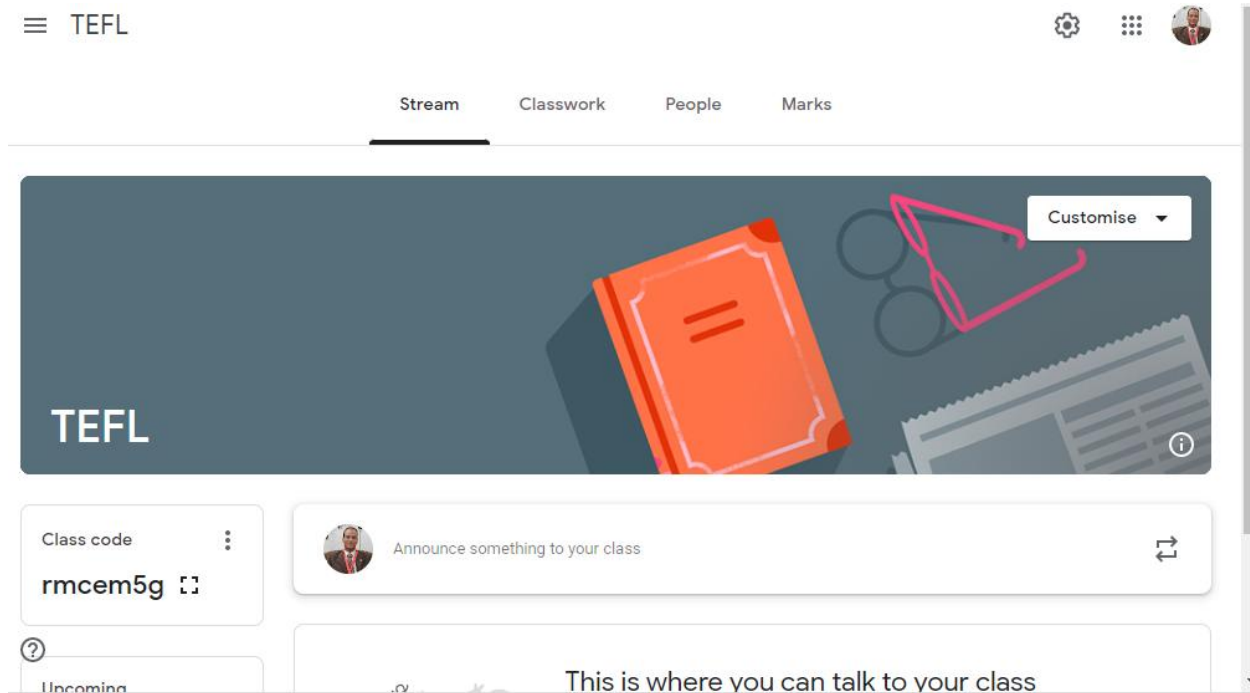
♣ All speaking activities should focus in a **balanced** manner on both **accuracy** and **fluency**. A main focus on accuracy could restrict learners' free production of the target language making them unable to speak naturally, and thus it encourages a less exploratory or fluent use of the language. On the other hand, a main focus on fluency might encourage greater use of formulaic chunks of language, discouraging attention to accuracy (and thus an inaccurate linguistic output will result) and reducing speakers' capacity for processing complex language (see also Bygate, 2009: p17).



## Chapter four

### TEACHING WRITING SKILL

Link:



Writing is an important intellectual and impersonal activity that has emerged out of ‘Rhetoric’ of ancient times. It is a leisurely activity that requires utmost care and concentration. It is permanent unlike speaking which is temporary. The teaching of writing is a complex process involving many activities such as the initial probing into experience, the analysis of it, the listing of items of specific and definable significance, their subsequent organization into a meaningful sequence and finally their expression in language that is both appropriate and competent (Ghosh et al, 1970).



---

The teaching of the mechanics of writing (ie) how to write the letter and how to connect them into words are taken up at the lower levels of teaching. At the higher level, the formation of ideas and couching them in appropriate words and sentences are the focus of writing. In other words, the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of writing are concentrated on. That is why it is said that the smallest unit in writing is paragraph and not the letter, the word, or the sentence. It is mainly because this concept carries with it several assumptions that are interesting and that are essential to understanding what writing is. Firstly, it starts with ‘idea’ and emphasizes fluency in writing as of prime of importance over correctness of sentences and then places its stress on organization of ideas (i.e) coherence and cohesion. This approach to writing is called the ‘process’ approach to writing as opposed to ‘product’ approach which emphasizes the end product of writing.

To illustrate the difference between these two approaches let us take the following topic.

Scientific inventions are a boon to society.

“In the latter approach students will simply be given this topic and asked to write an essay. But in the former approach, they will, first of all, be asked to present all the ideas that come to their mind regarding the topic. Secondly, they will be asked to group the ideas that are related to each other. Thirdly they will be asked to find out suitable words and expressions to cloth those ideas. Fourthly they will be asked to write a rough draft and finally a fair draft effecting all necessary correction in spelling and grammar. Hedge (1988) presents this approach diagrammatically as follows.



---

There are three stages in writing – Pre-writing stage, while writing stage and post-writing stage.

### **Pre-writing stage**

The writer at this stage makes a plan for writing. He analyses the purpose of writing, the needs of the audience or the reader. He thus tries to provide a writing context. White (1987) calls this stage ‘Before writing’ in which the writer brainstorms and tries to generate ideas. The writers are guided by mental constraints of ‘content’ (what to say) and rhetoric (how to say). Content plans capture and organize ideas and mental structures. Rhetorical plans specify the argument and form of the intend text.

### **While-writing stage**

The writer concentrates on ‘what’ and ‘how’ of writing at this stage. It is called the ‘composing’ stage. It is through this process that the writer makes a conscious and creative communication with and through materials to achieve a human effect the reader.

### **Post-writing stage**

Revising and editing of the text takes place at this stage. He makes final adjustments and checks accuracy and appropriateness so that the text may be accessible to the reader. Revising a text involves several processes such as interpreting, contemplating, specifying and editing the text. Interpreting involves reviewing the text as a reader who does not share one’s own perspective. Contemplating means comparing the interpretation against the mental schemes that represent the writer’s intentions. This contemplation leads to specify changes to



---

create a new version of the text that better expresses the intentions. This leads to editing of the text (Sharples, 1999).

Thus, good writing like cooking requires time.

Every teacher of English has to take the students through these stages in writing. He has to choose topics which will be interesting and relevant to the level of students. They should be challenging too. Otherwise, students will not show any interest. So, motivation is the first and the most essential ingredient of teaching writing. Then he should try to accommodate the ideas that come from the students. He should try to explain why he takes a few ideas and reject the rest. That should psychologically prepare the students to participate in the teacher's lesson. Then he should show how ideas are couched in sentences. It is a pain taking exercise. It requires time.

It tests teacher's patience and requires a lot of patience on the part of the teacher. It demands perseverance. Failures, more than successes, are often met and the teacher should know how to treat them as steppingstones to success



---

## Chapter five

### How to Teach Reading

on reading definitions appear in various perspectives, each of which is complimentary, among others: comprehension, interaction of symbols, decoding, mental process, and interactive process. Primarily, reading is a means of communicating information between the writer and the reader. The reader tries to understand ideas that the writer has put in print (Vacca, Vacca, and Gove, 1991). Reading may involve decoding and comprehension process. Decoding process refers to the process of saying printed words into a representation similar to oral language either silently or aloud.

In addition, comprehension is the process of understanding the representation (Carnine, Silbert, and Kameenui, 1990). In decoding, reading is a process of translating graphemic strings into spoken words that occurs ongoing in the beginning of learning to read. The emphasis of reading is on the perceptual process, that is, to familiarize the correspondence of letter strings to the language sound (Adams and Collins, 1985). Reading in this stage may refer to the bottom-up process, that is begun by identifying features of letters, linked to recognize letters, combined to recognize words, and proceeded to sentences, paragraphs, and text level processing (Vacca, Vacca & Gove, 1991).

