



Teaching English Methodology
A Training Course for
English-Major Students
(Third Year)

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Preface

This course is intended for Education students majoring in English. It helps students to plan their own lessons. It reviews four well-known methods and approaches, the: Grammar-translation, Direct, Audio-lingual, Communicative approach. The course presents some ideas and suggestions for developing the communicative skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Certain techniques and procedures are introduced through which these skills can be taught. Various classroom activities for teaching handwriting, vocabulary and grammar are also included. In addition, some ways of using board as an aid in presentation and practice are provided. The course shows also students how to design a range of simple classroom tests.

Course Objectives

By the end of the course, students are expected to:

1. Write a lesson plan.
2. Be familiar with the characteristics of TEFL methods: Grammar-Translation, Direct, Audio-lingual and communicative approach.
3. Use effective techniques and procedures in teaching the four language skills: Listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
4. Be aware of the basic criteria for legible handwriting in English.
5. Select and identify appropriate techniques in teaching vocabulary.
6. Be acquainted with different techniques for introducing new structural patterns.
7. Develop basic techniques in using the board.
8. Design different types of tests.

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1 Planning a Lesson

Introduction

Planning is a necessary part of curriculum. Right from the determination of curricular objectives to their achievement and evaluation, we need a thorough planning and the teaching process is no exception to that.

Each individual lesson given in the textbook and every language item and activity included in the curriculum needs careful planning and proper preparation to teach it effectively. The teacher, therefore, should prepare his daily lesson well before delivering it to his class. He should review in his mind the difficulties he might face in the class while introducing new vocabulary or dealing with the grammatical points. His preparation should include choosing techniques of introducing new words and structures, selection of activities that he would introduce for practice and collection of audio-visual aids that he would use to clarify new words and difficult concepts.

Method of Lesson Planning

Each lesson should first be reviewed orally, which means the reading of material, verifying the meanings, checking pronunciation of new words and structures, concentrating on their spelling and paying attention to their use in daily communication. After oral preparation has been made, the teacher must write the lesson plan in his lesson preparation note-book in its proper format which is given below. It is not wise for the teacher to depend on his memory alone. He should note down all the steps he intends to follow in his lesson plan.

Step I: Objectives

Every lesson has two types of objectives, general and specific. Specific objectives are also known as instructional objectives. The teacher should write only instructional objectives of each lesson. These objectives should be stated clearly and appropriately, in a form, which makes their achievement easy. There are several ways

of stating the objectives, but the most useful form of stating the objectives is to express them in terms which identify both the kind of academic behaviour to be adopted by the student and the content or area in which this behaviour is to operate. For example:

A. After studying this lesson the students will be able to:

1. Understand and/ pronounce the following new words correctly.
2. Understand and use the following new structures correctly.
3. Undersea, and practice the following new grammatical points correctly.
4. Do the following exercises given in the book both orally and in writing.

The teacher should ensure that the instructional objectives are clear, definite, and easy to be achieved in one class period

Step 2: Revision of the Previous Lesson

Before starting his new lesson the teacher should revise the material taught a day earlier. This can best be done by asking questions about the previous vocabulary, structures and grammar. The teacher can use the poster or flash cards previously used in the class for quick revision. The objective of revision is to link the new lesson with the previous lesson and to motivate and prepare the learners for the new one. This has many other benefits too. It keeps the students on their toes and motivates them to review the lesson at home to be ready for revision by the teacher next morning. It works as a warm up exercise as well.

Step 3: Presentation

At this stage the teacher should announce his aim and inform the students about the lesson in hand. He should introduce the new topic orally and start with conversation on the relevant poster or the pictures given in the book. During his conversation the teacher may write the new words and structures on the board and teach pronunciation and meanings of these words. New vocabulary and structures should not be translated to the students but should be introduced by the following techniques:

1. by direct association: e.g., showing objects, models, pictures, e.g., plane, bus, train, (toys), pictures of animals, etc.

2. by drawing illustrations on board, e.g., shapes of various objects, trees, huts, mountains, bridges, etc.
3. by demonstration, miming, gestures etc. Most action verbs, adverbs and concrete adjectives can be taught by this technique, e.g., Fast, slowly, loudly, quietly, tired, painful, roaring, frowning, yawning, tall, short, fat, thin, etc.
4. by context: Using the words in contexts is much better than translating them in Arabic, e.g., This table is very heavy, I can't lift it

There is no light in the room It is dark.

The traffic on the road is very heavy.

This bag is light. I can carry it to the plane.

5. by association of ideas. Some words can be understood well if they are compared with their opposites. Easy synonyms are also helpful, e.g., Simple definitions and meaningful descriptions help the teachers avoid translation, e.g.,

It is easy; not difficult.

It is light not heavy.

Walk fast. Don't walk slowly.

When all the above techniques have all failed, the teacher is well advised to translate. It is of course a short-cut method of explaining difficult words, but should be used very sparingly and as a last resort. All efforts should be made to maintain an atmosphere of spoken English in the classroom.

Step 4. Practicing the new vocabulary and structure

The teacher can introduce many meaningful activities at this stage. Mechanical repetition and rote drill work should be avoided. Communicative activities should be encouraged. Board illustrations and posters can help a lot in facilitating practice. The learners can have paired practice The class can be divided in two teams and each team facing the other team can ask questions and give answers. Groups can work on a practice exercise under the supervision of the teacher. Chorus work of short duration is

an economical method of practicing in a large class. Calling some students in front of the class and asking them to write on the board or lead the class turn by turn is also an interesting activity.

The learning games can be introduced too. Team contest and group competition arouse students' interest and emotions in practicing the material. Moral encouragement and social approval are helpful ways of arousing enthusiasm in the class. Practice can be given by asking the students to make new words or match the given vocabulary or compare and contrast the given material. Word-building exercises provide a lot of fun and recreation

It is however essential that practice doesn't become boring and some challenge is added to the practice exercises. "Ring the word", "Guess what it is" and "predict what it would be" are some of the interesting exercises. Creative questions can also stir the students' imagination and provoke their thinking faculties, e.g.,

1. What would you do if you were in Hassan's place?
2. How would you solve this problem if you were put in this situation?
3. Which colour would you select and why?
4. Which cake would you take and why?
5. Which country would you like to visit next summer and why?
6. How would you make the airline booking?

Step 5: Reading and writing

The teacher must pay due attention to the development of all the four skills. The previous steps involved a lot of oral work. Revision is generally oral. Presentation is always oral and so is the practice. The teacher, therefore, should devote his attention to reading and writing activities.

The learners can be asked to read the lesson orally in the class. Students can be randomly selected for this purpose. Oral reading will provide further practice in pronunciation and intonation. In addition to reading from the textbook the teacher can use flash cards for promoting reading skills. Reading in groups, can provide maximum opportunity of reading to a large number of students.

In case the text is difficult the teacher can give a model reading. A tape can also be used as a model to be followed by oral reading by students. Pattern reading can also be followed. But it is useless to have reading round the class. Pronunciation mistakes can be written on board and they can be corrected at the end of one's reading. Students should however not be interrupted in the course of their reading unless it is a must.

Time should be saved for some writing in the class. As already stated above, the students can be asked to do such exercises as given in the textbooks. Certain exercises proposed in the teachers' books should also be undertaken. If the exercise is not completed in the class, the same can be assigned to learners as homework. The teacher must do spot- checking while the students are writing. He must correct the common mistakes collectively and guide his learners individually, as well.

Step 6: Revision and Recapitulation

The teachers generally lack sense of proportion and do not keep time while carrying out their activities. They prolong a certain activity to such an extent that the students get bored with that and start praying for the bell to ring. The period thus ends abruptly leaving no time for the teacher to revise his lesson or give homework to the class or to remind about the previous assignment. It is, therefore, suggested that teachers stop the last activity whether it is collective reading or individual writing or group work or pair work at least 5 minutes before the ringing of the bell and revise the lesson by asking suitable comprehension questions or inviting the students to have a dialogue or showing the flash cards to the learners to identify the learned vocabulary etc. By revising the lesson the teacher will have a feeling of satisfaction and the students will have a sense of accomplishment too.

Step 7: Homework

Towards the end of the class the teacher should not forget to assign homework to the learners. If not daily, at least two assignments a week should become a policy of the teachers. With four classes a week, It is not possible for a teacher to deliver the goods effectively without giving any homework.

Step 8: Audio Visual Aids

The teacher must mention in his lesson plan what aids he will use in his lesson in hand. It is observed with regret that the teachers are generally callous in preparing and gathering visual material and are equally apathetic in using them in their teaching. Instead of mentioning the names of objects, title of pictures, number of audio-cassettes, they generally write board, coloured markers and Students' book under this step. This looks ridiculous to mention Students' book and chalk as visual aids because they are supposed to be used regularly as compulsory material, and the teachers have no choice in the matter. The teachers should mention such material which could help them make their lesson interesting and effective i e., the posters, the flash cards, the illustrations, the pictures, the oral objects or their models, the tapes etc.

Some helpful suggestions for teachers in lesson planning and lesson delivering:

1. Lesson plan should be written in advance and not after delivering the lesson just to show it to the director or the supervisor.
2. Use of audio-visual aids should be considered as most important rather essential.
3. The language should be taught as one whole and all the four skills and their subordinate skills should be given attention in the course of teaching.
4. Interest is key to success. The teacher should try his utmost to avoid boredom. Whenever he finds signs of boredom on students' faces he should change his activity immediately.
5. The teachers must try their best to seek students' active participation in the lesson. This can be done by bringing in varied activities matching the students' interests.
6. The teacher should make extensive use of the board and make the maximum utilization of his handwriting and artistic skills.
7. The teacher should have a keen sense of proportion and distribute his time over various steps judiciously. He should ensure that no skill is ignored and no aspect of the lesson is left out.

Important Characteristics of Good Lesson Planning

Variety

Routine teaching brings monotony and causes demotivation. Similarity of activities makes students dull. Variety can, however, promote interest and kill boredom. Changing techniques of teaching, using varied devices, and bringing some outside material different from the one given in the textbook can ameliorate the boring situation generally faced by the unimaginative teachers. They should know what they are going to achieve. Moreover, the duration of each activity should not be more than a few minutes.

Flexibility

This means ability to use any number of different techniques and not to stick to one particular method or activity rigidly. The teacher should always be flexible and never become a slave of either the textbook or any method or approach. While teaching he shouldn't hesitate in making a departure from the proposed outline if the students get bored or the class situation demands so.

Balance

This means giving due attention to all the four skills in a particular lesson unless the objectives of a lesson demand otherwise. An ideal balance can be exercised in a lesson by giving proportionate attention to the basic four skills and their off-shoots. Balance should be created between:

1. teachers' presentation and class practice.
2. oral work and written work.
3. learners' reception and reproduction.
4. controlled work and free work.

Activities

Activity means what generally the students are going to do or should do in order to learn or practice a certain element of the lesson.

Examples:

Listening to a story; writing a story or a paragraph; conversation, chorus work, group work, pair work, using flash cards, pictures, word cards, posters; listening to a tape, singing, clapping, team competition, group contest, learning games, role-playing, dramatization, oral reading, silent reading, oral work, free work practicing with computer or with the video cassette.

All the above noted activities are useful, productive and interesting provided they are skilfully conducted and properly organized. No single activity should be spread over the whole period. The principle of variety should always dominate. New activities should be planned in the light of what the students have been doing previously so that the students could see a change and feel the difference, e.g.,

free work should follow controlled work

written work should follow oral work

Any relaxing activity after a tiresome work e.g., silent study after chorus work. Balanced activity program should always be kept in view and each activity should have a motivating effect on students.

Use of Mother Tongue

Using mother tongue in English classes is generally considered obsolete and undesirable. The teachers are asked to teach English through the medium of English and to avoid the intervention of the mother tongue at all costs. Direct method was the first to wage a war against translation method and to strictly prohibit the use of mother tongue. Audio-lingual approach followed suit but allowed a minimum use of the mother tongue. Cognitive Code learning, however, was comparatively liberal and permitted the use of mother tongue in teaching certain areas. The communicative approach also allowed the restricted use of the mother tongue. But not a single approach except the grammar – translation method gives complete freedom of using mother tongue. (Shaikh, 1993)

Activities

Write a lesson plan. The plan should include:

- the objectives of the lesson;
- new vocabulary or structures;
- the main stages of activity;
- detailed notes of each stage;
- any visual aids you need;

Use the lesson plan sample given in the following page.

A Sample Lesson Plan

Date: / / Unit: 1 (New People) Lesson: 2 Class: 1/A

Objectives	New Language	Procedure & Materials	Evaluation
<p>By the end of the lesson Ss will be able to:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Read and complete the missing information. 2) Use "have got", "has not got", and verb to "be". 3) Talk about times and school subjects. 	<p>Vocabulary:</p> <p>Magazine, countries, pen friends, language/s, difficult, beautiful, Japanese, Arabic, grammar, Turkey, Turkish, speak, England, spelling, easy.</p> <p>Structures:</p> <p>have got..... has got..... has not got.....</p>	<p>Review:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) How old are you? 2) Where were you born? 3) What's your last name? <p>Presentation:</p> <p>Introduce the topic orally. Present the new vocabulary.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - While books open, read the text/s as a model and Ss listen. - Point at the new words and structures. - Read again. Ss listen & repeat twice. - Repeat the new words again. - Present the structure 'have got', 'has got', and 'has not got'. Give examples using these structures. <p>Practice:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Ss are asked to read individually. 2) Ss are asked to read and complete the missing information in the table. 3) Ss are asked to give sentences using the new given structures. <p>Teacher Aids:</p> <p>Flash cards and pictures</p> <p>Homework: (workbook 1, p. 2)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Have Ss read and complete the table. - Have Ss write about themselves. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Read a segment from the reading material orally. - Give sentences using the new words. - Give sentences using the new structures. - Talk about yourself.

2 The Grammar-Translation Method

INTRODUCTION

The Grammar-Translation Method is not new. It has had different names, but it has been used by language teachers for many years. At one time it was called Classical Method since it was first used in the teaching of the classical languages, Latin and Greek. Earlier in this century, this method was used for the purpose of helping students read and appreciate foreign language literature. It was also hoped that, through the study of the grammar of the target language, students would become more familiar with the grammar of their native language and that this familiarity would help them speak and write their native language better. Finally, it was thought that foreign language learning would help students grow intellectually; it was recognized that students would probably never use the target language, but the mental exercise of learning it would be beneficial anyway.