Reading is not merely sounding the written language into spoken, either orally or silently. Reading is a process of understanding written language (Rumelhart, 1985). Since reading is a process, it starts from viewing the linguistic surface



---

representation and ends with certain ideas or meaning about messages intended by the writer. Thus, reading is the combination of perceptual process and cognitive process.

To comprehend the text a reader needs two kinds of information: visual and non-visual. Visual information is the written information which must be caught by eyes. Non-visual information is the information involving the relevance of language competence, knowledge about the topic being read, and knowledge of the world about reading. Both visual and non- visual information have reciprocal relationships (Smith, 1985).

Reading is an interactive process (Grabe, 1988). It is the process of combining textual information with the information a reader brings to a text. In this view the reading process is not simply a matter of extracting information from the text. Rather, it is one in which the reading activates a range of knowledge in the reader's mind that he or she uses. In this regard, reading is viewed as a kind of dialogue between the reader and the text. Understanding of reading is best considered as the interaction that occurs between the reader and the text, an interpretive process.

### **Reading Comprehension**

Comprehension is making a sense out of text (McNeil, 1992) as the result of interaction between the perception of graphic symbols that represent language and the reader's prior knowledge. Reading comprehension, therefore, is a process of getting information from context and combining disparate elements into a new whole. It is a process of using reader's existing knowledge (schemata) to interpret text in order to construct meaning. Reading involves reader's schemata about the





---

text and reader's ability to identify the text structures to get the meaning of the text comprehensively.

Pearson (1979) admits that reading comprehension involves relating textual information to pre-existing knowledge structures or schemata. The schemata represents and reflects the background knowledge, experiences, conceptual understandings, attitudes, values, skills, and procedures a reader brings to a reading situation (Vacca, Vacca, and Gove, 1991). A reader must activate a meaning of text, a reader must activate a schemata that fits with information from a text. To get meaning of text, a reader must activate the schemata he already possesses.

Reading involves meaning in the transaction between reader and writer. The act of reading is an empty, vacuous event without meaning (comprehension). The text provides cues that help the reader to construct meaning. Meaning is derived from the transaction, which occurs between the writer of the text and the reader. From an interactive point of view, information process is often triggered by the knowledge the reader brought to print. Readers build meaning by connecting new knowledge to knowledge they already possess (Vacca, Vacca and Gove, 1991).

Not only must the readers use background knowledge to comprehend, but they also bring into play knowledge about the text itself. As readers mature, they become more sophisticated in recognizing the ways that text selections are organized in expository and narrative writing. To engage in reading is a meaning activity, readers must search for and find structure in everything they read.



---

## Reading As a Process

Teachers of reading are concerned with the need for direct attention to reading skills. Darrow and Howes (1960:61) suggest five skills the teachers of reading should activate as a means of powerful reading: word recognition, word meaning, comprehension, interpretation, and selection of materials for reading. Skill of word recognition is useful to identify meaning clues, word-form clues, phonetic analysis, and structural analysis. Skill of word meaning includes ability to use dictionary and context clues. Skill of comprehension include to following directions, reproducing thoughts, getting details, getting main ideas, and assimilating ideas. Skill of interpretation requires teacher to making comparison, predicting outcomes, making distinctions, and drawing conclusion. The skill of selecting materials for reading use skimming, locating materials, using indexes and table contents, and discriminating among choices.

Reading needs process that occurs at the word and sentence level as well as at the higher level of paragraphs and larger units of discourse. The reader assigns meaning to the words he sees on the page. He stores these concepts in his working memory, and integrates them into abstract models by combining them with the mental schemata he has constructed previously. The linguistic knowledge involved in these processes includes the semantic, syntactic, and phonological system, which are shared by written language (Contoni-Harvey, 1987).

A beginning reader may at first learn and successfully utilize a considerable number of sight words; however, his process can be greatly facilitated if he becomes efficient in decoding. According to Chall (1979) initial reading approaches that stress sound-symbol correspondences are more effective than those



---

that emphasize meaning (comprehension) rather than decoding. In addition, Perfetti (1985) states that decoding instruction can be helpful to any student who is reluctant to read because he cannot recognize many of the words he sees. Sustained practice in inferring, summarizing, predicting, and other higher-order processes does not eliminate the need for proper attention to the lower-level abilities necessary for processing written information quickly and accurately.

Burns, Roe, and Ross (1984) state eight aspects of reading process. They are

- (1) sensory aspect (the reader must be able to perceive the symbols set before him).
- (2) perceptual aspect (the reader must be able to interpret what he sees as symbols or words).
- (3) sequential aspect (the reader must be able to follow the linear, logical and grammatical patterns of the written words).
- (4) associational aspect (the reader must be able to recognize the relationship between symbols and sounds, words and what they represent).
- (5) experiential aspect (the reader must be able to relate words back to direct experiences to give the words meaning).
- (6) learning aspect (the reader must be able to remember what was learned in the past and incorporate facts and new ideas).
- (7) thinking aspect (the reader must be able to make inferences from and evaluate the material read).
- (8) affective aspect (it deals with the personal interest and attitudes of the reader that affect the task of reading).



---

The aspects of the reading process combine to produce the reading product.

The product of reading is the communication of thought and emotions by the writer to the reader. The reader attempts to understand the ideas that the writer has encoded in the printed page (Burns, Roe, Ross, 1984). The product of reading involves decoding and comprehension. Decoding is translating the printed words into a representation similar to oral language either silently or aloud. The reader says the words orally or silently. Comprehension is the understanding of the representation of the printed words. The reader knows and understands the meaning of the words decoded. Success of decoding and comprehension is much influenced by the eight aspects of the reading process.

## **READING MODELS**

Reading models are indicated by two basic theories of psycholinguistics models and schema theory models. The psycholinguistics models proposed by Goodman put their framework on the perceptual process. In addition the schema theory emphasizes its work in the role of background knowledge to support comprehension.

### **1. Psycholinguistic Model of Reading**

During the past decade, EFL reading theory has come under the influence of psycholinguistics' and Goodman's psycholinguistics model of reading. Goodman has described reading as a "psycholinguistic guessing



game”. This model promotes that in reading, the reader reconstructs a message which has been encoded by a writer as a graphic display.

Goodman views that the act of reconstruction of meaning is ongoing, cyclical process of sampling from the input text, predicting, testing and confirming or revising those predictions, and sampling further. In this model, the reader needs not use all of the textual cues. The better the reader is able to make correct predictions, the less confirming via the text is necessary.

The model by Goodman has been elaborated by Coady (1979). On his basic model, Coady suggested that reader’s background knowledge interacts with conceptual abilities and process strategies to produce comprehension. Conceptual ability means general intellectual ability. Processing strategies mean various subcomponents of reading ability, including grapheme-morpho-phoneme correspondences, syllable morpheme information, syntactic information, lexical meaning, and contextual meaning. Background knowledge may be able to compensate for certain syntactic deficiencies.

## **2. Schema Theory Model**

The role of background knowledge in language comprehension has been formalized as schema theory (Bartlett, 1932; Rumerlhart and Ortony, 1977; Rumerlhart, 1980). Schema theory suggests that a text only provides directions for readers how they should retrieve or construct meaning from their own, previously acquired knowledge. This previously acquired knowledge is called the reader’s background knowledge, and the previously



---

acquired structure is called schemata (Bartlett, 1932; Adams and Collins, 1979; Rumerhart, 1980).

Comprehension in a text, according to schema theory is an interactive process between the reader's background knowledge and the text. Efficient comprehension requires the ability to relate the textual material to one's own knowledge. Comprehending words, sentences, and entire texts involve more than just relying on one's linguistics knowledge (Cerrell and Eisterhold, 1987:220).

In addition, the process of interpretation is guided by the principle that every input is mapped against some existing schema and that all aspects of that schema must be compatible with the input information. This principle results in two basic modes of information processing: bottom-up and top-down processing. An important aspect of top-down and bottom-up processing is that both occur at all levels simultaneously (Rumelhart, 1980).

## **STRATEGIES IN READING**

Reading may be defined as decoding and attaining the meaning as the result of the interplay between perception of graphic symbols that represent a language and the memory traces of readers' experiences. Reading may be both a process and a product. A process is a method, a movement toward an end that is accomplished by going through all necessary steps. A product is the consequence of utilizing certain aspects of a process in an appropriate sequence (Burns, Roe and Ross, 1984). Reading is not only receiving meaning in a literal sense, but it is also



---

bringing the one's entire life experience and thinking power to bear to understand what the writer has encoded.

The purposes of reading cannot be separated from comprehension. Each purpose will determine what to achieve ability and or after reading process. Reading comprehension requires ability to perceive the exact nature of the passage being read or communicated. Reading comprehension is a deeper form of understanding which is sometimes called reading between the lines. Three reading strategies that involve bottom-up strategies, top-down strategies, and interactive strategies are discussed here.

### **1. Bottom-Up Strategies**

The bottom-up strategies of reading assume that the process of translating print to meaning begins with print. The process is initiated by decoding graphic symbols into sounds. Therefore, the reader first identifies features of letters; links these features together to recognize letters; combine letters to recognize words; and then proceeds to sentence, paragraph, and text level processing (Vacca, Vacca and Gove, 1991). Reading comprehension according to these models is an automatic outcome of accurate word recognition. The followers of these models have argued that reading is essentially the translation of graphic symbols into an approximation of oral language (Harris and Sipay, 1984).

The process of deriving meaning from print in bottom-up strategies is triggered by graphic information embedded in print. By applying the bottom-up strategies, readers start to process the text from the low linguistic level to the higher one. The reader starts from identifying letters to recognize words; and then proceeds to the phrase, sentence, paragraph, and then text level processing



---

(Vacca, Vacca, and Gove, 1991). The understanding is constructed based on the visual data that are on the page. It triggers from one linguistic step after another, beginning with the recognition of the letters and continuing to words-by-words, sentence-by-sentence until reaching the top-the meaning of the text being read.

The bottom-up strategies are also used by the readers when they feel the text being read is difficult. The difficulty of the text can be about the language and contents of the text. When the language text is felt difficult, readers start to identify the words meaning. Then, they combine the word meaning to get the understanding of the phrases, sentences, and paragraph until reaching the entire meaning of text. Furthermore, when the content of the text is felt difficult, the reader tries to understand the text by relying on the visual information that are on the page. In this case, they process the visual information step-by-step from the low linguistic level to the higher one to get the entire understanding of the text.

## **2. Top-Down Strategies**

The process of deriving meaning of the text in top-down strategies triggers from the reader's prior knowledge and experience to the print. By the top-down strategies, readers start to process the text by applying the higher level stages. In this case, readers start with hypotheses and predictions and attempt to verify them by working down to the printed stimuli (Samuels and Kamil, 1988). By having the prior knowledge and experience, readers can make hypotheses and predictions about what they are going to find in the text. Thus, the process of text understanding by these strategies triggers from readers to the text.





These strategies are in line to Goodman (1967) who indicates that reading is a process that involves using available language cues selected from perceptual input on the basis of the reader's predictions. As the information is processed, tentative decisions about meaning are confirmed, rejected, or refined as reading progresses. It means that readers do not identify all elements of the text. Readers just select a few cues used to make predictions. Readers use the graphic information only to support or reject hypotheses about meaning.

Readers usually use the top-down strategies when they have background knowledge and sufficient language competence about the text being read, and when the cues that are in the text can activate the content schemata. Although readers have sufficient knowledge about the topic and can understand the meaning of every word in the text, they may still have difficulties to understand the text if there are not any cues in the text that can activate a certain content schemata. In other words, the understanding of text based on the top-down strategies, readers must have background knowledge and language competence as well as readers' understanding about the cues that are on the print that can activate the content schemata (the characteristics of the text).

### **3. Interactive Strategies**

The interactive strategies of reading assume that the process of translating print to meaning involved making use of both print and prior knowledge. The process is initiated by making prediction about meaning an/or decoding graphic symbols. The reader formulates hypotheses based upon the interaction of information from semantic, syntactic, and graphophonemic sources of information (Vacca, Vacca, and Gove, 1991). Comprehension according to these models is dependent on both the graphic information and the information



---

in the reader's mind. Therefore, comprehension may be obstructed when a critical skill or a piece of knowledge is missing. Then, when comprehension is hampered, the skilled reader compensates by decoding a word, relying on context, or both (Harris and Sipay, 1984).

Interactive strategies in reading require both bottom-up and top-down strategies in combination. Readers in understanding a text use these two strategies interactively and simultaneously. The interactive strategies suggest that the process of reading is initiated by decoding letters and words and by formulating hypotheses about meaning (Vacca, Vacca, and Gove, 1991). Readers in understanding a text start at first by processing the visual information that exists in the text. This visual information is used to activate the higher level of schemata. After the schemata have been active, readers use them as the basis of making predictions. These predictions are then confirmed to the new information found in the text.

In getting understanding interactively, readers use various sources of knowledge simultaneously to interpret the graphemic information that exists in the text (Rumelhart, 1985). These knowledge sources involve syntactic, semantic, lexical, and orthographic knowledge. The process of understanding a text by these knowledge sources runs on inconsistently. In the sense, an analysis made by a reader is not consistent from visual information to text interpretation entirely (Anderson, 1985).

In understanding a text, readers apply more interactive strategies than two other strategies. In the attempt of getting meaning of a text, readers cannot just rely on



---

visual information or non-visual information. The knowledge is applied interactively.

## **APPROACHES IN READING**

The range of approach to teaching reading in the classroom may include several aspects within the skills to whole language instructional continuum. A major approach should meet two basic criteria: observable in actual classroom and derived from a theoretical base that is top-down, bottom-up, or interactive. Adhering to these criteria, there are four major approaches to the teaching of reading: prescriptive, basal reading, language experience, and literature-based (Vacca, Vacca and Gove, 1991).

### **1. Prescriptive Approach**

This approach is a kind of individualized instruction which is often favored by teachers who devote large chunks of the reading period to work on phonics. They focus on sound-letter relationship instruction. This approach of teaching reading has come to mean two very different approaches to teachers. One type is associated with bottom-up theory. The heavy emphasis is placed on prescribing linguistic and other sequential skills. Another type is associated with top-down theory. The heavy emphasis is placed on personalizing instruction through literature (Vacca, Vacca, and Gove, 1991).



---

## **2. Basal Reading Approach**

Basal reading is a kind of approach occupying the central and broadest position on the reading instructional continuum. This approach uses basal readers to teaching reading. The basal reader series are most widely used materials for teaching reading. They help students become ready for reading and provide them for development and practice in reading (Burns, Roe, and Ross, 1984). Basal reading program comes to the closest to an eclectic approach. That is, within the basal reading program itself some elements of the other approaches are incorporated. Yet basal reading programs, built on scope and sequence foundations (skills, levels, and vocabulary), traditionally have been associated with bottom-up theory. This association has been modified over the years with the addition of language experience and literature activities (Vacca, Vacca, and Gove, 1991).

## **3. Language Experience Approach**

This approach needs students to experience reading as a rewarding and successful process. However, it is difficult to assemble an adequate supply of literature for the wide range of abilities found in every classroom, especially if some of the students are not proficient in English (Cantony-Harvey, 1987). This approach is tied closely to an interactive or top-down theory of reading. It is considered a kind of beginning reading approach although strategies of teaching are often connected to writing process (Vacca, Vacca, and Gove, 1991).

## **4. Literature-Based Approach**



This approach is also named a whole language approach in which students engage in reading for enjoyment and for the purpose of locating information, rather than in order to earn a good grade (Cantony-Harvey, 1987). Vacca, Vacca, and Gove (1991) admit that literature-based approach is an approach the teacher use to provide individual students difference in reading ability and at the same time focus on meaning interest and enjoyment. In this approach, teachers encourage their students to personally select books that they want to read and then share and compare insight gained. Reading instruction emanates from assumption about the reading process that are interactive and top-down.

## **STRATEGIES OF TEACHING READING**

The heart of the instructional programs is the quality of the teaching (Gunning, 1992). Vacca, Vacca, and Gove (1991) indicate that strategies are the key to the teaching of reading; they are the hour-by-hour, day-by-day evidence of what is really happening in the classroom.