Principles

The Principles of the Grammar-Translation Method are identified as follows:

1. A fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language is to be able to read its literature. Literary language is superior to spoken language. Students' study of the foreign culture is limited to its literature and fine arts.
2. An important goal is for students to be able to translate each language into the other. If students can translate from one language into another, they are considered successful language learners.
3. The ability to communicate in the target language is not a goal of foreign language instruction.
4. The primary skills to be developed are reading and writing. Little attention is given to speaking and listening, and almost none to pronunciation.
5. The teacher is the authority in the classroom. It is very important that students get the correct answer.
6. It is possible to find native language equivalents for all target language words.

7. Learning is facilitated through attention to similarities between the target language and the native language.
8. It is important for students to learn about the form of the target language.
9. Deductive application of an explicit grammar rule is a useful pedagogical technique.
10. Language learning provides good mental exercise.
11. Students should be conscious of the grammatical rules of the target language.
12. Wherever possible, verb conjugations and other grammatical paradigms should be committed to memory.

Techniques

There are some useful techniques associated with the Grammar-Translation Method. Below is an expanded description of some of these techniques.

Translation of a Literary Passage

Students translate a reading passage from the target language into their native language. The reading passage then provides the focus for several classes: vocabulary and grammatical structures in the passage are studied in subsequent lessons. The passage may be excerpted from some work from the target language literature, or a teacher may write a passage carefully designed to include particular grammar rules and vocabulary. The translation may be written or spoken or both. Students should not translate idioms and the like literally, but rather in a way that shows that they understand their meaning.

Reading Comprehension Questions

Students answer questions in the target language based on their understanding of the reading passage. Often the questions are sequenced so that the first group of questions asks for information contained within the reading passage. In order to answer the second group of questions, students will have to make inferences based on their understanding of the passage. This means they will have to answer questions about the

passage even though the answers are not contained in the passage itself. The third group of questions requires students to relate the passage to their own experience.

Antonyms/Synonyms

Students are given one set of words and are asked to find antonyms in the reading passage. A similar exercise could be done by asking student to find synonyms for a particular set of word. Or students might be asked to define a set of words based on their understanding of them they occur in the reading passage. Other exercises that ask students to work with the vocabulary of the passage are also possible. (Allen 1983).

Cognates

Students are taught to recognize cognates by learning the spelling or sound patterns that correspond between the languages. Students are also asked to memorize words that look like cognates but have meanings in the target language that are different from those in the native language. This technique, of course, would only be useful in the native languages that share cognates.

Deductive Application of Rule

Grammar rules are presented with examples. Exceptions to each rule are also noted. Once students understand a rule, they are asked to apply it to some different examples.

Fill-in-the-Blanks

Students are given a series of sentences with words missing. They fill in the blanks with new vocabulary items or with items of a particular grammar type, such as prepositions or verbs with different tenses.

Memorization

Students are given lists of target language vocabulary words and their native language equivalents and are asked to memorize them. Students are also required to memorize grammatical rules and grammatical paradigms such as verb conjugations.

Use Words in Sentences

In order to show that students understand the meaning and use of a new vocabulary item, they make up sentences in which they use the new words.

Composition

The teacher gives the students a topic to write about in the target language. The topic is based upon some aspect of the reading passage of the lesson. Sometimes, instead of creating a composition, students are asked to prepare a precis of the reading passage.

CONCLUSION

Do you believe that a fundamental reason for learning a foreign language is to be able to read the literature written in the target language? Do you think it is important to learn *about* the target language? Should culture be viewed as consisting of literature and the fine arts? Do you agree with the other principles underlying the Grammar-Translation Method? Which ones?

Is translation a valuable exercise? Is answering reading comprehension questions of the type described here helpful? Should grammar be presented deductively? Are these or any of the other techniques of the Grammar-Translation Method ones which will be useful to you in your own teaching? Which ones?

Activities

A. Check your understanding of the Grammar-Translation Method.

1. In your own words explain the difference between learning about a language and learning to use a language.
2. Why do you think this method is one that has been derived from the teaching of the classical languages, Latin and Greek?

B. Apply what you have understood about the Grammar-Translation Method.

I. Think of a particular group of students you have recently taught or are currently teaching. Choose a reading passage from a literary work or a textbook or write one yourself. Make sure it is at a level your students can understand, yet not at a level that would be too simple for them. Try translating it yourself as a test of its difficulty. Identify the vocabulary you would choose to work on. Plan vocabulary exercises you would use to help your students associate the new words with their native language equivalents.

2. Pick a grammatical point or two contained in the same passage. Provide the explicit grammar rule that relates to each one and give some examples. Design exercises that require your students to apply the rule to some different examples.

3 THE DIRECT METHOD

INTRODUCTION

As with the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method is not new. Its principles have been applied by language teachers for many years. Most recently, it was revived as a method when the goal of instruction became learning how to use a foreign language to communicate. Since the Grammar-Translation Method was not very effective in preparing students to use the target language communicatively, the Direct Method became popular. The Direct Method has one very basic rule: No translation is allowed. In fact, the Direct Method receives its name from the fact that meaning is to be connected directly with the target language, without going through the process of translating into the students' native language.

Principles

The Principles of the Direct Method can be identified as follows:

1. Reading in the target language should be taught from the beginning of language instruction; however, the reading skill will be developed through practice with speaking. Language is primarily speech. Culture consists of more than the fine arts.
2. Objects (e.g., realia or pictures) present in the immediate classroom environment should be used to help students understand the meaning.
3. The native language should not be used in the classroom.
4. The teacher should demonstrate, not explain or translate. It is desirable that students make a direct association between target meaning and language.
5. Students should learn to think in the target language as soon as possible. Vocabulary is acquired more naturally if students use it in full sentences, rather than memorizing word lists.
6. The purpose of language learning is communication (therefore students need to learn how to ask questions as well as answer them)
7. Pronunciation should be worked on right from the beginning of language instruction.

8. Self-correction facilitates language learning.
9. Lessons should contain some conversational activity—some opportunity for students to use language in real contexts. Students should be encouraged to speak as much as possible.
10. Grammar should be taught inductively. There may never be an explicit grammar rule given.
11. Writing is an important skill, to be developed from the beginning of language instruction.
12. The Syllabus is based on situations or topics, not usually on linguistic structures.
13. Learning another language also involves learning how speakers of that language live.

The following is an extended review of some useful techniques associated with the Direct Method.

Techniques:

Reading Aloud

Students take turns reading sections of a passage, play, or dialog out loud. At the end of each student's turn, the teacher uses gestures, pictures, realia, examples, or other means to make the meaning of the section clear.

Question and Answer Exercise

This exercise is conducted only in the target language. Students are asked questions and answer in full sentences so that they practice with new words and grammatical structure. They have the opportunity to ask questions as well as answer them.

Getting Students to Self-correct

The Teacher has to ask the students to make a choice between what they said and an alternate answer he supplied. There are, however, other ways of getting students to self-correct. For example, a teacher might simply repeat what a student has

just said, using a questioning voice to signal to the student that something was wrong with it. Another possibility is for the teacher to repeat what the student said, stopping just before the error. student knows that the next word was wrong.

Conversation Practice

The teacher asks students a number of questions in the target language, which the students have to understand to be able to answer correctly. The teacher may ask individual students questions about themselves. The questions contained a particular grammar structure. Later, the students were able to ask each other their own questions using the same grammatical structure.

Fill-in-the-Blank Exercise

This technique has already been discussed in the Grammar-Translation Method, but differs in its application in the Direct Method. All the items are in the target language; furthermore, no explicit grammar rule would be applied. The students would have induced the grammar rule they need to fill in the blanks from examples and practice with earlier parts of the lesson.

Dictation

The teacher reads the passage three times. The first time the teacher reads it at a normal speed, while the students just listen. The second time he reads the passage phrase by phrase, pausing long enough to allow students to write down what they have heard. The last time the teacher again reads at a normal speed, and students check their work.

Map Drawing

It is one example of a technique used to give students listening comprehension practice. The students are given a map with the geographical features unnamed. Then the teacher gives the students directions, such as the following, "Find the mountain range in the West. Write the words 'Rocky Mountains' across the mountain range." He gives instructions for all the geographical features of the United States so that students

would have a completely labelled map if they followed his instructions correctly. The students then instruct the teacher to do the same thing with a map he has drawn on the board. Each student could have a turn giving the teacher instructions for finding and labelling one geographical feature.

Paragraph Writing

The teacher asks the students to write a paragraph in their words on the major geographical features of the United States. They could have done this from memory, or they could have used the reading passage in the lesson as a model.

CONCLUSION

Now that you have considered the principles and the techniques of the Direct Method somewhat, see what you can find of use for your own teaching situation.

Do you agree that the goal of target language instruction should be to teach students how to communicate in the target language? Does it make sense to you that the students' native language should not be used to give meaning to the target language? Do you agree that the culture that is taught should be about people's daily lives in addition to the fine arts? Should students be encouraged to self-correct? Are there any other principles of the Direct Method in which you believe in? Which ones?

Is dictation a worthwhile activity? Have you used question-and-answer exercises and conversation practice as described here before? If not, should you? Is paragraph writing a useful thing to ask students to do? Should grammar be presented inductively? Are there any other techniques of the Direct Method which you would consider adopting? Which ones?

ACTIVITIES

A. Check your understanding of the Direct Method.

1. In the previous chapter on the Grammar-Translation Method, we learned that grammar was treated deductively. In the Direct Method, grammar is treated inductively. Can you explain the difference between deductive and inductive treatments of grammar?

2. What are some of the characteristics of the Direct Method that make it so distinctive from the Grammar-Translation Method?

3. It has been said that it may be advantageous to a teacher using the Direct Method not to know his students' native language. Do you agree? Why?

B. Apply what you have understood about the Direct Method.

1. Choose a particular situation (such as at the bank, at the railroad station, or at the doctor's office) or a particular topic (such as articles of clothing, holidays, or the weather) and write a short passage dialog on the theme you have chosen. Now think about how you will convey its meaning to a class.

2. Select a grammar point from the passage. Plan how you will get students to practice the grammar point. Who examples can you provide them with so that they Can induce the rule themselves?

3. Practice writing and giving dictation as it is described in this chapter.

4 THE AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD

INTRODUCTION

The Audio-Lingual Method, like the Direct Method we have just examined, has a goal very different from that of the Grammar-Translation Method. The Audio-Lingual Method was developed in the United States during World War II. At that time there was a need for people to learn foreign languages rapidly for military purposes. As we have seen, the Grammar-Translation Method did not prepare people to use the target language. While communication in the target language was the goal of the Direct Method, there were at the time exciting new ideas about language and learning emanating from the disciplines of descriptive linguistics and behavioural psychology. These ideas led to the development of the Audio-Lingual Method. Some of the principles are similar to those of the Direct Method, but many are different, having been based upon conceptions of language and learning from these two disciplines.

Principles

The principles underlying the Audio-lingual Method can be described as follows:

1. Language forms do not occur by themselves; they occur the most naturally within a context.
2. The native language and the target language have separate linguistic systems. They should be kept apart so that the students' native language interferes as little as possible with the students' attempts to acquire the target language.
3. One of the teacher's major roles is that of a model of the target language. Teachers should provide students with a native-speaker-like model. By listening to how it is supposed to sound, students should be able to mimic the model.
4. Language learning is a process of habit formation. The more often something is repeated, the stronger the habit and the greater the learning.
5. It is important to prevent learners from making errors. Errors lead to the formation of bad habits. When errors do occur, they should be immediately corrected by the teacher.

6. The purpose of language learning is to learn how to use the language to communicate.
7. Particular parts of speech occupy particular "slots" in sentences. In order to create new sentences, students must learn which part of speech occupies which slot.
8. Positive reinforcement helps the students to develop correct habits.
9. Students should learn to respond to both verbal and nonverbal stimuli.
10. Each language has a finite number of patterns. Pattern practice helps students to form habits which enable the students to use the patterns.
11. Students should "overlearn," i.e., learn to answer automatically without stopping to think.
12. The teacher should be like an orchestra leader—conducting, guiding, and controlling the students' behavior in the target language.
13. The major objective of language teaching should be for students to acquire the structural patterns; students will learn vocabulary afterward
14. The learning of a foreign language should be the same as the acquisition of the native language. We do not need to memorize rules in order to use our native language. The rules necessary to use the target language will be figured out or induced from examples.
15. The major challenge of foreign language teaching is getting students to overcome the habits of their native language. A comparison between the native and target language will tell the teacher in what areas her students will probably experience difficulty.
16. Speech is more basic to language than the written form. The "natural order"—the order children follow when learning their native language—of skill acquisition is: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
17. Language cannot be separated from culture. Culture is not only literature and the arts, but also the everyday behavior of the people who use the target language. One of the teacher's responsibilities is to present information about that culture.

Techniques

Below is a description of some useful techniques associated with the Audio-Lingual Method:

Dialog Memorization

Dialogs or short conversations between two people are often used to begin a new lesson. Students memorize the dialog through mimicry (sometime this is referred to as "mim-mem"); students usually take the role of one person in the dialog, and the teacher the other. After the students have learned the one person's lines, they switch roles and memorize the other person's part. Another way of practicing the two roles is for half of the class to take one role and the other half to take the other. After the dialog has been memorized, pairs of individual students might perform the dialog for the rest of the class.

In the Audio-Lingual Method, certain sentence patterns and grammar points are included within the dialog. These patterns and points are later practiced in drills based on the lines of the dialog.

Backward Build-up (Expansion) Drill

This drill is used when a long line of a dialog is giving students trouble. The teacher breaks down the line into several parts. The students repeat a part of the sentence, usually the last phrase of the line. Then, following the teacher's cue, the students expand what they are repeating part by part until they are able to repeat the entire line. The teacher begins with the part at the end of the sentence (and works backward from there) to keep the intonation of the line as natural as possible. This also directs more student attention to the end of the sentence, where new information typically occurs.

Repetition Drill

Students are asked to repeat the teacher's model as accurately and as quickly as possible. This drill is often used to teach the lines of the dialog.