In the teaching of reading, teachers can use bottom-up strategies for the beginning learners. Teachers begin teaching by showing and introducing students names and shapes of the letters of the alphabets, and students are introduced the combination of the letters in syllables, words, phrases, and sentences. In this regard, students are taught the sub-skills of reading in stages, started from the simple to the complex (Gunning, 1992).



---

In the top-down strategies, teachers start by telling the students a story, asking them to memorize the whole story, and latter learning to deal with individual words. Sub-skills are not taught because they are considered to fragmenting the process and making learning to read more abstract and difficult (Goodman, 1986).

Teaching of reading is more influenced by interactive strategies. Teachers teach skills directly, especially in the beginning, provide plenty of opportunities for the students to experience by having them read whole books (Gunning, 1992).

In this regard, the teaching of reading indicates process interactive models of reading. Students learn to read by reading, writing and talking about meaningful topics (Vacca, Vacca, and Gove, 1991). To make students involve in the teaching learning activities, teachers may apply some strategies before reading, for instances: previewing, organizers, anticipation guides, brainstorming. Strategies before reading are aimed at helping students to organize what they know and showing them where and how new ideas fit with their background knowledge (schemata). The activation of the students' schemata is essential in order to confirm the information hidden in the text with their prior knowledge.

People read to get information presented in written discourses. White (1986) mentions three kinds of information when reading takes place: referential, cognitive, and affective information. In relation to this information, the objective of reading can also be classified into three categories. First, people read materials that contain referential information to find and get the facts or factual information that are in the print. Second, people read materials that contain cognitive information to develop their intellectual skills. Third, people read materials that contain affective information to get fun or to get pleasure. The techniques of



---

reading developed are reading for information (search reading), mapping, skimming, and scanning (Wiener and Brazerman, 1988, Nuttal, 1989, Grellet, 1992, and Leo, 1994).

### **1. Reading for Information**

In reading for information (search reading), readers try to find out information to meet certain purposes that have been determined before. To find out the information quickly, readers can use clues like contents, indexes, and glossary that are in the books. By looking at these clues quickly, the page clues that are in contents and indexes will help the reader to find the information needed sharply and appropriately. In glossary, readers can find the definition of a certain term that they need. Moreover, in reading for information, readers only try to get certain information from the entire text without analyzing details of the text (Sudiana, 1996).

### **2. Mapping**

Mapping is to identifying meaning of a text through features. Mapping, also called clustering or webbing, is a visual form of brainstorming. When readers actually see ways their ideas connect to the text, they begin to think more creatively. Mapping also helps readers check the logical relationships between ideas in the text.

Mapping can be very effective technique, especially for the students who prefer diagrams, charts, and pictures to large numbers of words. It is also useful for everyone trying to understand both the organization of a reading selection and the main ideas of that selection (Leo, 1994). Mapping can be done before and after the reading process takes place. Mapping before reading can help readers to activate their prior knowledge so that they can



---

relate new information to the old one. Mapping after reading can help readers to find the relationship among ideas and terms that may make learning more efficient. Mapping before reading can activate reader's schemata about the text being read and mapping after reading can help readers to process information more deeply.

### **3. Skimming**

Skimming is aimed at getting quickly the main ideas and the purposes of a reading selection (Leo, 1994). Skimming is a very useful aid to help students find out information wished quickly. In skimming, readers just see the text at a glance; readers just survey the text without carefully reading it. They only use the clues that are in the book to get the information needed. Before skimming, readers must remember the most important parts of a chapter, article, or a paragraph. When skimming, readers usually read the title and the opening sentence in a paragraph or a paragraph in an essay. They may also read over the middle part of the selection very quickly and pay attention to the underlined words or phrases and to names, dates, and numbers. At last, readers read the closing sentence of a paragraph or the closing paragraph of an essay.

### **4. Scanning**

Unlike skimming that is looking for and getting the most important information, the main ideas of a text, scanning is aimed at looking for and getting the details, facts, numbers, and specific bits of information that are in the text (Leo, 1994). Readers apply scanning in reading to locate specific information and get an initial impression of whether the text is suitable for a given purpose. When scanning, readers do not follow the linearity of the





passage to get the information wished. They simply let their eyes wander over the text until they find what they are looking for, whether it be a name, a date, or a less specific piece of information (Grellet, 1992).

## **COMMON TECHNIQUES IN TEACHING OF READING**

Psycholinguistically, reading is viewed as an interactive process between language and thought. Coady (1979) points out that this interactive process involves three factors:

- (1) conceptual abilities.
- (2) background knowledge.
- (3) process strategies.

Furthermore, he states that a typical reading class involves the reading of a passage followed by comprehension questions, vocabulary exercises, and at the same time, grammatical exercises are also developed.

Generally speaking, there are three kinds of activities involving in relation to the reading class activities: **pre-reading activities**, **during/whilst reading activities**, and **post-reading activities**.

### **1. Pre-reading Activities**

Most activities are directed at reader's prior knowledge, especially of building and activating reader's schemata before reading. Tierney and Cunningham (1984) admit that in building reader's schemata prior to reading, pre-teaching vocabulary, enriching background knowledge, and analogy are required.



---

The strategies may take place in terms of: (1) advance organizers, (2) objectives, (3) pretests and pre-questions, (4) student-centered reading activities, and (5) pictures, prefatory statements, and titles.

Pre-reading activities are instructional activities carried out before students conduct the real reading activities. In pre-reading activities, activations is concerned with students' background knowledge, objectives of reading class, learning activities, and motivating the students (Mason and Au, 1990). Activities of pre-reading are basically the same as the preparation stage (Finn, 1985). In this stage, teachers try to activate students' schemata relating to the topic of the text, by presenting key words, asking questions related to the topic, or explaining briefly the contents of the text. The activation of students' schemata is aimed at making it easier for the students to comprehend the text to be read.

Pre-reading is to tell students the purposes of reading and learning. According to Finn (1985) the purposes of reading include to: (1) get the students thinking along with the lines of the story they are about to read, and (2) identify particular information the students should be alert to or a question the students should keep in mind as they read the selection. The activity of presenting objectives of reading provides the students with schemata that will help them recognize the important elements of the text to be read, and connect the elements to the higher schemata.

Pre-reading is to motivating. Motivation in reading attracts students' attention to the text. Students want to read if reading satisfies their desires to conquer their world and if reading feeds their interests (Harris and Smith, 1986). In motivating students, teachers can do some ways like using some attractive color scheme, a cartoon, a picture, or some other approaches to gain the attention of the students



---

and showing them what they will be able to do when finishing the reading class. Showing what the students will be able to do is more than a statement of objective of the reading class. It is the teacher's demonstration or illustration of what the students will be able to do. It is the initial part of the reading class that may consist of interesting fact of what it is to be learned.

The activities of pre-reading are activities aiming at facilitating the students' understanding about the reading text. In order to do this properly, teachers can activate the students' background knowledge, tell the students the objectives of reading and learning activities, and motivate the students in the beginning of reading class. These can make the students aware of what they must do when the guided reading activities take place and what they will be able to perform and achieve after the reading class takes place.

## **2. During/Whilst Reading Activities**

During reading activities are the activities that a reader does while reading takes place. To maximize reader interactions to a text, readers should be guided during reading activities. In an attempt to influence how a reader processes a text to increase comprehension, a variety of interventions can be applied. Greenwood (1981) mentions that while reading includes: (a) identifying the main idea, (b) finding details in a text, (c) following a sequence, (d) inferring from the text, (e) recognizing the discourse patterns.

During/whilst reading activities are instructional activities that are going on while reading activities are happening. Greenwood (1981) suggests five activities to do in while reading. First, readers identify main idea of the text, through giving a title, selecting the most appropriate title, and identifying topic sentence through



---

skimming. Second, readers find the details in the text, through scanning the text, and finding specific information. Third, readers follow a sequence by relating items in a particular order or process. Fourth, readers infer from the text by trying to understand the text using their schemata and experience. Fifth, readers recognize the discourse patterns by applying all their linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge to understand the text holistically.