Chain Drill

A chain drill gets its name from the chain of conversation that forms around the room as students, one-by-one, ask and answer questions of each other. The teacher begins the chain by greeting a particular student, or asking him a question. That student responds, then turns to the student sitting next to him. The first student greets or asks a question of the second student and the chain continues. A chain drill allows some controlled communication, even though it is limited. A chain drill also gives the teacher an opportunity to check each student's speech.

Single-slot Substitution Drill

The teacher says a line, usually from the dialog. Next, the teacher says a word or a phrase—called the cue. The students repeat the line the teacher has given them, substituting the cue into the line in its proper place. The major purpose of this drill is to give the students practice in finding and filling in the slots of a sentence.

Multiple-slot Substitution Drill

This drill is similar to the single-slot substitution drill. The difference is that the teacher gives cue phrases, one at a time, that fit into different slots in the dialog line. The students must recognize what part of speech each cue is, where it fits into the sentence, and make any other changes, such as subject-verb agreement. They then say the line, fitting the cue phrase into the line where it belongs.

Transformation Drill

The teacher gives students a certain kind of sentence, an affirmative sentence for example. Students are asked to transform this sentence into a negative sentence. Other examples of transformations to ask of students are changing a statement into a question, an active sentence into a passive one, or direct speech into reported speech.

Question-and-Answer Drill

This drill gives students practice with answering questions. The students should answer the teacher's questions very quickly. It is also possible for the teacher to cue the students to ask questions as well. This gives students practice with the question pattern.

Use of Minimal Pairs

The teacher works with pairs of words which differ in only one sound; for example, "ship/sheep." Students are first asked to perceive the difference between the two words and later to be able to say the two words. The teacher selects the sounds to work on after she has done a contrastive analysis, a comparison between the students' native language and the language they are studying.

Complete the Dialog

Selected words are erased from a dialog students have learned. Students complete the dialog by filling in the blanks with the missing words.

Grammar Game

Games like the supermarket alphabet game are often used in the Audio-Lingual Method. The games are designed to get students to practice a grammar point within a context. Students are able to express themselves, although it is rather limited in this game. Notice there is also a lot of repetition in this game.

On Friday, the teacher leads the class in the "supermarket alphabet game." The game starts with a student who needs a food item beginning with the letter "A". The student says, "I am going to the supermarket. He needs a few apples." The next student says, "I am going to the supermarket. I need a few apples. I need a little bread (or "a few bananas" or any other food item you could find in the supermarket beginning with the letter "B")." The third student continues, "I am going to the supermarket. He needs a few apples, she needs a little bread, I need a little cheese." The game continues with each player adding an item that begins with the next letter in the alphabet. Before adding his own item, however, each player must mention the items of the other students before

him. If the student has difficulty thinking of an item, the other students or the teacher helps.

CONCLUSION

We've looked at both the techniques and the principles of the Audio-Lingual Method. Try now to make the bridge between this book and your teaching situation.

Does it make sense to you that language acquisition results from habit formation? If so, will the habits of the native language interfere with target language learning? Should the commission of errors be prevented as much as possible? Should the major focus be on the structural patterns of the target language? Which of these or the other principles of the Audio-Lingual Method are acceptable to you?

Is a dialog a useful way to introduce new material? Should it be memorized through mimicry of the teacher's model? Are structure drills valuable pedagogical activities? Is working on pronunciation through drills a worthwhile activity? Would you say these techniques (or any others of the Audio-Lingual Method) are ones that you can use as described? Could you adapt any of them to your own teaching approach and situation?

ACTIVITIES

A. Check your understanding of the Audio-Lingual Method.

1. Which of the following techniques follows from the principles of the Audio-Lingual Method, and which ones don't? Explain the reasons for your answer.

- a) The teacher asks beginning English as a foreign language (EFL) students to write a composition about the system of transportation in their home countries. If they need a vocabulary word that they don't know they are told to look in a bilingual dictionary for a translation.
- b) Toward the end of the third week of the course, the teacher gives EFL students a reading passage. The teacher asks the students to read the passage and to answer certain questions based upon it. The passage contains words and structures introduced during the first three weeks of the course.
- c) The teacher tells the EFL students that they must add an "s" to third person singular verbs in the present tense in English. She then gives the students a list of verbs and asks them to transform the verbs into the third person singular present tense form.

2. Some people believe that knowledge of a first and second language can be helpful to learners who are trying to learn a third language.

What would an Audio-Lingual teacher say about this? Why?

B. Apply what you have understood about the Audio-Lingual Method.

1. Read the following dialog. What structure is it trying to teach?

SAM: Lou's going to go to college next fall.

BETTY: What is he going to study?

SAM: He's going to study biology. He's going to be a doctor.

BETTY: Where is he going to study?

SAM: He's going to study at Stanford.

Prepare a series of drills (backward build-up, repetition, chain, single. slot substitution, multiple-slot substitution, transformation, and question-and-answer) designed to give beginning level EFL students some practice with this structure. If the target language that you teach is not English, you may wish to write your own dialog first. It is not easy to prepare drills, so for some extra practice you might want to try giving yours to some other teachers.

2. Prepare your own dialog to introduce Your students to the "be going to" structure, or some structure in the target language you teach.

5 THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

INTRODUCTION

You may have noticed that originators of most of the methods discussed in this book take as their primary goal enabling students to communicate using the target language. Many of these same methodologists emphasize the acquisition of linguistic structures or vocabulary. Adherents of the Communicative Approach, which we will consider acknowledge that structures and vocabulary are important. However, they feel that preparation/for communication will be inadequate if only these are taught. Students may know the rules of language *usage*, but will be unable to *use* the language.

When we communicate, we use the language to accomplish some function, such as arguing, persuading, or promising. Moreover, we carry out these functions within a social context. A speaker will choose a particular way to express his argument not only based upon his intent and his level of emotion, but also on whom he is addressing and what his relationship with that person is. For example, he may be more direct in arguing with his friend than with his employer.

Furthermore, since communication is a process, it is insufficient for students to simply have knowledge of the target language forms, Meanings, and functions. Students must be able to apply this knowledge in negotiating meaning. It is through the interaction between speaker and listener (or reader and writer) that meaning becomes clear. The listener gives the speaker feedback as to whether or not he understands what the speaker has said. In this way, the speaker can revise what he has said and try to communicate his intended meaning again, if necessary.

Principles

The principles of the communicative approach can be figured out as follows:

1. Whenever possible, "authentic language"—language as it is used in a real context—should be introduced.
2. Being able to figure out the speaker's or writer's intentions is part of being communicatively competent.

3. The target language is a vehicle for classroom communication, not just the object of study.
4. One function can have many different linguistic forms. Since the focus of the course is on real language use, a variety of linguistic forms are presented together.
5. Students should work with language at the discourse or supra-sentential (above the sentence) level. They must learn about cohesion and coherence, those properties of language which bind the sentences together.
6. Games are important because they have certain features in common with real communicative events—there is a purpose to the exchange. Also, the speaker receives immediate feedback from the listener on whether or not she has successfully communicated. Having students work in small groups maximizes the amount of communicative practice they receive.
7. Students should be given an opportunity to express their ideas and opinions.
8. Errors are tolerated and seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills. Students' success is determined as much by their fluency as it is by their accuracy.
9. One of the teacher's major responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication.
10. Communicative interaction encourages cooperative relationships among students. It gives students an opportunity to work on negotiating meaning.
11. The social context of the communicative event is essential in giving meaning to the utterances.
12. Learning to use Language forms appropriately is an important part of communicative competence.
13. The teacher acts as an advisor during communicative activities.
14. In communicating, a speaker has a choice not only about what to say, but also how to say it.
15. The grammar and vocabulary that the students learn follow from the function, situational context, and the roles of the interlocutors.

16. Students should be given opportunities develop strategies for interpreting language as it is actually used by native speakers (Littlewood 1981).

Techniques and Materials

The following is a review of the techniques and materials associated with the communicative approach.

Authentic Materials

To overcome the typical problem that students cannot transfer what they learn in the classroom to the outside world and to expose students to natural language in a variety of situations, adherents of the Communicative Approach advocate the use of authentic language materials. The teacher may use a copy of a genuine newspaper article. He also assigns the students homework, requiring they listen to a live radio or television broadcast. Of course, this may occur at the high intermediate level of proficiency. For students with lower proficiency in the target language, it may not be possible to use authentic language materials such as these. Simpler authentic materials (for example, the use of a weather forecast when working on predictions), or at least ones that are realistic, are most desirable. It is not so important that the materials be genuine as it is that they be used authentically.

Another possibility for the use of authentic materials with a lower level class is to use realia that do not contain a lot of language, but about which a lot of discussion could be generated. Menus in the target language are an example; timetables are another.

Scrambled Sentences

The students are given a passage (a text) in which the sentences are in a scrambled order. This may be a passage they have worked with or one they haven't seen before. They are told to unscramble the sentences so that the sentences are restored to their original order. This type of exercise teaches students about the cohesion and coherence properties of language. They learn how sentences are bound together at the supra-sentential level through formal linguistic devices such as anaphoric

pronouns, which make a text cohesive, and semantic pro-positions, which unify a text and make it coherent.

In addition to written passages, students might also be asked to unscramble the lines of a mixed-up dialog. Or they might be asked to put the pictures of a picture strip story in order and write lines to accompany the pictures.

Language Games

Games are used frequently in the Communicative Approach. The students find them enjoyable, and if they are properly designed, they give students valuable communicative practice. Games that are truly communicative, according to Morrow (in Johnson and Morrow 1981), have the three features of communication: information gap, choice, and feedback.

These three features were manifest in the card game are in the following way: An information gap existed because the speaker did not know what her classmate was going to do the following weekend. The speaker had a choice as to what she would predict (which sport) and how she would predict it (which form her prediction would take). The speaker received feedback from the members of her group. If her prediction was incomprehensible, then none of the members of her group would respond. If she got a meaningful response, she could presume her prediction was understood.

Picture Strip Story

Many activities can be done with picture strip stories. We suggested one in our discussion of scrambled sentences. In this activity, one student in a small group was given a strip story. She showed the first picture of the story to the other members of her group and asked them to predict what the second picture would look like. An information gap existed—the students in the groups did not know what the picture contained. They had a choice as to what their prediction would be and how they would word it. They received feedback, not on the form but on the content of the prediction, by being able to view the picture and compare it with their prediction.

The activity just described is an example of using a problem-solving task as a communicative technique. Problem-solving tasks work well in the Communicative Approach because they usually include the three features of communication. What's more, they can be structured so that students share information or work together to arrive at a solution. This gives students practice in negotiating meaning

Role-play

Role-plays are very important in the Communicative Approach because they give students an opportunity to practice communicating in different social contexts and in different social roles. Role-plays can be set up so that they are very structured (for example, the teacher tells the students who they are and what they should say) or in a less structured way (for example, the teacher tells the students who they are, what the situation is, and what they are talking about, but the students determine what they will say). The latter is more in keeping with the Communicative Approach, of course, because it gives the students more of a choice. Notice that role-plays structured like this also provide information gaps since students cannot be sure (as with most forms of communication) what the other person or people will say (there's a natural unpredictability). Students also receive feedback on whether or not they have effectively communicated.

CONCLUSION

Perhaps the greatest contribution of the Communicative Approach is asking teachers to look closely at what is involved in communication. If teachers intend students to use the target language, then they must truly understand all that being communicatively competent entails.

Do you agree with this expanded view of communicative competence? Is achieving communicative competence a goal for which you should prepare your students? Would you adopt a functional syllabus? Should a variety of language forms be presented at one time? Are there times when you would emphasize fluency over accuracy? Do these or any other principles of the Communicative Approach make sense to you?

Would you ever use language games, problem-solving tasks, or role-plays? Should all your activities include the three features of communication? Should authentic language be used? Are there any other techniques or materials of the Communicative Approach that you would find useful?

Activities

A. Check your understanding of the Communicative Approach.

1. Explain in your own words Morrow's three features of communication: information gap, choice, and feedback. Choose one of the activities in the lesson we observed and say whether or not these three features are present.
2. Why do we say that communication is a process? What does it mean to negotiate meaning?
3. What does it mean to say that the linguistic forms a speaker uses should be appropriate to social context?

B. Apply what you have understood about the Communicative Approach.

1. If you wanted to introduce your friend Paula to Roger, you might say:

Roger, this is (my friend) Paula.

I would like to meet Paula.

Let me present Paula to you.

Roger, meet Paula.

Allow me to introduce Paula.

In other words, there are a variety of forms for this one function. Which would you teach to a beginning class, an intermediate class, an advanced class? Why?

List linguistic forms you can use for the function of inviting. Which would you teach to beginners? To intermediates? To an advanced class?

2. Imagine that you are working with your students on the function of requesting information. The authentic material you have selected is a railroad timetable. Design a communicative game or problem-solving task in which the timetable is used to give your students practice in requesting information.

3. Plan a role-play to work on the same function as in Exercise 2.

6 The Teaching of Listening

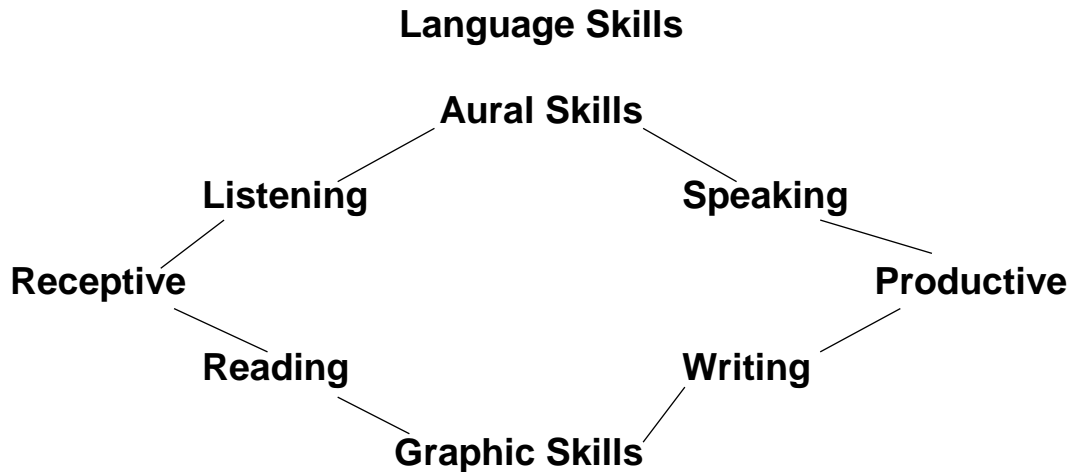
INTRODUCTION

Language instruction includes four important skills. These skills are Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. The main reasons for isolating these skills and discussing them separately is to highlight their importance and to impress upon the teachers to place emphasis on their teaching and deal with them in a balanced way. Some language skills are neglected during the classroom practice and hence they are given insufficient and inadequate exposure. Research shows that listening and speaking are nearly neglected and not well recognized by most EFL teachers. these skills are largely considered as passive skills.

Language approaches are criticized for giving unbalanced concern and emphasis on the four language skills. Some language skills are emphasized while others are neglected. Grammar translation, for example, emphasizes the teaching of reading and writing skills while neglecting oral skills. On the other hand, the direct and audiolingual approaches pay maximum attention to the teaching of listening and speaking skills but little attention to reading and writing.

Language skills are divided into receptive and productive ones. The receptive skills include listening and reading while the productive ones are speaking and writing. Language skills could also be divided into aural and graphic ones. The aural skills deal with listening and speaking ability while the graphic skills focus on reading and writing (see figure 1). Extensive exposure to receptive skills leads to the productive one. Wilkins (1984:100) maintains that "the transfer of linguistic knowledge from receptive to productive is probably a relatively slow process, but it does take place as the study of language acquisition shows " Hence, a rich exposure to listening and reading is required to attain mastery and proficiency in natural production. This production becomes true if the learner himself is active in learning the language. Hence, it is erroneous to think that receptive skills are passive.

Figure 1



Procedures in Teaching Listening

1. Identify the purpose for the listening exercise or activity before getting students to listen to the prepared material.
2. Supply them with written material which is necessary for them to complete their task before they begin to engage in listening. Always remember to inform them about what they are going to do after listening to the material.
3. Give them an example of the type of task to do after listening to the exercise or activity.
4. Read, tell or give listening material with emphasis on normal speed and intonation patterns. Be certain not to slow down reading or telling the listening material to avoid distorting stress and intonation.
5. Repeat the listening exercise or activity once again if necessary depending on the length and difficulty of listening content.
6. Supply them with an answer key and let them correct their own answers and record their own scores.
7. Monitor and check their corrections and performance. Give praise words to those who do well and give remedial exercises to those who are having problems.

Techniques in Teaching Listening

1. An EFL teacher can read orally a piece of literature such as a passage, play or poem in a natural manner. The reading [of dialogue] should sound as normal, natural, lively and meaningful as possible. This will help students to acquire the native language sounds. Gradually students will be familiar with the features and sounds of pauses, stresses, tones, rhythm and intonation.
2. An EFL teacher can play a recorded play, poem, speech prepared by native speakers with necessary pauses and fillers, false starts and idioms. This exercise proves effective and useful if it is used as part of the language laboratory program. The exercise will help train EFL learners' ears to listen to all the features of pronunciation and to recognize the elements of the target language sounds. Gradually students will be able to distinguish different sounds, stress, intonation and rhythm. These features can be mastered after comprehensive exposure to the target language and conscious effort made by the EFL learners.
3. An EFL teacher can ask his students to listen and imitate various aspects of pronunciation of the target language while a recorded segment of actual dialogue and casual conversation is playing. The teacher can make use of special ESL/EFL records for this learning purpose. He can also utilize the Chorus Method to reinforce the accuracy of oral production of his students. Fluent listening results only from wide exposure to the target language and much practice in a variety of topics and situations.
4. An EFL teacher can tell a short story about a pleasant and humorous incident that happened to him or someone else in order to provide his students with varied, interesting and useful device for listening. This variation in initiating oral materials will enhance the students' listening capability. He should make sure not to stick with the assigned material. He should try to minimize listening boredom by using a variety of listening activities.
5. An EFL teacher can use taped segments in his class from selected radio, video and television programs. The topics of these segments should include news, weather forecasts, talk shows, guessing games, interviews (of dialogue/conversation), cooking programs and dramatization. Listening to a

broadcast is a useful tool to improve the students' pronunciation, intonation and tone. These topics provide exposure to live language and meaningful issues of the target language. Afterwards, he should develop several questions to measure the listening comprehension of his students. It is important that the students have some tangible record of how they are performing and progressing in listening comprehension. Live language, in contrast to the contrived one, demonstrates and reflects variations in intonation, emotional overtone, redundancy, in terms of morphological and syntactic elements, as well as pauses, fillers, false starts, colloquialisms and register i.e., a speech variety. Live language also helps students understand a native speaker when he utters the language at normal speed in unstructured contexts and situations. Live language assures the students that the target language is manageable, functional and unrestricted for use behind the four walls of the classroom.

6. An EFL teacher can provide his students with plenty of exercises on minimal pairs to enhance their ability to differentiate sounds. In a minimal pair, i.e., a minimal contrast exercise, the teacher gives students two words in the target language which are pronounced alike except for a single distinctive sound (i.e. one phoneme). This phonemic difference leads to changes.

As an example of vowel contrasts, we may have the following minimal pairs:

till	tell	staff	stuff	gone	gown
ten	ton	flee	flay	fond	found
hill	hale	treat	trait	lease	less
cob	cub	real	rail	tuck	talk

Consonant contrasts are located in three positions: initial, medial and final. An example of minimal pair exercise of English consonants is as follows:

<u>Initial</u>	<u>Medial</u>	<u>Final</u>
pad bad	rapid rabid	cup cub
pair bear	staple stable	gap gab
pain bine	ample amble	tap tab

Moreover, vowel contrasts or consonant contrasts could be given in context, not in isolation under columns. Examples of sentences with vowel or consonant contrasts are as follows:

- a- That thing is thin.
- b- He kept his fan in the van.
- c- African sheep are not cheap.

7. An EFL teacher can use the Auditory Memory drill to enhance students ability to remember and repeat immediately, in a sequential order, what is heard. In this drill, the teacher asks his students to listen carefully to series of words or numbers, remember them and then say what they have listened to, i.e., digits, license number, phone number and address. The series of words and numbers may deal with the related or unrelated words of a short story. He might say one of the following:

- a. pen paper pencil
- b. orange grape pear
- c. 5 9 2 7
- d. 2 0 6 2 9 7 1

and then ask his students to repeat them quickly in the same consecutive order as presented above. This activity encourages the students to listen attentively and enhances their memory to recall the data immediately.

8. An EFL teacher can give short dictations on particular topics, which might deal, for example, with numerical information, places, colors, foods, dates, and times. Passages for dictation should contain only familiar material. Dictation practice

should be followed by listening comprehension questions. The selected dictation should be arranged from simple to difficult topics and from short to long texts. However, if the teacher selects a long paragraph from the textbook to dictate or has a large class size, he should give his students a transcript so that they can check what they have written.

Alternatively, he could let his students correct each other's dictation. Dictation should be used frequently but judiciously. The teacher may wish to use the following procedures concerning a passage of dictation:

- a) Read the entire dictation at normal speed as the students listen. This helps students understand the concept and the general notion thereof.
- b) Repeat the passage over again with pauses to allow students to write.
- c) Read it at normal speed with pauses at punctuation marks and between clauses, phrases and sentences in order to give the last chance for students to check their work, fill in missing words and make changes.

Dictation exercises are excellent practice for listening comprehension. They can also be used for different purposes. Dictation can be used as a revision drill, a punctuation exercise, or a spelling test.

9. An EFL teacher can give a brief summary of the theme of oral reading passages, which gradually progresses in difficulty and length. The selected material should be relevant to the student's age and interest. In this activity the teacher can clarify the meanings of the reading passage and then read it several times at normal speed. Listening comprehension questions of the main idea of the oral reading passage are essential. Hence, it should be tested by using essay or objective questions i.e., multiple choice answers and true-false items.
10. An EFL teacher can engage his students in listening to him while giving instructions for routine classroom activities, games and tests. He can also ask his students to devote some time to listen to the instructions and then ask quick questions. Such questions could be part of revision or daily work and practice activities.

- How are you?
- What did you take in the previous class period?
- What time is it now?
- Did I ask you to do any homework?

11. An EFL teacher can instruct and encourage his students to express themselves, ask questions, give directions, share a riddle or joke, and talk about any topic closely related to them such as personal experiences, family affairs, educational careers, funny incidents, their hobbies, relatives, friends and pets. The topic might also include hot issues, current events and cultural activities such as holidays, family parties, weddings, births and deaths, local or national news. The teacher should remain silent, nodding to show understanding without probing for additional information or facts.

12. An EFL teacher can ask his students to take part in telephone conversations with native speakers. Making phone calls can be simulated in the class. This activity can be used to inquire about a phone number, a flight arrival or departure time, schedules of TV or lecture programs, making an appointment, and giving directions in the target language. Students should be asked to write down all the giving and receiving information via telephone. He should also refer his students to English speaking companies or agencies available in his city for gaining information and communication.

13. An EFL teacher can provide an opportunity for his students to listen to outside speakers of the target language from the community or other staff members of the school personnel. Students should be encouraged to take notes and make summaries from such lectures. Hence, he can arrange for their visits to his classroom or to the English Language Club at his school. In short, the teacher should do his utmost to take advantage of the surrounding exposure to the target language for improving the level of his students in the listening skill.

14. An EFL teacher can ask his students to conduct interviews with native speakers of the target language in the community, if it is feasible. Questions of the interviews on hobbies or special interests should be pre-developed in the class.

Each student, with the assistance of the teacher, should actively participate in the construction of the questions.

Suggested Questions

1. Show with illustrations how you can use the following listening practice activities in teaching your class:
 - a. Summary of oral material.
 - b. Community resource (a visiting speaker from the community).
 - c. Telephone conversation.
2. How can you use the following techniques to improve your students' pronunciation and intonation?
 - a. A taped dialogue and plays.
 - b. Broadcast (radio, television).
 - c. Instruction for routine classroom activities.
3. Point out the elements to be considered in the use of "dictation" in teaching listening.
4. With your own experience, what are the procedures in teaching listening? Compare your views with the ones stated by the author.
5. What is the distinction between the live language and contrived language?
6. Discuss and exemplify the use of the Auditory' Memory- an in developing listening ability.
7. Explain how an EFL teacher can improve vowel contrasts and consonant contrasts. Support your answer with examples.
8. Choose the best answer from a, b, c or d and write it in the blank:
 1. The successful language teacher should always use in his class:
 - a. a linguistic medium of communication.
 - b. a non-linguistic medium of communication.
 - c. both.
 - d. none.
 2. Eye contact includes:
 - a. blinking
 - b. gazing

c. nodding up

d. a and b, but not c.

3. To be able to use the language to convey thoughts, a person ----- needs a mastery of:

a. receptive skills but not productive ones.

b. both receptive and productive skills.

c. productive skills but not receptive ones.

d. graphic skills.

7 The Teaching of Speaking

Introduction

Speaking is generally discouraged in classrooms and schools. Speeches in class are used only when EFL learners are called upon to repeat or answer a question. Silence is one of the characteristics of the English language classroom. Learners are active listeners but passive speakers. As a result, oral production of the target language is almost absent in English classes.

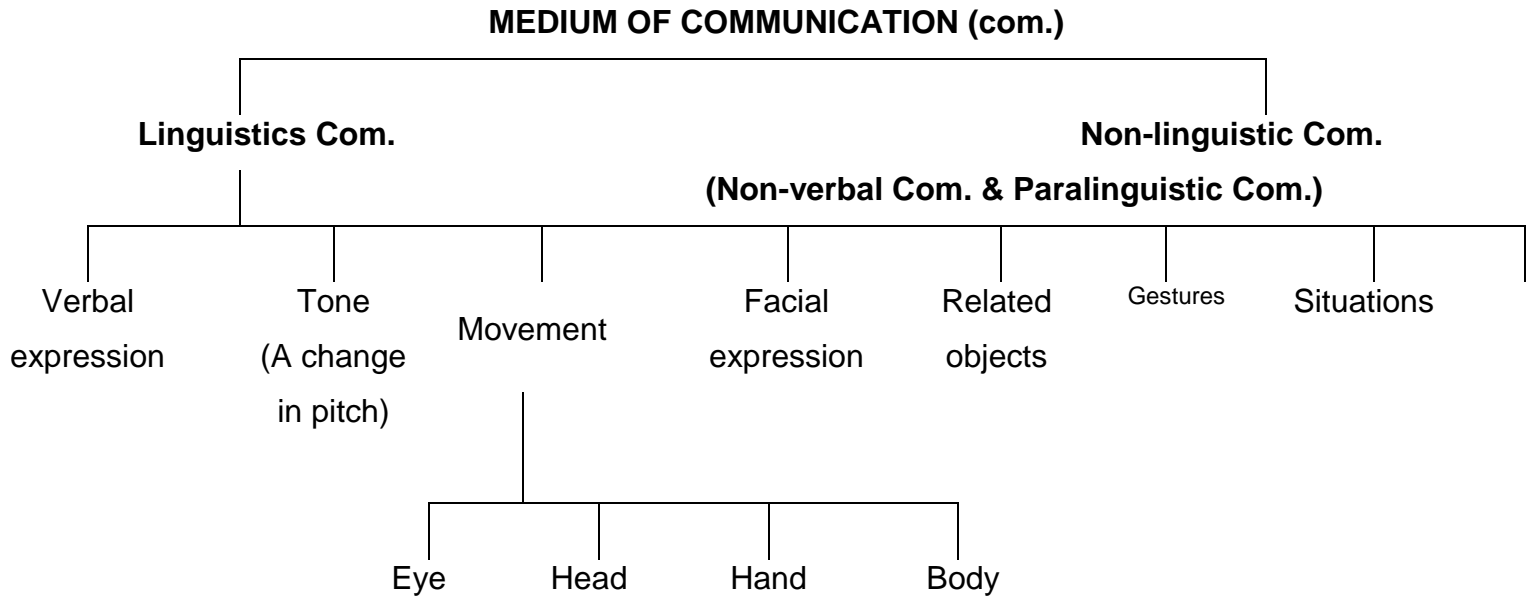
However, great emphasis should be given to speech production. The importance of oral expression should be recognized. Learners should be engaged in a rich environment to stimulate speaking. They should share ideas, exchange thoughts and converse in the English language. The more opportunities that exist for learners to engage in conversations, the better listeners and speakers they will become. A good language classroom, should not be a place of silence. The teacher should supply comprehensible input and encourage communication. His students should benefit from speaking devices and techniques. A rich language learning environment facilitates students' learning.