To this end, Mealey and Nist (1989) suggest questioning techniques and guides as strategies during reading activities. Questioning technique involves prompting the retrieval of prior knowledge, focusing attention to checking literal, inferring and applying comprehension of information, and predicting possible test items. Questions in reading activity are also useful to guide and focus students' attentions and performance. In addition, the questions also activate students' background knowledge. Finally, predictions at the time of reading are useful to get students involved with the text (Sudiana, 1996).

### **3. Post Reading Activities**

Post-reading activities are the activities conducted by a reader after reading. The activities are used to rechecking reader's understanding on the text topic being read. In postreading activities, students do post-questions, feedback, and group and whole class discussions (Tierney and Cunningham, 1984). The post-questions are more effective in incidental comprehension and the objective, since information of both greater or lesser importance is learned. The value of post-questions, however, depends on the nature and level of the questions, the quality of student response and participation (Mealey and Nist, 1989).



---

Post-reading activities are instructional activities that the students and teacher do after reading takes place. Tierney and Cunningham (1989) point out that post-questions, feedback, and group and whole-class discussions are activities that can be done in the phase of postreading activities. The activities function to check students' comprehension about the text being read. The post-questions after reading class activity are very important since information of both greater and lesser important is learned (Mealey and Nist, 1989).

In addition, Sudiana (1996) suggests that the questions asked in the phase of postreading activities should be directed to the development of the students' higher skill. The development of this skill can be done by using effective questioning strategies. Teachers can do this by asking the students some opened questions that asking them to summarize, to synthesize, and verify their conclusion.

Beside asking questions, the activity of summarizing the contents of the text is also applicable to the students, encouraging students to involve more actively with the text. The result of summary can be used as the basis of determining the students' level of understanding to the text.

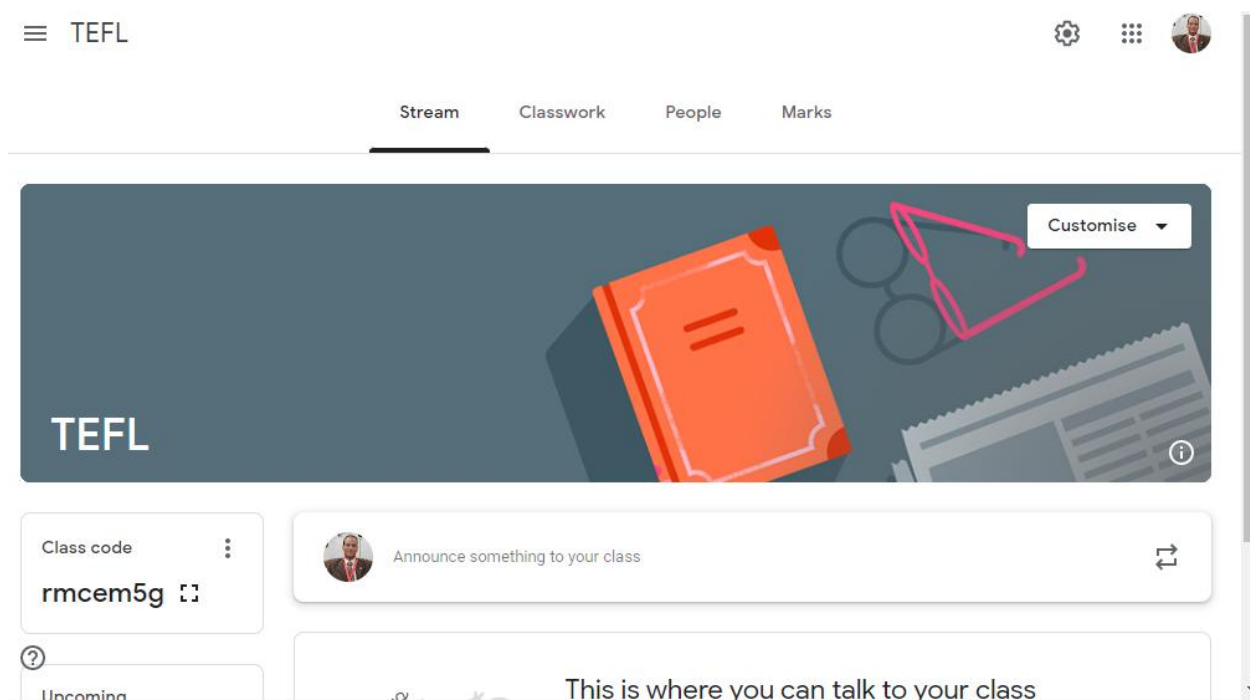
The activity of post-reading can also be in the forms of discussion. Students are asked to discuss the writer's ideas. This discussion can be in a group or whole-class discussion. The discussion may depend on the class size. If the class is big, it will be better to have group discussion. If the class is small, it will be better to have whole class discussion.



## Chapter six

### Classroom Management

Log in to classroom for more data:



Classroom management is the most important factor affecting student learning. It is the effective discipline in the classroom that provides a safe and comfortable learning environment, motivates your students, build their self-esteem and encourage them to be imaginative and creative in daily lessons. You must have control of the class, organize students and plan to utilize the resources available so that you can minimize disruptive behaviors and teach effectively.



---

## **Reasons for disruptive behaviors in the classroom:**

Students misbehave for several reasons:

- They are bored of your traditional teaching method.
- They don't know the purpose of your presentation.
- They are not aware of the importance of the information that you are delivering.
- Activities are not interesting.
- The pace of the teaching is too fast, or too slow.

## **Principles of classroom management:**

1. Dealing with disruptive behaviors.
2. Minimizing off-task behaviors.
3. Engaging as many students as possible in the learning activities.

## **Starter Tips to Manage a Class:**

### **1. Over plan your lessons:**

If you don't plan, students will plan for you. The more you plan, the more effective the lesson and delivery will be and the fewer problems with discipline will occur.

- Ensure that you fill each minute of the period with learning activities.
- Be prepared and organized well.
- Minimize transition time among tasks.
- Be prepared with extra activities if there is still time in the period.



- 
- Know exactly beforehand what you are going to write on the board and how to organize it.
  - Prepare attractive warmers and good wraps-up for each lesson.

## **2. Arrange the seating:**

- Rearrange the desks — both for your language lessons and sometimes even for a particular activity so that it is both easier and more natural for students to see and talk to each other.

## **3. Look at the students:**

- If you are standing, and your eyes are constantly moving over the class, everyone feels involved.
- Your eyes help your students' concentration.
- The easiest way to check whether your students understand what you have said or what they have read or heard is for your eyes to look at theirs.
- Any incomprehension or confusion will show in their eyes long before they tell you that there is a problem.

## **4. Use your hands to encourage and direct students:**

- A simple gesture can indicate who is going to answer a question or which pair of students should now read a dialogue.
- Simple gestures can also indicate that something is wrong.
- Use a collection of gestures to avoid unnecessary language which can distract students.
- Gestures can indicate what is required from individual students, or even from the whole class, with a minimum of fuss.

## **5. Vary your voice:**

- Pauses, stress and changes of voice when you change from comment to instruction and from statement to question will mean that it is much easier for students to follow and pay attention to what you say.

## **6. Gain attention:**





- 
- Gain students' full attention before giving instructions.
  - Provide instruction with simple and clear language.
  - Provide one instruction at a time – do not provide too many different instructions.
  - Make your lessons relevant and interesting to your students.
  - Use examples that interest students.

### **How to Gain Your Students' Attention**

Classroom management is mainly based on attracting and keeping your students' attention. If you succeed to do that, you will be able to achieve your learning objectives easily. Here are some tips to attract your students' attention.

- Use a signal for zero noise (e.g. if I raise my hand, you all should keep silent.)
- Make everyone responsible for getting one another's attention. Teach the children a 'zero noise level signal'. Tell them that when they see (or hear) the signal, they should immediately be quiet and if students see someone around them who hasn't seen the signal, they should quietly show them the signal. Make it a game for the class to get to 'zero noise level' as quickly as possible.
- Praise and/or incorporate a positive consequence for meeting criteria (e.g. if everyone is silent within 10 seconds, a bean goes into the jar. When the jar is full, the teacher has some sort of reward for the class).
- Come close to two students chatting and surprise them.
- Give clear instructions for each activity telling students what to do exactly.