The EFL teacher should create a positive and relaxed atmosphere for verbal communication. The classroom filter should be of low anxiety. It should be friendly, sympathetic and comfortable. The learners should feel that they are accepted by others when they speak. The learners will feel more self-esteem and self-confident to do better in second language learning. Hence, providing a social climate is a good way to encourage the learners to speak. The teacher's positive attitude towards students affect their speaking performance and oral interaction.

The EFL teacher should emphasize the use of linguistic and non-linguistic media of communication (see Figure 2). He should place equal importance and concern on both linguistic and non-linguistic communication in conveying the spoken message to the other party. Linguistic communication focuses on verbal expressions. However, non-linguistic communication refers to paralinguistic phenomena. The non-linguistic medium of communication deals with movement, facial expression, related objects, gestures and

situations. These non-verbal communication features add support, emphasizing the clarity of meaning to what the teacher is saying.

Figure 2



Eye contact/movement includes gazing, staring, blinking, looking up and down and following something. Head movement could be shaking, nodding up, and raising to the hearer. Hand movement embodies shaking, gripping, pointing to something, clapping, hitting (a table), folding hand, raising hand, tapping, etc. Body movement deals with hugging, running, silent walking, kicking, walking back a few steps, etc. Facial expression encompasses smiling responses, frowning, biting the lower lip, tears, laughter, yawn, and acting as though someone is fatigued. Related objects include furniture, restaurant and grocery items, jewelry, appliances, class items, etc. Gesture deals with any type of movement of the head, shoulder, arms, or any part of the body, as discussed earlier, to express thought or feeling. Communicative situations could be about hospital, school, court, library, campus, etc. Obviously, the use of the media of communication, linguistic and non-linguistic, makes the spoken language sound natural, lively and meaningful.

Procedures in Teaching Speaking

The following procedures are recommended to follow while teaching speaking skills:

1. Say the model sentence or expression two or three times orally to ensure effective training. The selected sentence or expression should be short and easy to say. It is better to say it, if possible, through association with pictures, real objects or gestures.
2. Say it at normal speed in the classroom without exaggeration of lip movements when pronouncing the words.
3. Call on your more able students before calling on the weaker ones to give a chance for the latter to practice responses correctly. Try to encourage them to come to the front of the class to do the speech.
4. Tell students to speak in a natural voice without showing any over-expressiveness or exaggeration.
5. Ask students to act as both listeners and speakers.
6. Lead students to practice the English speech sound as many times as possible. Ask students to practice with other students preferably with native speakers if they are available in the community.
7. Use various interesting oral exercises and techniques to reduce classroom tension and boredom.
8. Correct your students' speech gently. Don't correct every mistake of your students invariably.

Techniques in Teaching Speaking

There are several techniques and devices which are thought to be useful for practicing speaking such as: dialogue, chain stories, mime stories, speeches, lectures or oral reports, conversations, role playing, interviews and problem-solving activities. Speaking techniques are discussed below:

1. Dialogue

Dialogue is a conversation in a play, story, novel, or other literary or dramatic work between two or more persons. The topic of a dialogue may revolve around an everyday situation, specific grammatical point, the meaning of particular words, an expression of emotion, and cultural features or customs. It is often recorded to be used in a language classroom. The specific purpose of using a recorded dialogue or getting the class act it out is to reproduce and repeat it for pronunciation and memorization practice. In this technique, the language teacher can use a recorded dialogue to improve the speaking fluency and communication ability of his class. Students are asked to resay or reproduce orally the same conversational material.

A language teacher may wish to go through these techniques using a dialogue in his class. First, students should be extensively exposed to the conversation, which sounds real to their experience until they comprehend the topic thoroughly. They should also be encouraged to repeat it several times and imitate some of its patterns of speech before they come in front of the class and say it, almost act out, in a natural way. The teacher should supply his students with a script if they need more practice. Finally, the students are stimulated to repeat it from the top of their heads in an imaginative way. Students are asked to perform the dialogue in front of their peers by rendering it by heart. Creativity and improvisation should be encouraged as long as they do not affect the spirit and general form of the dialogue.

2. Chain Stories

A language teacher gives a statement to the students asking them to carry it on one after the other. Such a statement might be as follows: "When I arrive home after a day at school, I..." The topic of the story should be interesting and stimulating dealing with such notions as killing a snake, going to school, seeing a horrible incident, etc. In this technique, creativity is encouraged and there is no wrong or right in the composition of the story. The teacher should facilitate, and encourage his students to produce correct utterances. The procedures of this technique are as follows:

- a. A language teacher gives only one statement.

- b. A student should produce a new sentence to get the story moving from one person to another in the class.
- c. The students' new sentences should be connected in idea and in order with the previous ones.
- d. The teacher occasionally asks a student to recall what has been said before that moment.
- e. He should correct mistakes gently.

3. Mime Stories

A language teacher acts out a simple event or a short story usually without saying words and then asks his students to describe that has happened orally in the English language. The teacher uses the medium of non-verbal communication i.e., motion, gesture, movement and facial rather than verbal communication i.e., speech.

The teacher can either act out the entire scene and then remime it section by section or act it out gradually. However, it is preferable and useful to use the former procedure to ensure the students' understanding of the general notion of the action. Here, students should know most of the new words and structure to describe the action.

There are some principles to be considered in the use of mime stories:

- a. A language teacher prepares and practices the scene before the class begins.
- b. He should inform them of the context of the story, i.e., Airport, Hospital or Library.
- c. He should indicate the number of persons and type of tense to be used in the description of the action.
- d. Students should know most of the new words and grammatical structure of the mime.
- e. Actions should be developed in sequence. The sequence of actions should be clear and not confusing.
- f. The teacher should repeat the mime until someone could produce a correct sentence to explain and describe the scene.

4. Speeches, Lectures or Oral Reports.

There are two major objectives for the use of speeches, lectures or oral reports by a student in a language classroom:

- a. The teacher encourages and enables a language student to speak in front of his peers. This technique will gradually minimize the fear of using target language in the presence of others and reduce the pressure from his peers.
- b. To enable the students to recognize others' errors in the spoken language. This, in turn will help him avoid similar mistakes while speaking in future.

To conduct a speech, lecture or oral report, several points are to be considered:

- a. Encourage the students to select the subject for the speech, lecture, or oral report. The selected topic should be reasonably short and well known to the speaker, i.e., the student. If a student faces difficulty in the selection of a topic, provide him with a list of subjects, relevant to the :students' need from which he can select one like the examples below:

My country	My school years	My favorite lesson
My home	My graduation day	My favorite holiday
My neighbors	My hobbies	My favorite food
My education	My favorite sport	My favorite story

- b. Give the student sufficient time to prepare his speech, lecture or oral report. Don't rush him to prepare it otherwise inadequate presentation will be produced.
- a. Ask the student to prepare his speech, lecture, or oral report in written form in advance.
- b. Ask the student to deliver his talk from the corrected script.
- c. Ask the brilliant students to deliver speeches, lectures or oral reports first. Chances for the weak students could be given later to ensure their ability to carry out this type of task. Ultimately, everyone should have an opportunity to participate in this practice actively.
- d. Allow only one student in the class to deliver his speech, lecture or oral report for a maximum 10 minutes at the end of every lesson.

- e. Have the rest of the class ask questions on the contents of the delivered speech. Later on, allow them to ask the speaker some questions on matters that seem unclear to them.
- f. Draw an outline of the time-table limits for the speech, lecture or oral report for each student in your language class.

5. Conversation

Conversation is an informal friendly spoken exchange of a familiar talk or thoughts among the whole class. Each student should try to express his views about certain interesting topics, usually without preparation. Students can share pleasant plays, riddles, jokes or things that happened on a trip or party. They should be encouraged to compose and improvise new or relevant ideas. Topics, under discussion, might deal with:

- a. Daily school programs
- b. A new experience with interesting incidents
- c. Cultural or weekend activities
- d. Favorite and entertaining T.V. shows
- e. Games, particularly a football match

At an early stage, the EFL teacher might ask his students to repeat only the dialogue after him. Later he might encourage them to learn common English idioms and their usage in their own sentences chosen from the textbook. Pictures and drawings may be used to stimulate students to construct an elaborate story around them.

At the intermediate stage, the language teacher should stimulate his students to develop a theme for discussion using the following procedures:

- a. Students jot down a general but personal topic at home.
- b. They develop an argument in favor or against the proposed topic. c. The teacher then asks them to make a brief summary reflecting the importance of the topic.
- c. The language teacher should encourage arguments during discussion by posing prompt questions.

- d. The teacher should give a chance to every student to speak in the class before his peers. Active participation should be supported and encouraged.

However, at the advanced stage, the language teacher may provide an opportunity for his students to paraphrase dialogues and do various kinds of question and answer exercises. Later, he might get his students read an article from a book, or a journal. Then he should give a lecture on it with the involvement of other students in the discussion. Students are also encouraged to select topics which are general or personal such as early schooldays, friendship, last exam, an accident, a new experience and hardship. At this stage, a free conversation and real communication among the class are maintained. Nevertheless, using slang and colloquialisms normally not recommended. However, the EFL teacher should express his interest in what the students say through eye contact, facial expression and positive replays.

6. Role Playing

A group of students is encouraged to act out a short scene of a well-known modern play in the class. Students should also be given the chance to do this with both the teacher and the students. The role-playing activity should be conducted in the target language using situations. Verbal communication is emphasized by actors. The purpose of using this technique is to support and stimulate students to use their newly acquired knowledge of English while speaking in front of their classmates and consequently overcoming the fear and nervousness of speaking before others. It also improves students' speaking ability in using accurate pronunciation and intonation. Finally, it increases awareness and recognition of others' errors in speech in order to alleviate them.

A language teacher may wish to go through the following procedures with numerous students to interact in a role-playing situation:

- a. Choose a short and simple play, dialogue or situation which involves several people. It should be easy for students to act out in the class or on the school stage.

- b. Supply a copy of the written play, dialogue or situation. It should be written in Standard Informal English.
- c. Familiarize students with its expressions, phrases of technical vocabulary, grammatical patterns and pronunciation.
- d. Describe and analyze the setting, the characters and the plot of the selected play, dialogue or situation. Also, familiarize the students with the subject matter information prior to role playing.
- e. Assign certain roles which have fictitious names to able students first, after establishing good group spirits.
- f. Encourage students to say their lines with each other without memorizing as they do in conversation.
- g. Let students take home the role play exercises to learn its linguistic information.
- h. Ask students to perform the role play by showing proper feelings, tone and intonation.
- i. Ask them to perform the role play in class without having the written copy in their hands. The rest of the class should participate as an audience.

7. Interview

The EFL teacher encourages his students to interview each other. Students can organize mock interviews. One student, for example, pretends to interview another classmate for a job before the whole class. Students can also formulate questions about classroom, homework, and the items on a language test. A detailed discussion about interviewing is given elsewhere in the text.

8. Problem-Solving Activities:

Oral communication could be developed through problem-solving activities. In these activities, students are presented with a problem, a situation or a question. They try to find a solution to a problem, reaction to a situation, or a response to a question. Later students justify and comment on their solutions, reactions, or responses.

Eventually, the whole class will discuss the reasons for their various responses. Sample situations might be like the following ones:

Situation 1: You are a six year old boy. This is your first year at school. You begin to feel responsible with waking up early, studying hard and coming back home. Sometimes. You find yourself unable to go to school smoothly, particularly when you sleep late. What will you say to your mother to let you stay home and skip that tiring day?

Situation 2: You are a high school student. Unfortunately, you failed in the subject of math. A progress report about Your studies will be sent home. How can you justify your failure in the math class to your parents?

Situation 3: You had a fight with one of your classmates. You hit him very hard because he teased and made fun of you before your peers. Both of you were asked to see the principal who is very strict and harsh. You were certain that he would ask you to sign a final warning letter and to give a report to your father. How could you avoid meeting him?

The EFL teacher may wish to go through the following procedures in using problem-solving activities for his students:

1. Divide the class into various work groups, say three or four. The groups should be permanent and consist of talkative and quiet students, able and advanced ones. Permanent groups could work collaboratively and challengingly. This might save time in participating solving activities.
2. State a suitable problem, create a hypothetical solution, or pose an imaginative question to your students. Later, explain the problem, situation, or question and go through its linguistic information such as vocabulary grammar, and pronunciation.
3. Provide your students with the necessary materials about numerous problem-solving activities. Ask them to work on the activities in the class rather than taking them home. Immediate involvement in the problem

during class time greatly increases the level of student interest compared to having students do it at home.

4. Ask students to find solutions to the problem, react to the situation or respond to the question. Students should make suggestions about possible solutions to the proposed problem. Each group should discuss its suggestions about how it would solve that problem, react to a situation or respond to a question.
5. Ask students to justify why they made that special response and chose that particular solution rather than the other one which had been suggested by another group. Students should comment on their responses. Each group may challenge or be challenged by another group to tell the reasons for making such decisions or suggestions about their responses for solving the problem.
6. Eventually, engage students in a forum discussion to speculate on reasons for different responses and reactions.
7. Correct their speech errors by reformulating questions and expanding utterances to enhance the opportunity for conversational exchange. Give help only when someone is badly in need of it.

9. English Proverbs

Proverbs are short wise sayings used for a long time by many people to express a truth, point, or a moral. They reflect the wisdom and belief of the people. They also reveal difference in cultures and attitudes between people. They represent certain aspects of national identity and philosophy. Hence, proverb exercises are fruitful devices for students to talk about various aspects of their culture, philosophy, wisdom and attitudes. In these exercises students feel most comfortable, stimulated and confident when talking about the historical experience and wisdom of the people in their own country.

The teacher may wish to use the following procedures in using proverbs to create an opportunity for his students to improve oral production. These procedures are suggested by Dobson (1989):

- a. Select well known proverbs by English-speaking people. The selected proverbs should create interest in your students.
- b. Present one proverb in each class meeting.
- c. Write it on the chalkboard.
- d. Explain the meanings of its vocabulary and usage of its grammar.
- e. Discuss it with respect to its significance, philosophy, wisdom, and attitudes. The teacher may ask his students about the valuable advice. we may learn from the given proverb.
- f. Ask your students to find proverbs which express or describe a similar or opposite concept in their native language.
- g. Engage students in further discussion about cross-cultural values and morals.

A list of common English proverbs is given below. These proverbs are found to be interesting to EFL learners:

1. A bad workman quarrels with his tools.
2. A barking dog seldom bites.
3. A bird in hand is worth two in the bush.
4. Absence makes the heart grow fonder.
5. A cat has nine lives.
6. A drowning man catches at a straw.
7. Adversity tries friendship.
8. A fox is not taken twice in the same snare.
9. A friend in need is a friend indeed.
10. A hungry man is an angry man.
11. A jack of all trades is master of none.
12. A little learning is a dangerous thing.
13. A living dog is better than a dead lion.
14. All is well that ends well.
15. A man cannot serve two masters.
16. A man's house is his castle.
17. A man is known by the company he keeps.

18. A penny saved is a penny gained.
19. A secret between more than two is not secret.
20. A stitch in time saves nine.

Techniques in the Chorus Method

Repetition of the new words is essential in the teaching of new vocabulary. It is a useful and effective device for giving oral practice to a large number of students in foreign language classes within a limited time.

The following techniques are recommended for proper use of the chorus

method:

1. Divide the class into several groups, approximately three.
2. Name each group. Give a letter for each group A, B, C, etc.
3. When you pronounce the new word for the first three or four times, don't let the class repeat the word after you. The class should remain silent, listening attentively to your pronunciation to ensure their perception. Give the model before each repetition you ask of the class. Break the long sentence into smaller elements for repetition (practice).
4. Don't let all the class repeat together at one time. Only a small section of a group is to be allowed to speak. This will help the teacher to:
(a) discover errors, (b) give more attention to individuals and (c) improve their pronunciation.
5. Don't ask the group to repeat in turn. Go back and forth asking the group for participation. This technique will enhance their attention expect to be called on for repetition.
6. Ask them to repeat softly. Don't encourage and allow them to shout in chorus. Quiet work helps the teacher identify mistakes in pronunciation and ensure attention to the model.
7. Don't stand in the middle or back of the class while students are repeating. Walk to the back of the class and stand close to each group in turn while they speak. This helps the teacher hear the slight inaccuracies of pronunciation better.

8. Also, don't stand still in one place. Go around the groups while repeating.
9. Locate errors in pronunciation. Listen carefully, sharply, and attentively to your students while repeating the model. Detect and find faults, carelessness and mistakes. The teacher must try to find who is repeating the model incorrectly and lazily. If this is done, Students will try to avoid being picked out.
10. Pay more attention to what they are repeating. Concentrate mainly on listening to them.
11. Don't look at the faces of students while they are repeating. Show them that you are more concerned with their pronunciation rather than their active participation.
12. Let individual students repeat the same sentence. Begin with more able 'students to provide the rest more time to listen and practice silently.
13. Praise students who pronounce well and make the class feel confident in their own language abilities. Also give your comments on the performance which you find not up to the standard, such as:
 - Not quite correct. Listen again.
 - Better, but not yet good enough. Try again.
 - Now, very good, indeed!
 - Now, well done!

Suggested Questions

1. Point out the concepts and principles of the following teaching practices:
 - a. Mime stories
 - b. Chain stories
 - c. Role playing
2. Cite the techniques to be used in class in order to develop speaking skills.
3. Diagram the medium of verbal and nonverbal communication.
4. Dialogue is a successful device for improving speaking ability among EFL learners. Discuss this statement showing how it can be used.
5. Expand the list of subjects about speeches, lectures, and oral reports which are proposed by the author.
6. Do you agree that a language teacher should vary the techniques in using conversation as a device for teaching speaking? Support your views with illustrations.
7. To improve oral communication, create challenging problems and interesting situations for your students to find their solutions and reactions respectively. Discuss.
8. What are the suggested procedures in using problem-solving activities for EFL students?
9. How can you use the Chorus Method as an effective device for giving oral practice to a language class?
10. How can you use English proverbs to improve oral production? Support your answer with illustrations.

8 The Teaching of Reading

Introduction

Reading is a very complex process involving many physical, intellectual and emotional reactions. This chapter concentrates on the physical variable i.e., visual perception because the other variables are not the focus of this book. The perceptual skill is a prerequisite of accurate and rapid reading. Hence EFL learners should be engaged in doing plenty of drills in eye movement and word/ phrase recognition as a means to increase reading speed and comprehension ability. The following drills are thought to meet this need: eye movement, visual discrimination of letters, rapid word identification and number recognition. Each of these drills will be discussed extensively below.

The Arabic script, for example, is read and written from right to left across a line of print. Hence, Arabs are used to moving their eyes accordingly while reading an Arabic text. They are not trained to moving their eyes, in contrast, from left to right while reading the Latin script, i.e., in this case the English Alphabet. This habitual style of reading constitutes a great problem in developing effective perceptual skills of reading English and in increasing reading speed in English.

Procedures in Teaching Reading

A language teacher may wish to use the following five steps in teaching the reading lesson:

1. Preparation

- a. The teacher introduces new words in the reading passage. The meanings of new vocabulary can be shown through the use of context, picture, drawing, objects, mime, synonyms, and antonyms.
- b. The teacher can use various techniques to present the new grammatical patterns such as rules, drawings, pictures, realia, diagrams, demonstrations, grids and tables. The teacher familiarizes his students

with both new vocabulary and grammar so that comprehension is not impeded by them.

- c. The teacher should provide his students with practices after the introduction of new vocabulary and structure in order to enhance and reinforce them. There are various and numerous exercises and drills of vocabulary and grammar provided in the chapters from which the reading teacher may wish to his class.

2. Comprehension Questions

- a. A language teacher reads the comprehension questions about the passage aloud to his class.
- b. He explains or translates them to stimulate students understanding.

3. Silent Reading

- a. The language teacher asks the entire class to read the passage Silently. He may emphasize that students should move their eyes very rapidly from left to right without looking back to the preceding words. He may instruct them to make no lip movement, no muttering, or murmuring. Fewer pauses and should also be of great concern in silent reading.
- b. Students should try to find the appropriate answers of the comprehension question while reading.
- c. A language teacher should monitor his class to ensure that all his class keeps reading. He should give academic help to those who have difficulty in understanding or pronouncing some words without interrupting others.

4. Renewing Students' Answers

- a. A language teacher should encourage his students to give the appropriate answers to the questions about the contents of the passage.
- b. He can give them clues to the answers such as the number of a reading line, the number of words which form the right answer.

- c. He asks them to write or copy the answers in their notebooks. He may go around in the class making sure that they write the answer carefully.

5. Oral Reading

The teacher may go through the following activities:

- He reads the passage aloud as a model and lets his students listen to it carefully
- He reads phrases or sentences of the passage aloud and lets his students repeat after him.
- Each student reads a line or two aloud and others listen to him attentively.

Pre-Reading Drills

1. Eye Movement Drill

This drill is very essential to improve the pre-reading skill. A language learner should be drilled in how to move his eyes properly during reading a text. The eye movement drill includes only two or three bars across the line. The student is required to move his eyes from left to right quickly and make a fixation only on the bars of each line. Timing should be identified in each drill to assess the reader's progress. There are three objectives for using this type of technique:

- a. To improve the student's ability to move his eyes accurately across the line. This will improve visual perception of words and phrases.
- b. To eliminate the number of unnecessary stops a language reader makes while reading along the printed line:
- c. To speed up the language reader's perception of words/phrases.

To develop speed of eye movement, the language learner should be trained to move his/her eyes from left to right across each line of print and not to look back on any line, by making certain stops to glance on groups of words and phrases. Language learners should be asked to read chunk by chunk, and phrase by phrase, not word by word and make at the most three fixations on them per line.

2. Visual Discrimination of Letters

One-Letter Sequence

To improve visual discrimination, Heilman (1985) proposes several valuable exercises. Some of his ideas are used in this chapter. In this drill, a language teacher should draw a rectangle which includes a series of consonant letters or vowels. The first letter is the stimulus usually followed by a double vertical line. Students are asked to circle the identical letter/s top the stimulus, i.e., model.

Consonants:

m	m	w	v	u	w
d	g	b	d	p	d
g	p	p	q	p	g

Vowels:

a	o	u	i	a	o
e	u	a	e	o	e
o	u	o	a	a	o

Two-Letter Sequence

The language teacher duplicates a page of two letter series in boxes. The first two-letter sequences are the model. Students are instructed to match letters in boxes with the model ones.

Consonants:

th	tn	tf	tb	th	tu
sp	sb	sp	sq	sd	sq
nt	mt	tn	nf	nt	nf

Vowels:

ai	ei	ia	ie	ai	ei
ea	ie	ae	ea	ei	ea
ie	ie	ei	ia	ei	ie

Capital and Lower Case Letters

- a. The language teacher prepares a duplicate page of boxes. On the left side of the model of boxes capital letters are given while on the right side the series of lower case form are put. Students are asked to draw a line between the capital letter and its lower case form.

Consonants:

	K		b		h
R	R	B	d	H	n
	V		p		b

	N		p		n
N	H	Q	q	T	h
	p		d		t

Vowels:

	o		c		u
A	a	E	f	U	n
	e		e		v

	a		i		a
O	c	l	a	E	e
	o		e		m

- b. The language teacher duplicates a page of two letter groupings in boxes. Some of these boxes include both capital and lower-case of the same letter. Students are asked to circle the letter which contains the same letter forms of capital and small ones.

Bb	Hn	Ao	Nu	Fg
Gq	Ee	Tt	Qp	Db
Dd	Nu	Rr	Bp	Qq

Tic-Tac-Toe

The language teacher draws, say 3 by 3, squares which include a capital letter in the centre and a variety of lower-case letters in all other squares. A capital and two matching lowercase letters should be given on One line. Students are to be instructed to circle the capital and the same two letters which are on the straight line.

Consonants:

u	m	n
n	N	v
n	m	u

j	t	l
h	T	h
j	t	l

q	k	d
p	Q	p
d	b	q

Vowels:

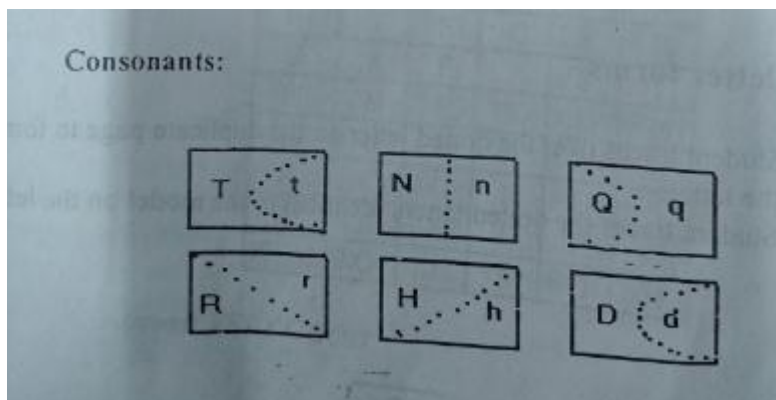
i	e	a
a	A	a
i	a	e

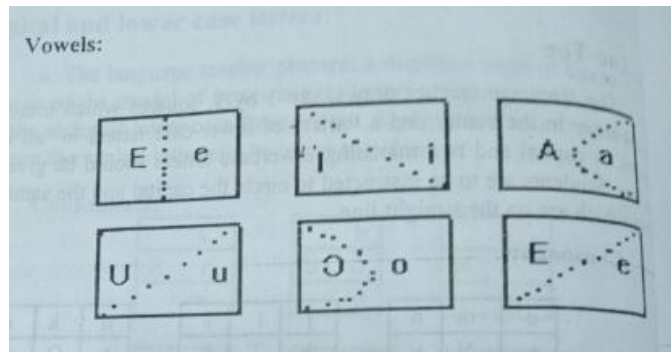
u	e	i
u	E	u
i	e	u

u	e	i
u	l	e
i	e	a

Jigsaw Matching

The language teacher prepares a variety of cut cards which include both the capital and lowercase letters of the same form. As indicated below the cut of the cards are dotted. The same cut of shape should be repeated to avoid the chance of clue from shape. Students are asked to match capital and lowercase letters.

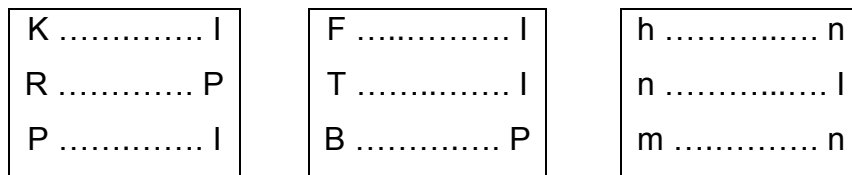




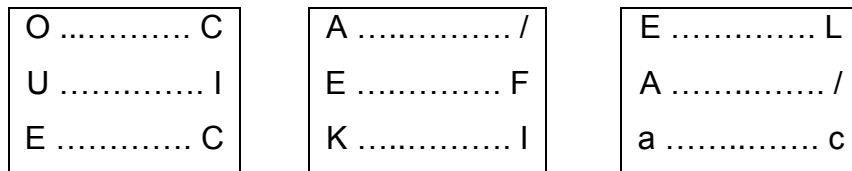
Complete the letter

The language teacher prepares a number of squares, each containing a letter on the left side followed by partially incomplete letters. Students are asked to complete the missing part of the letter on the right side of the square.

Consonants:

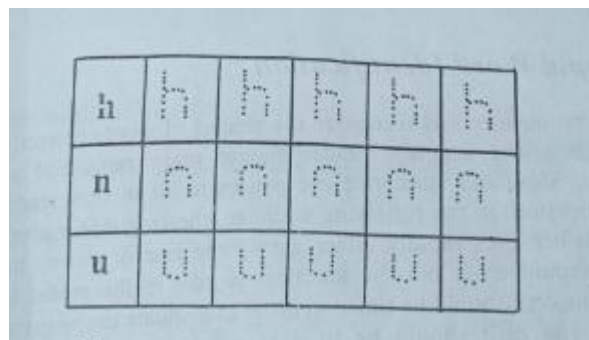


Vowels:



Tracing letter forms

- Student traces over the dotted letter on the duplicate page to form the letters.
- Student traces the dotted letters identical to the model on the left.