- 
- When making transition from one activity to another, ask for your students' attention.
  - Eye contact with as many students as possible to monitor the entire room.
  - Differentiate and vary your activities during each lesson to break monotony.
  - Ask questions to check students' comprehension.
  - Keep silent for some moments while looking at students until they pay full attention.

**If you can hear my voice, clap once:**

This is a useful game for getting everyone's attention. Say the following: "If you can hear my voice clap once". Clap once. Pause. If everyone doesn't clap, repeat the sentence again. Say: "If you can hear my voice clap twice". Pause. Say "If you can hear my voice clap three times". By this stage, everyone should be quiet and clapping along with you. With primary students you may need to do one of the following to help them understand the game:

- a) Pre-teach the phrase, "If you can hear my voice, clap ..."
- b) Simplify it to "Please clap once", "Please clap twice", etc.

**Teach a signal:**

Have some sort of signal which means "Stop talking". This can be something like one hand in the air, hand on the head, hand across the mouth, etc. When students see the signal they must immediately stop talking.

If other students near them have not noticed the signal, those who have noticed should draw their friends' attention to it. You could also use a sound signal like a whistle or bell.



---

### **Finish off:**

The teacher says one thing and the students must finish it off, e.g., when the students hear the teacher clapping and saying "Make your hands go "clap, clap, clap". Students must finish off the second line of the rhyme by saying "Put them in your lap, lap, lap" and put their hands in their laps and be quiet.

### **Don't shout!!!!**

If students wave their hands in the air and shout out "Teacher! Teacher!" or such things, there are a number of things you can do. You can:

- a) Make it clear from the start that this is not good behaviour. You can make a rule to put on the wall which says RAISE YOUR HAND. DO NOT SHOUT.
- b) Ignore students who shout. If you call on them, you are encouraging this behavior.
- c) Have an alternative signal for students to use if they want to answer, e.g. they could put their thumbs in the air or raise their hands.
- d) Have a signal for quiet. This can be a hand across the mouth. Show the students that if they are shouting, you will wait quietly until they become quiet before proceeding.

Students sometimes shout out because they are so worried about not being heard. You can try to involve the whole class as much as possible. There are a number of ways to do this.

- Ask a question which requires a yes/no answer. At a signal, get students to put their thumbs up if they think the answer is yes and thumbs down for no.



- 
- After one student has given an answer, say: Put up your hands if you also thought of that answer.
  - Ask students to tell the answer to the students sitting next to them, their "learning buddy".
  - Ask students to write the answer on a piece of paper. At a signal, they can hold up the paper and you can walk around the room and look at everyone's answers.
  - Ask a question; call on a student to "Listen up", and then call on another student to answer the question. Then ask the same question to the student you prompted to listen. Involve more students in this pre-alert by asking a group or an entire row of students to "Listen up".
  - Ask a question to one student, then call on another student and ask "What did Mona say?" Involve three or more students in this question chain before asking a new question. This works best with a question that requires more than a one-word answer.

### **Let's do something different**

If students are getting restless, get them to do something different. You can use a song, a chant or an action activity.

### **How to Teach in a Quiet Classroom**

If you want to have a class running smoothly, you should set up a structured learning environment where certain behaviors are praised and others are



---

discouraged. I think you must do the following five procedures to be able to teach in a quiet classroom with students attentive and observant to you.

**1. Create a friendly but respectful relationship with your students.**

This kind of relationship is very important to create learning opportunities. Start at the door with a smile, greet your students and shake hands with some of them. Use your students' names and actively praise them. Know them and their needs and use this knowledge to adjust your teaching methods. If you have a good relationship with your students, you will be able to push them harder and further to learn because they will trust you.

**2. Train your students on how to understand and learn in the classroom.**

You should have a learning philosophy that guides your teaching methods in the classroom; tell it to your students. Tell them that you don't expect them to be at the same level in learning but add that you have some steps if they follow they will learn. Write these steps on the board in the first period or spread over a printed copy of them. Don't forget at the end of each period to summarize what students should learn to give each student the opportunity to practice self-evaluation.

**3. Prepare your mind and materials well beforehand.**

Managing the classroom includes managing the time minimizing lost time in activities like handing out papers, taking attendance and announcements. You should protect your time and increase the time spent on learning. You will not be able to do so unless you are well mentally prepared. You should know how to



---

transition students from one activity to another without wasting time in order not to give them any time for side talks.

#### **4. Establish behavioral standards from the first day.**

These standards should hit the main points regarding showing respect, communicating correctly and coming prepared to learn. Explain the standards of performance, as well as the limits of behavior. Practicing classroom management should begin at the start of school and throughout the year. It needs to be flexible, tolerant and smiling to manage your students.

#### **5. Anticipate behavioral problems and prepare the solutions.**

Anticipation is not enough, but you should put in your mind the solutions. Don't go ahead directly to punishment but build activities or ask questions that can lead students to return to the lesson and attention.

#### **Maintaining order and discipline in a classroom means:**

- The teacher has control over everything taking place in it.
- Students accept the teacher's authority and are cooperative in doing what is asked of them.
- Both the teacher and students have a mutual understanding of the goal of the class.
- Class time is invested fully in working toward the target goals.



---

When behavior in the classroom gets out of control, teachers will not be able to convey anything, and learning won't take place. So, teachers are recommended all the time to overcome this challenge and resolve any discipline problems as immediately as possible.

You can achieve that and regain control of your class by following these 15 tips:

1. **Stating a system for everything**, e.g. speaking, turn-taking, respect of others, test\_taking, answering questions, etc.
2. **Entering into an agreement with the students** based on following some rules to maintain order and discipline. Praising and rewarding frequently those who are committing to the rules.
3. **Being firm but warm**. Using strict words but preserving the dignity of students and avoiding humiliating them.
4. **Pursuing the main source of disciplinary problems**, not symptoms and dealing with it immediately thinking of and using various alternatives to solve these problems.
5. **Getting used to call the students with their first and second names.**
6. **Increasing the number of interaction activities among students during each lesson.**
7. **Using pair-work or small group-work technique** when doing the exercises considering the variation in learning standards.
8. **Using audio-visual aids** to attract students' attention and facilitate learning.



- 
9. **Avoiding burying yourself in the textbook** or the preparation notes but keeping eye contact with your students all the time.
  10. **Avoiding planting your feet firmly in one place** for the whole lesson but always moving around the class.
  11. **Dressing appropriately and using effective facial and hand gestures.**
  12. **Arranging the chairs, organizing the board, freeing the class from external noises, speaking up to be heard and showing yourself to all students in the classroom.**
  13. **Being an expert on your subject matter and well prepared mentally and in writing for every lesson.**
  14. **Understanding your students well** adapting your teaching practices to their characteristics and learning standards.

### **Teaching Large Classes: Challenges & Solutions**

Large classes are a reality in many countries and as they bring many challenges to the teachers, they have some advantages as well. Let's start with the main challenges and how to overcome them.

#### **The Main Challenges of Teaching a Large Class.**

- It's difficult to keep good discipline or manage the class.
- You have mixed-abilities students.
- You can't easily give each student the care and attention they need.
- You may not have enough teaching aids and learning materials.





---

## How Can We Overcome These Challenges?

1. Set clear, basic rules from the first beginning of the school year.

These rules should establish a code of behaviour that learners understand, such as:

- Each group should work quietly.
- They may talk, but not loudly.
- Students who have finished the lesson tasks can read the lesson silently.
- If you want to talk with the teacher, put your hand up on the desk.
- Reduce your voice when you see this sign (specify one).

Discuss with your class this code of conduct. The students can also sum up the rules in simple sentences and write them on a poster. Put this poster in a visible place.

Beside to these rules, you can appoint responsible leaders who can help you maintain discipline and remind their friends with the rules and encourage them all the time to commit to them.

2. Use group work:

In a large class, group work can help students to learn from each other without getting bored listening to teacher talk. Even if they made some noise, it will be a healthy noise which means that learning occurs.

3. Using a group of leaders/monitors:



---

The teacher can make a group of faster, more able learners and appoint them as leaders or monitors asking them to help slower learners. They can also give out and take in work for the other groups and explain what each group should do exactly.

#### 4. Make the best use of the board:

Organize it writing the important things on it in large size before the lesson starts.

Try

your best to write in a neat handwriting.

In all strategies the teacher needs to move around the classroom to see what progress learners are making and what problems they are facing. The teacher should give advice, encouragement and extra individual help where it is needed.

### **Proven-to-Work Tips to Manage a Crowded Class**

If the levels of students are varied, you can:

- Divide the students into three groups: good, average and low achievers. Ask each low achiever student to sit next to a good one. In this way, the good student can help the low-achiever one.
- Use various strategies to suit the needs of all students.
- Give different work to different students according to their ability levels. E.g. you can ask easier questions to students who are not confident and more difficult questions to stronger ones.



- 
- Make each student feel important by remembering and calling the student with his own name.

**If it is difficult to keep the noise down in large classes and you take a lot of time to get the attention of the whole class, you can:**

- Make everyone responsible for getting one another's attention.
- Have some sort of signal which means —Stop Talkingl.
- Not shout and ignore students who shout.

**If the students have little chance to talk and it is difficult to correct their errors, you can:**

- Avoid immediate error correction on every occasion.
- Use facial expressions to show that there is a mistake.
- Use finger correction or your own gestures.
- Allow the student to correct himself/herself. If he/she is unable to do that, ask another student to do so.

**If the amount of “written work” is limited because of the large number of students, you can:**

- Set homework which is easy to mark.
- Get the students to correct one another's work.
- Collect part of the work each time.

**If you want your students to behave well, you should:**



- 
- Teach according to the level of your students.
  - Do your best to communicate clearly.
  - Act confidently holding your shoulders and head high and looking at your students' eyes.
  - Move around the class and have a well-planned preparation.
  - Make sure that your students understand you.
  - Let your students share some of the responsibilities in the class. The more responsibility students have, the more they will cooperate with you and your instructions.

**More general tips to manage crowded classes effectively:**

- Make the ground rules clear from the beginning of the school term. Don't shout or humiliate your students. Show respect for all the individuals in the classroom.
- Reward good behavior rather than punish the bad one.
- Change activities every 20 minutes and make your lesson interesting.
- Start your lesson with fun e.g. a song or a game.
- Involve the whole class as much as you can as involved students have less time to bother others.
- Ask students to work in pairs or in groups. Give clear instructions.
- Use visual aids
- Walk around while students are working and encourage them.



- 
- Allow enough time for students to reply and avoid interrupting them.
  - Give students enough opportunities to speak during the lesson.

## **How to Manage a Mixed-Level Class**

**What difficulties can there be with mixed level classes? Some of these are:**

- Helping everyone to learn: How to help all levels learn?
- Keeping everyone's attention.
- Getting everyone to take part.
- Lesson speed; may be too quick for some, too slow for others.
- Activities may be too easy for some, too hard for others.
- Materials may be interesting for some, boring for others.
- Assessment

**How can you deal with these different needs? Think about the following:**

**•Use open-ended activities:**

These can work well because students with different levels of language can do them.

**•Ask different-level questions:**



---

Ask easier questions to those with less English, and harder questions to those with more English.

•**Give extra activities:**

Have extra activities ready for students who finish an activity quickly. These activities might include new vocabulary to learn, pictures to talk about, or simple language games to play.

•**Set flexible targets:**

Set different targets or activities to different students or groups. For example, you might ask one group to write three sentences or more about their families, and a higher level group to write five sentences or more.

•**Use the "Remember and Tell" strategy:**

After some activities, ask students to close their books and remember answers, questions, words or sentences from the activity they work on, and tell each other in pairs or groups. Success depends less on language knowledge and more on cooperation.

• **Correct only serious mistakes:**

Be more tolerant of mistakes made by low-achiever students. Correct only their serious mistakes.

•**Use pair and group work:**

Sometimes students of different levels can help each other to learn when they work in pairs or groups.



---

## **Pair & Group-Work Technique to Manage the Class**

Students benefit from working in pairs or groups in the classroom by:

- Having the opportunity to speak to each other in English. This maximizes their talking time and minimizes the teacher's talking.
- Interacting socially using the language so that the stronger student can help the weaker.
- Brainstorming more ideas and practicing more language.
- Building up their rapport and independence.
- Focusing more when learning the language while the teacher is just monitoring their performance.
- Sharing opinions and experiences with each other.
- Personalizing the lesson and adapting its content to their needs.
- Feeling safer when participating in discussion especially shy students.

### **Ways to Pair or Group Your Students:**

1. Decide who you want to work together and tell individual students their partners.
2. Gesture with your hands to students who sit beside or near each other to work together.



3. Divide students according to their birthdays, height or any other criteria.
4. Give each student a card with a word or letter or phrase and ask students to find their partners by connection of the cards.
5. Give each student a number and ask who have same numbers to sit together. You can do that with letters or words. This is a nice warm-up for the start of the lesson.

### **Two strategies to organize students in groups:**

- **Mixed-ability groups:** The more able learners in the group can help the others to master the work so that the teacher may not need to teach some parts.
- **Same-ability groups:** The teacher can group the faster learners together to do the work on their own and they can be given extra activities if they finished the work. On the other side, the teacher can give extra help to individual learners in the slower groups.

### **How to Manage Hyperactive Students**

"Hyperactive students struggle to focus and stay organized. Many students, mostly primary ones are hyperactive. They need special attention from teachers to control them and help them understand the lessons. In case some students showed hyperactivity in your classroom you should:

- \* **Greet** them by their names and create some time to speak to them individually. \*
- Build strong relationship with them by asking about their personal life, hobbies, activities, health and emotions.





- 
- \* **Praise them**, if they did good things to make them feel emotionally safe in the classroom.
  - \* **Reinforce** their appropriate behavior by giving them stars or gifts or by displaying their photographs on the class board.
  - \* **Tell** their mistakes indirectly by asking them or the class: —Is that good or bad behavior?||
  - \* **Specify** some time during the class for movement or doing some physical actions and encourage them to participate.
  - \* **Let** them sit in the front rows to help them get the maximum concentration.
  - \* **Divide** the big tasks for them into small steps making sure that they completed the first step before going on to the second one.
  - \* **Communicate** with their parents and the psychological specialist at school asking for more information about them to use to improve their learning level

### **How to Use the Board Effectively**

As a teacher of EFL, your board is a memory tool for things you want your students to remember. It is also a helpful tool to keep you on track with the lesson and manage the class effectively.

What should your board look like? In what way can you organize it? How can you get the best use of it? You should consider the following tips when using the board or while writing on it.



---

### **1. Stand right:**

While writing on the board, stand sideways without hiding what you are writing and keep eye contact with your students.

### **2. Prepare your text:**

Prepare beforehand what you are going to write on the board. You can imagine an A4 paper as your board and write on it your text in advance and then copy this prepared text to the classroom board. Be focused and write as quickly as you can.

### **3. Keep it neat:**

Try your best to make your writing look neat and clear. You can walk to the back of the classroom and check how your board looks like. Your writing should be big and straight enough. If you think something is not clear enough, do rub it out and write it again.

### **4. Keep students' attention:**

While writing, keep your students' attention by reading the key words and phrases aloud. You can also pause for a while and ask a student to read what you have written.

### **5. Give clear instructions:**

Tell students exactly what you want them to copy and at which time you want them to finish copying. After you finish, stand back and let them complete copying. When time finished, say —Stop copying. You can continue copying when I finish explaining|.

### **6. Organize your board:**



---

Divide the board into three sections: the left one for key vocabulary and phrases, the right one for questions or home assignment, and the center for main structures or 28 language focus. Try to leave a space under each section for temporary items that you can rub out as you go along the lesson.

### **7. Make important features noticeable:**

Important features are the points which you want your students to distinguish and remember such as auxiliary verbs, irregular endings, pronouns, contracted forms, etc. You can do so by underlining them, using different colored pens/chalk, circling them or even making them italic.

### **8. Use tables for prompting:**

Build these tables with students, and then use them for controlled practice that is aimed at achieving accuracy such as substitution and transformation drills.