Letter Recognition

The teacher duplicates a page of a one letter boxes as shown below. The majority of letters appear 4 times in the boxes. However, some letters appear only once from which a word can be formed. These letters are put in sequence, but far apart from each other to stimulate students to form the appropriate words from them. In this exercise, students are asked to cross out all the letters in the boxes which appear four times and then try to read the letters to form words.

Instructions: Cross out all the letters in the squares that appear 4 times and read the letters to form words.

P	V	N	H	F	A
F	T	S	C	E	K
U	A	F	P	S	T
R	N	P	K	C	H
H	U	T	A	Y	N
P	C	G	K	U	S
A	K	N	C	F	O
U	O	T	S	D	H

Answer: VERY GOOD

3. Rapid Word Identification

To identify and recognize the shapes of words correctly while you are reading, the language reader should make rapid and accurate eye fixations. Slow and inaccurate eye pauses result in slow reading and low comprehension. In the following exercise, the language reader is asked, to move his/her eyes rapidly either across the line or down the columns. He/she should cross out the identical word/s to the model i.e., the key word. This drill should be timed in order to evaluate the progress of the readers. The drill should be tried to assess the reader's progress. The objective of this drill is to develop visual perception of isolated words.

Instructions: Read as rapidly as you can and circle the word/s which is/are identical to the key word at the left of the vertical line.

Man	man	men	win	men	won	man
tall	tail	fall	hall	ball	tall	tell
pen	pen	pean	pan	pin	pean	pens
read	red	reed	real	rade	read	real
sea	sea	see	sew	sea	sow	see
clear	clare	care	clean	dear	clear	dear
seat	sat	seat	seed	seen	seats	set
work	word	work	word	world	ward	work
bate	beat	bite	bad	bate	bat	date
meet	neat	meat	need	meet	meat	meeek
sign	sigh	sight	sing	site	sign	sigh

4. Rapid Phrase Identification

Similar to the former drill the recognition should be made on groups of words or phrases. Therefore, in the following drills, the language reader is asked to mark a group of words or phrases identical to the model phrase (key phrase) while moving his/her eyes quickly either across the line from left to right or down the columns.

Instructions: Read across the line as rapidly as you can. Cross (Circle) all the phrases which are identical to the key phrase at the left of the vertical line.

almost always	almost always	most always
	almost always	all ways
unclear statement	unclear statements	stated clearly
	clear statement	unclear statement
	clearly stated	clear statement
move in	move in	moved on
	moveable inn	move into
write well	right well	write well
	writes well	write right
long story	long storey	long store
	long story	long store
painful tooth	painful tooth	painful foot
	painful teeth	painful boat
class size	glass size	class size
	classes size	glass size
traffic light	terrific light	traffic lights
	traffic light	traffic sight
black shoes	black shoe	black shoe
	black show	black shoes
television program	television programs	television progress
	television progress	television program

5. Number Recognition:

The Language learner should be able to read and write the numerals. Training on number recognition is essential to the pre-reading technique. Small numbers should be first introduced followed by large ones. Concrete experience with objects is recommended prior to abstract thinking in arithmetic. The teacher should provide rich exposure of objects in order to encourage learners to count the numbers of concrete objects Such as buttons, dry seeds, and bits of stone or paper. Number experiences are a means of enhancing number recognition for foreign language learners. Such number exercises are given below:

Matching numbers

The teacher develops two sets of identical numbers in four squares in sequential order. Each set has the same numbers but in different order. The learner is asked to draw a line by joining the two identical numbers.

Instructions: Draw a line between the numbers of the same shape

9	3
3	5
5	6
6	9

0	8
6	9
8	0
9	6

24	42
20	24
95	20
42	95

32	23
97	32
23	79
79	97

Number Identification

The teacher provides the learners with a series of numbers in a long rectangle. The first number on the far left is the clue/model number followed by two vertical lines. Learners are asked to identify the numbers identical to the model.

Instructions: Circle the numbers identical to the stimulus.

9	6	9	9	0	6	9
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

5	5	6	5	9	3	9
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Number Completion

In this exercise, the language learner is trained to tell what the number is before or after a certain number. To achieve this purpose, the teacher provides the learner with a series of numbers in order which include some incomplete ones. Learners are asked to fill in the missing numbers.

Instructions: Fill in the missing numbers in the following boxes.

1	2	-	4	5	6	-	-	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

1	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

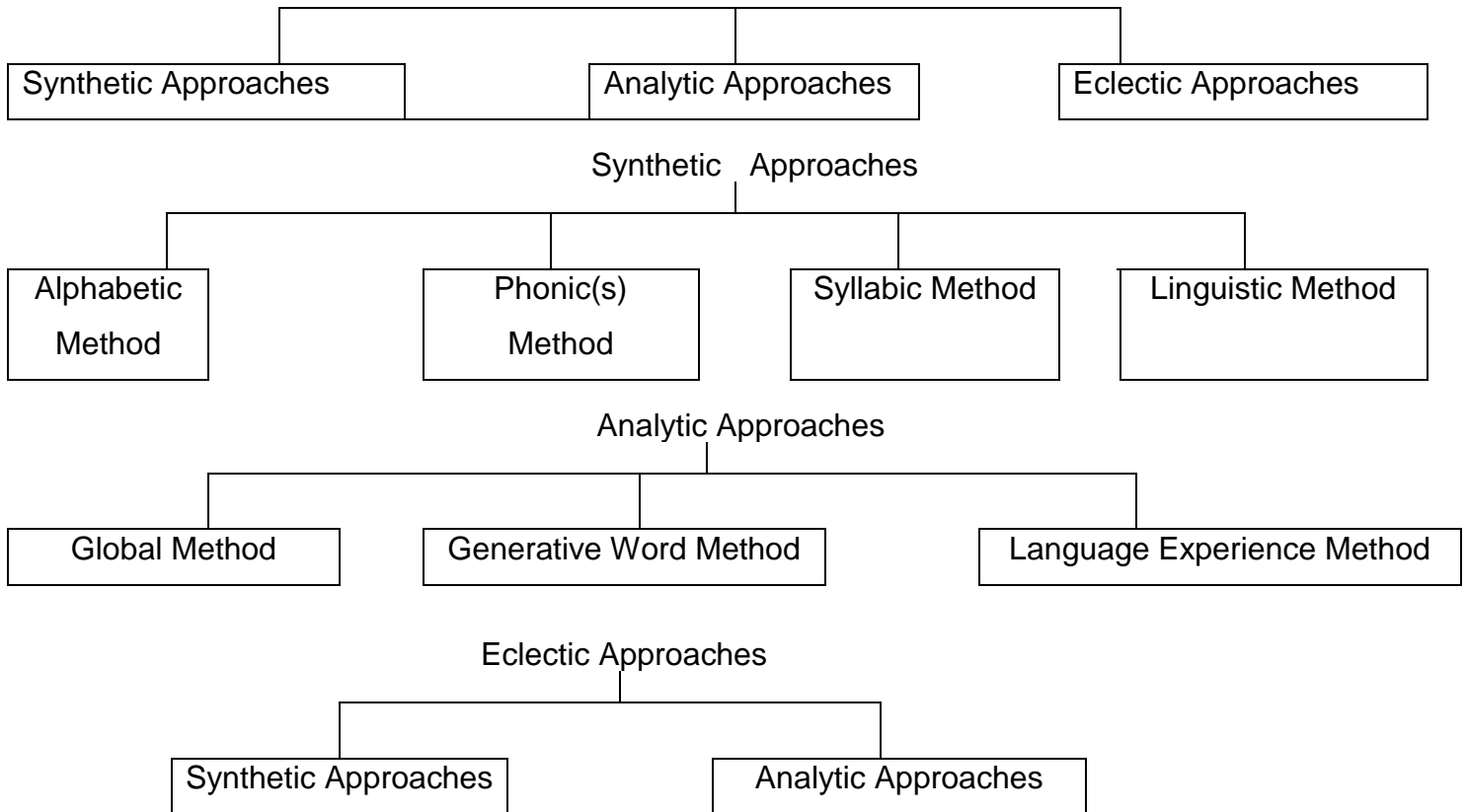
20	-	22	23	-	25	26	-	-	29
----	---	----	----	---	----	----	---	---	----

Methods of Reading a Foreign Language

Reading methods can be grouped into three major categories: (1) Synthetic approaches, (2) analytic approaches, and (3) eclectic approaches. Each of these approaches encompasses various reading methods, as shown in figure 3.

Figure 3

READING APPROACHES



Synthetic Approaches

Synthetic Approaches stress part-whole relationships and give emphasis to building meaningful words or sentences from letters, sounds and/or syllables that are mastered. In other words, the elements of reading are broken into segments in this approach. There is a heavy responsibility to learn how to "crack the code". Synthetic approaches include several traditional reading methods. These methods are (a) the alphabetic method (b) the phonic (s) method, (c) the syllabic method, and (d) linguistic method.

a. Alphabetic Method

In the alphabetic method, children are taught the names of the letters of the alphabet: a "ay", b "bee", c "see", etc., and when they see new or unfamiliar word, e.g., bag, they say the letter names- bee ay gee", and then put them together to form the word

-bag. It is thought that this "spelling" of the word helps the child in recognizing it. The learner, in this case, uses his/her knowledge of letter names to unlock words by spelling them. Hence, this method teaches reading and spelling of English words at the same time. Another drawback is that the Alphabetic Method is intended to teach reading by means of spelling words. However, reading and spelling skills are not closely related to each other because the English alphabet has fewer letters to represent speech sounds. There are only 26 English letter names but there are 46 letter sounds (25 consonants and 21 vowels and diphthongs). Hence, this method fails to teach reading easily and soundly.

This method is easy to initiate and convenient for teachers but it can be limiting. The Students blend letters not sounds, hence they may become confused when they are unable to unlock words that have been obscured by their spellings. In other words, the method is criticized for not teaching the Sounds of the letters.

b. Phonic (s) Method

In the phonic method (phonics), Students must hear speech sounds and make accurate and rapid association with the written symbols representing them. Children are taught to recognize the relationship between letters and sounds. They are taught the sounds which the letters of the alphabet represent, and they try to build up the sound of a new or unfamiliar word by saying it one sound at a time, A teacher may Wish to use these procedures: (a) provide the learners an opportunity to listen to a Sound, developing their sense of hearing by means of auditory discrimination exercises, (b) teach them to associate the sound and its symbol through their sense of sight by means of visual discrimination exercises and (c) help them how to read words and then sentences by using correct movement of the tongue, lips and eyes.

The sound symbol association may be presented by means of picture-symbols. At first. just initial sounds are given attention but later. Students may be asked to listen to and hear sounds in other positions within the words. Sounds of vowels and consonants may be taught first and then used to form words. Small words are formed by joining two simple sounds such as [i] and [t] to make the English pronoun it, Further, these sounds are expanded to include additional sounds to form bigger Words, e.g.,

Sitting, sitter, site, etc. Additionally, regular spelling for words are taught first followed by irregular ones, e.g., light, tough, wrap, world, listen, etc. A language teacher can proceed from easy and little words to difficult and large ones; and from regular spelling of words to irregular ones to facilitate the teaching of reading by the Phonic(s) Method.

The phonic method emphasizes greatly the sound system of the target language. Phonics instruction is a part of reading instruction which (1) leads the child to understand that printed letters in printed words represent the speech sounds heard when words are pronounced, (2) involves the actual teaching of sounds associated with a particular letter or combination of letters. However, students reading with phonics may encounter several problems such as:

- a. **Mute letters:** Their reading becomes laborious and slow when they come to read words with mute letters such as: should, thought, limb, isle, knight, might, tough, know, knife, write, Wrong, etc.
- b. **Homonyms:** Their reading becomes a state of confusion when they come to read words that sound alike but have different spellings like: bear and bare, right and write, carrot and carat. Due and dew, flower and flour, haul and hall, lade and laid, mail and male, bow and bough, etc.

c. Syllabic Method

In the syllabic method, students learn the written syllables in patterns of consonant-vowel such as ma, me, mi, mo, mu, and vowel- consonant am, em, im, om, um They are then taught to put syllables together to create words. This method allows Students to begin using them immediately in words and in sentences that provide meaning. Students feel that they are not merely learning isolated information like letter names and letter sounds. Clearly, this method stresses the teaching of units of syllables rather than sounds.

d. Linguistic Method

In the linguistic method, the learner is taught to recognize the frequently occurring patterns in words. Meaning is not the central focus but the patterns are. Very few visuals

are included and guessing is not encouraged. A pattern such as "at" is learned and the initial consonants are blended onto it, producing cat, bat, sat, rat, fat, mat, hat etc. Then the pattern "it" is taught and initial consonants are blended onto it producing bit, fit, sit, lit, kit etc. Final consonants are also blended onto a pattern as in "ma", man, map, mat, even though the phonological resemblance in many such patterns is lost.

Analytic Approaches

Analytic Approaches focus on whole words and comprehension of meaning, which can be examined further for their elements. The analytic approaches include several methods: (a) the language experience approach, (b) the global method, (c) the generative word method.

a. Global Method

In the global method, whole words, phrases and entire sentences are produced visually and the Students are told what they are. They memorize the words without ever taking them apart to look at their smaller elements. Students come to know alphabets, syllables and sounds without consciously learning them. The look-say method emphasizes the use of a series of flash cards and picture cards to facilitate reading. It also stresses meanings and ignores the writing system as a code. Theorists who support this method argue that dividing the words into syllables and learning the letters and sounds may create absurdities and destroy meaning, the heart of the reading process. However, this method places a great burden on memory and has been said to offer few or no opportunities to acquire basic awareness of the working of the writing system.

To help retain more and more sight words, the words for such cards are usually chosen in sets of high association vocabulary (dog, cat, mouse) rather than for pattern similarity (house, mouse, louse, or cat, mat, sat) as in the linguistic method. There is nothing to prevent using them for any method, but most students seem to prefer lexical sets rather than word patterns.