### **9. Use diagrams, mind/word maps and time lines:**

You can use these aids on the board to clarify time, space, quantity or to increase the stock of vocabulary.

### **10. Stick items on the board:**

You can use the surface of the board to display all sorts of items such as posters, flashcards, pictures ... etc. and have students to come out to the board for oral work pointing to or talking about these items.

## **How to Enforce Students to Follow the Rules in a Class**



---

Do you allow students to chew gum or use mobiles in class? Why?! Simply, because we have rules in our schools. As we have rules, we have to follow them. The first one who must follow these rules is YOU. If you don't, you will lose respect for yourself and for your rules. The point is that you should be a model for your students. Once you tell them a rule, you have to stick to it.

In addition, I learned from experience the effectiveness of the following tips for students to follow your rules in class.

### **1. Use a reminder:**

If you see a student chatting a bit with a classmate, ask: —Do you have a question? Is there something you want to tell me about? Have you finished yet?|| This serves as a reminder. The key point here is that you remind the student and the whole class with the rule agreed upon that was not followed by someone. This kind of situation may not need a consequence but just a reminder for that student to stop and return to follow the rules.

### **2. A consequence has to follow:**

Not all rules can be treated the same. For example, when you see a student using a mobile, you can't just say: —I remind you not to use your mobile.|| In this situation, students will not expect a reminder but a warning and then a consequence. You have to say then: —This is a warning and a consequence will follow.|| And then, a consequence has to follow if the same student or any other one does not stick to this rule. All students watch and expect the consequence. If you just sigh or neglect what happens, students will not see any rule to follow in this situation.



---

### 3. **Be transparent and fair:**

Be respectful to all and set your rules nicely and clearly but don't be selective in your reminders or warnings. Give the rules to the class collectively. As a result, a consequence for not sticking to a rule has to be the same for all students.

### 4. **Talk more about objectives not rules:**

Always put in your mind, the ultimate goal of your teaching in class is not enforcing students to follow rules but teaching effectively to help students achieve certain learning objectives. Don't talk much about rules but spend most of your time talking about effective teaching and the objectives that you are charged to help students to achieve, and don't forget that students from a time to another need to feel a sense of accomplishment.

## **Communicate Best with Your Students**

As teaching should be a participative and interactive activity, there must be a kind of communication between teachers and their students. This communication can enable teachers to tell students what they must and must not do in the class.

As a result, teachers should be well aware of the principles and techniques that help them be more effective communicators and get what they want from their communication with students. The main six of these principles are as follow:

1. **Listening** well with signals that prove attention and interest in what students say.



- 
2. **Using the voice** well with variations of tone that send various responding messages to what students say or do.
  3. **Using suitable words** to convey clear messages and instructions so that students know well what to do exactly.
  4. **Making the best use of body language** to control the class and demonstrate attitudes towards students' actions.
  5. **Communicating by eye contact** to show interest or encourage students to correct their errors by themselves.
  6. **Considering the effects of physical environment** on creating effective communication. Rearranging the furniture, opening a window, hanging some photos or pictures, sticking some wall sheets and many other similar things can make a big difference with our communication with students.

In fact, there are many other communication principles teachers should stick to while interacting with their students and it's your turn to add more. Remember that miscommunication between a teacher and his /her students is enough to hinder learning, prevent achieving teaching objectives and make classroom management a hard job.

### **Final Tips to Improve Your Classroom Management**

As a teacher, you need to reflect on your teaching practices frequently and take responsibility to improve your classroom management. Many aspects related to teaching e.g. lesson planning, language practice ... need to be improved from time



---

to another so that you can boost your classroom management and get the students to achieve the desired learning objectives.

**Here are the final tips to consider from time to another.**

- Your lesson mustn't be teacher dominated.
- Be fair and distribute turns equally among your students and don't show any favouritism or bias.
- Be friendly with your students and create a proper atmosphere and social climate. To do this, you have to enjoy teaching and like your students and learn their names as soon as possible.
- Don't hold your class in fear and tension. Make your class relaxed and enjoyable.
- Your class must be tidy and ruled. Never tolerate disorder or lack of discipline in your class.
- Breathe life and vitality in your class and never remain seated while teaching.
- Motivate your students and encourage them to make progress. A word of praise is a very good incentive. Don't be harsh in your blame or criticism.
- Try to organize activities so that the students can initiate and control much of the interactions.
- Don't use a monotonous voice or flat face.
- Don't be too fast to finish the lesson whether students understand or not.
- Don't focus on a certain student.
- Don't spend all the class time standing in front of the class speaking (lecturing).
- Try to address every student by name.
- Smile friendly to the students and never abuse or degrade them.

**Lesson Planning:**



- 
- Plan your work carefully and work your plan effectively. Never go into class without an elaborate lesson plan.
  - Set your lesson objectives first and be clear about them.
  - Your Objectives must be SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Timed).
  - Prepare your teaching materials in advance and use them effectively.
  - Expect behavioural problems and try to find solutions for them.
  - Anticipate barriers to goal achievements and try to find solutions for them.
  - Divide your time among the main stages of the lesson.
  - Use various teaching strategies appropriate to the students' level.
  - Link the lesson with previous work.
  - Vary your activities.
  - Give the students a purpose or reason (objectives) why they are going to do any activity. **Classroom Organization:**
  - Grouping arrangements are very useful.
  - Create a teacher-student interaction.
  - Motivate your students encouraging them all the time to participate in the lesson.
  - Teacher talking time should be maximized at the beginning and minimized at the end of a lesson.





- 
- Whenever useful, have your students to work in pairs or in groups. In pairs, students can carry out interviews, act out complete dialogue or do role-play.

In groups, students can do problem-solving activities.

- Give the chance to your students to talk to each other in English and express themselves freely without being afraid of making mistakes.
- Don't leave your students during the pair work or group work, you should help them. You are a partner in every group work or pair work.

### **Using Teaching Aids:**

- Make full use of the aids available.
- Try to make your handwriting clear and neat on the board.
- Use the modern aids in teaching, e.g. the computer, the CD ROM and OHP.

### **Language Practice in the Classroom:**

- Create situations in class to initiate conversations and make use of those situations.
- Use different techniques in answering questions.
- Practice the four skills in every lesson.
- Introduce variety in your class. This makes your teaching more enjoyable. A puzzle, a riddle, role-playing, competition, picture...etc. will make your teaching much more interesting.



- 
- Don't be the only one who asks questions in class. Reverse roles with your students and ask them to ask questions themselves.
  - The best questions to use for language practice are open-ended ones.
  - Allow many acceptable answers during a discussion.
  - Bear in mind that —Wait Time is very important for students' responses.

### **Correcting Students' Mistakes:**

- Be tolerant of your student's mistakes when they are talking. Wait until students stop and then correct them.
- Don't get angry when a student makes a mistake.
- Don't overcorrect students' mistakes. Try also to use various techniques (e.g. peer correction – self-correction, etc....).
- Try to praise or give a present to the students who give good answers. (A mark or two may be sufficient).

### **Self-Evaluation:**

- Identify which parts of the lesson were more successful and which ones were less successful.
- Evaluate your lesson in detail and register an authentic picture of the standard of your students.
- Evaluate students' active contribution to the lesson.
- Evaluate to what extent the students achieve the lesson learning objectives.



- 
- Evaluate your teaching strategies and the procedures you followed to present the lesson.
  - Get used to reflecting on your overall performance in the classroom and your classroom management in particular.

### References

- Anozie, C. A. (2007). General linguistics: An introduction. Enugu: TIAN VENTURES.
- Asher, J. (1977). Learning another language through actions: The complete teacher's guide books. Los Gatos, Calif: Sky Oaks productions.
- Brown, R. (1994). A first language. Cambridge: Haward Press.
- Krashen, S. (1982). Principles and practice in second language acquisition. California: Pergamon Press.
- Rifkin, B. (2003). Guidelines for Foreign Language Lesson Planning. Foreign language Annals, 36 (2).
- Celce-Murcia, M. (1979). Teaching English as a second language or foreign language. UK: Newbury House Publishers.
- Olaoye, A. A. (1989). Introduction to sociolinguistics. Nigeria: Ogunloye Publishing & Printing Press.