Only a few words can be memorized easily; the memorization problem rapidly becomes intrusive unless the learner uses other strategies Whole-word primers use

words with very different word shapes like Dick Jane, Sally, and Richards. The shape of the word makes it easy to discriminate and memorize. But words like pan, pen, pin are so similar in sound that they are difficult to remember unless some reference is made to vowel sounds. As differences in shape become smaller and smaller, it becomes very difficult to use shape alone for memorization. The student has no recourse but to refer to the sound equivalent, if not single letters, rather than the frequently-occurring patterns.

b. Generative Word Method

In generative word method, Students are presented with whole words and are asked to pronounce them, as in the global method. After they have memorized the material and can read it, they are taught how to analyse sentences and words into their component elements. Thus, they go from a meaning emphasis to the code and analyse how the code has been put together to create the meanings for them. They may discover syllables, sounds, letters, punctuation marks and capitalization. This method causes a sense of passivity in the minds of Students.

c. Language Experience Method

In the language experience method Students are encouraged to respond to events in their experience by recalling what they have thought about and can put into words. The Students' experiences determine the content of the reading material. In other words, Students produce their own personalized materials for reading. The teacher then writes what has been said by his Students, reads it back, asks for several repetitions of it until the Students can read what has been written. The Students see the relationships between thinking, speaking, and written. The teacher is responsible for maintaining a rich and interesting classroom environment that will elicit language and generate experience about which talking, writing, and reading can be accomplished. However, it is difficult to use this method exclusively, especially for the teaching of a foreign language where it is too necessary to have well-graded material and a structured program of reading lessons. Other difficulties in its use may include:

- a. Word-recognition skills are not generally developed through this method.
- b. It does not contain a structured series of lessons.

c. It is not based on sequential development of skills.

Eclectic Approaches

Eclectic Approaches combine successful elements of both synthetic and analytic approaches in an attempt to offer Students an effective reading program. It may include the presentation of whole sentences, identification of speech-print relationships by phonics, look-say practice with flash cards, use of the learner's own language, and a variety of other features drawn from several methods.

Skills for Effective Reading

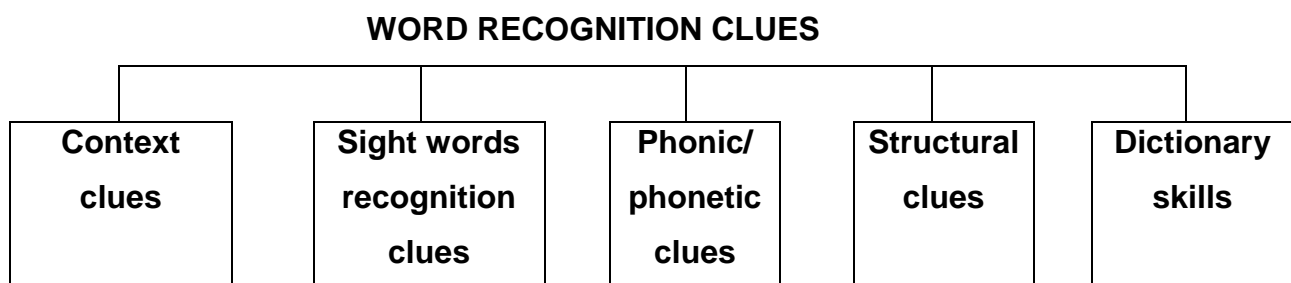
1. Association

Association is used to develop the skills for effective reading. A learner is asked to make an association between the sounds of the spoken words/sentences and the visual symbols of a printed page. For further discussion see pre-reading drills and the methods of reading EFL.

2. Recognition

Effective reading requires the instant recognition of words or phrases. A learner needs to look for reading clues to enable him to recognize the printed word. The reading clues encompass context clues, sight word recognition clues, phonic clues, structural clues and dictionary skills. (see Figure 4).

Figure 4



Context Clues: It is one of the basic types of word recognition skills. It is used to determine the unknown word in order to read and comprehend it efficiently. Context

clues are found in pictures, in the meaning of known words in the sentence, or in the oral discussion of the class. Reading is mainly concerned with word communication, hence skill in this area is of primary importance. The context often helps understand the particular meaning of the word or phrase. Using the context understand clue, a student tries to define and determine the unknown elements logically rather than use them merely by guessing.

Sight Word Recognition Clues: In sight word recognition clues, the reading teacher holds up a picture or a series of pictures in his hand and assists the Students in recognizing the words associated with each picture. He teaches reading by repeatedly telling Students about the given words. Sight words must be memorized through repetition. It is a type of look and say method. New sight words are added very slowly. Words are reinforced many times before new ones are added. The teacher works very hard to draw his Students attention initially to a series of words, each with a picture referent. The curriculum developer anticipates that Students will make some type of association between the symbol and its referent. Students should be introduced to study basic actions (come, run, jump, took, stand, open) and structure words (tense, articles, prepositions). The teacher should introduce at least 220 function words which constitute nearly half of our ordinary reading vocabulary.

Phonic/Phonetic Clues: Using phonic analysis, the teacher generalizes rules and facts about the relationship of sounds to certain letter symbols. These sound generalizations are employed as clues to read specific letter symbols. Sound generalizations are derived from the characteristics of sounds of letters or groups of letters. They describe the sound-to-symbol relationship of the English Language. Phonic clues deal with both consonant and vowel elements as in:

*[t] is silent between [s n] as in "to listen";

*initial [k] is silent before [n] as in "to know";

* [c] is pronounced [S] before [i, e, y] as in "city, ice, cycle".

The teacher can help students acquire the consonants occurring at initial, medial and final positions of a word. He should test them to fill in omitted letters in a word and

pronounce the whole word: -ittle (), re-(d), -ome (c) etc. Also, he can use the vowel completion exercises in testing his Students for example, - th-r(o-e) cl-ss(a), st--dent(u). Letters and vowels between parentheses are the omitted ones in these examples.

Structural Clues: They deal with the recognition of morphemic structures such as root (stem) words, compounds, contractions, endings, affixes and syllables. These structures permit reading to occur in a rapid fashion because the reader will break up the word into smaller elements by Syllabic structures. Structural elements have corresponding sounds, and frequently corresponding meanings. In the word "students" the morpheme -s indicates the presence of more than a single boy. (The morpheme gives an additional meaning and also an extra Sound of -S).

Structural clues are noticed in common contractions, ending and affixes. The following contractions are most common: Isn't, I'll, I'm and It's. Common endings include -s, -ed, -ing -er, and -est. The Common prefixes accounted for most of the reading in the elementary school are: dis-, in- pre-, re-, and un-.The following suffixes are the most common ones: -ion, -tion, -ance, -ent, -al, and -ly.

Dictionary Skills: Dictionary skills provide the reader with the independent means for determining the meaning of an unknown word and finding its pronunciation. It is used in a word recognition pronunciation sense. Students may also use a picture dictionary to identify unknown words.

3. Reading Speed

The reading speed depends mainly on the ability to read a chunk of words per glance. Fast readers make two or three fixations i.e., pauses per line. Slow reading results in perceiving and recognizing isolated words. i.e., word by word. Rapid reading is developed through regular training in eye-movement from left to right with few fixations at a glance from the early stage of reading onwards. Flash cards with phrases and sentences reinforce the sight skill and then increase the speeding rate of reading. Silent reading also speeds up the reading rate when it is used appropriately under the guidance of the reading teacher. Practice in rapid phrase identification also enables the reader to recognize the shapes of a group of words or phrases correctly while reading.

Here the language reader should make rapid and accurate eye fixations. Slow and inaccurate eye pauses result in slow reading and low comprehension. Lip movement and line following with finger also reduce reading rate.

4. Understanding

A language learner should understand what he reads. The essence of reading is undoubtedly understanding the idea, thought and message of a text. Precise understanding is the ultimate end for a learner. This enables the reader to understand exactly the meaning of the text whether it is a piece of literature, a scientific journal, a school book or a course syllabus.

Types of Reading

A. Silent Reading

Characteristics of Silent Reading

A proficient reader can adopt the following characteristics while reading silently:

- a. **Eye movement:** The student should move his eyes very rapidly from left to right without looking back at the previous words.
- b. **Complete silence:** He should make no lip movement. He should produce no oral words, no muttering or murmuring.
- c. **Accurate eye fixations:** He should make fewer pauses than he does while reading orally. He should make, say, two fixations per line.
- d. **Speed:** He should increase the rate of his reading. Quick reading results in better understanding of the printed material. Both speed and comprehension should be emphasized in silent reading.

Techniques in Teaching Silent Reading

A teacher in reading may wish to use the following procedures in using silent reading for his Students:

- a. Give a short and easy but interesting passage to your students. They should be familiar with its topic.
- b. Ask students to read it silently but rapidly without moving their lips or pronouncing its words.
- c. Set up the time for the reading passage.
- d. Formulate some comprehension questions on the reading passage.

B. Oral Reading

Characteristics of Oral Reading

A reader should consider the following characteristics while reading orally:

- a. **Pronunciation:** The teacher should give adequate and clear pronunciation to each word.
- b. **Rational reading:** He should read it with reasonable speed.
- c. **Pauses:** He should make proper pauses and correct stops to help learners understand the reading passage. Unnecessary pauses create confusion in grasping the meaning of the passage.
- d. **Tone:** He should give the accurate tones of a falling or a rising voice.
- e. **Stress:** He should produce a word or a syllable with louder and longer duration using more air from the lung than the surrounding words or syllables. Wrong stress can mislead the listeners.

Techniques in Teaching Oral Reading

The following techniques are suggested for EFL teachers to use in teaching oral reading:

- a. A language teacher should give constant practice in vocabulary recognition of the reading passage. He can use flash cards of a word or phrase, eye movement devices, and minimal pair exercises. He should also stress the use of other visual discrimination exercises and auditory discrimination drills to enhance reading.

- b. He should ask his students to use their fingers or their pens from the top to the bottom of the printed page at the left end of the line while reading. Students are asked not to move them from left to right across the page while following the line in order to avoid the undesirable result i.e., a bad reading habit.
- c. He should ask the students to look up while reading aloud. A student is asked not to read from the book. He should read to his teacher and classmates. He should read a phrase or a short sentence silently and then look up as if saying it to someone. He must look up during the reading of the whole sentence. He must not just look for a second and then look down again. The students start speaking the language even when they are "reading" and their progress can dramatically improve. This technique is very useful because the sentence that is read is held in the mind for a few minutes. There is an effort to memorize and remember it instead of only sounding out the print. Speaking is greatly reinforced by means of this technique.

Rapid Reading Techniques

1. Skimming

Skimming is a type of rapid reading technique. The purpose of this technique is to read rapidly. It is widely used to gain quick information from a text or article by passing over it swiftly. A person skim-reads to grasp quickly the main idea from a passage. He /She may also skim-read to test and assess materials for skipping or selecting. In these cases he/she may want to have a general overview of the reading material and need not read it precisely and thoroughly. We may also skim-read newspapers, magazines, familiar books or articles. Skimming is an economical and time saving technique.

To skim-read correctly, you need to be familiar with the organizational patterns of writing and the following procedures. There are four types of skimming: Skimming main ideas, skimming for revising a textbook, and skimming a newspaper, and skimming a

magazine or Journal. Each of these skimming types is discussed below. Teach the following purposes and procedures of each skimming type.

a. Skimming for Main Ideas:

Purpose: To skim-read for locating the main idea/s.

Procedures:

- a. Skim-read the first sentence of each paragraph.
- b. You may add a phrase or two from the second sentence of each paragraph.
- c. Skim-read the last sentence of each paragraph, i.e., the summarizing sentence.

b. Skimming for Revising a Textbook:

Purpose : To skim-read for revising a textbook or assessing the quality of the printed or written material:

Procedures:

- a. Divide the chapter into small parts, if it is long.
- b. Read the title and skim-read the opening chapter.
- c. Read the headings or subheadings of the chapter.
- d. Skim read the summary or conclusion of the chapter, if there is one.
- e. Read the discussion questions at the end of each chapter, if there are any.
- f. Scan-read for the answers of the given questions if they are available.

c. Skimming a Newspaper:

Purpose: To skim-read a newspaper:

Procedures:

- a. Read the title.
- b. Skim-read the opening paragraph which always covers who, what, where and when the news story took place.

d. Skimming a Magazine or Journal:

Purpose: To skim-read a magazine or journal:

Procedures:

- a. Read the title of the interesting article in the magazine.
- b. Skim-read the first and second paragraphs.
- c. Skim read the supporting paragraphs.
- d. Skim the first sentence of each paragraph.
- e. Also skim read the last paragraph which may be the articles summary/
conclusion

2. Scanning:

Scanning is a type of speed-reading technique. The purpose of this technique is to examine closely and rapidly a piece of printed or written material. It is used when the reader wants to locate a particular piece of information or fact without necessarily understanding the whole of a passage or script. The reader, for example, may scan-read a chapter of a book as rapidly as possible in order to find out information about a particular date, name, figure, or amount. Scanning comparatively is easier than skimming because the reader knows ahead of time what he wants to find. Scanning is used widely in the following situations:

- a. Looking up a number in telephone directory.
- b. Looking up a name in a list.
- c. Looking up days and dates in a schedule.
- d. Looking up a word or idiom in the dictionary.
- e. Looking up a reference in a book.
- f. Looking up a quotation in a research paper.
- g. Looking up a subject in an index of a book.
- h. Looking up an author's name or a title of a book in a library card catalogue

Scanning an Answer

To find a fact and an answer to a question, a learner may go through the following scanning steps :

- a. Decide what type of particular information you are looking for, and think about the form it may take. For example, if you want to know when something happened, you would look for a date. Also, when you have a question with whom you will look for a name, where for a place, what for a thing, how many for an amount, etc.
 - b. Place a pencil down the centre of the page from top to bottom.
 - c. Make two eye fixations/pauses per line of print. Make one stop to the left of the pencil and one to the right.
 - d. Move your eyes as quickly as possible down the page until you find information you need. Read the information carefully when you find it.
- However, to save

Reading Activities

In the following section two reading activities are discussed. These reading activities include extensive reading and intensive reading.

1. Extensive Reading Activity

In the extensive reading activity, an EFL teacher provides his students with plenty of printed pages to read as a homework assignment with no help or guidance from him. The reading materials consist of interesting short stories, novels and plays and tales. The chosen material should have neither technical or scientific vocabulary nor complicated grammar. Students are encouraged to read extensively without paying much concern to the vocabulary they do not know as long as they can understand the general concept of the reading text. Though the material plays no role in the EFL program, it is useful for developing good reading habit as an extracurricular activity. The material should be selected on the basis of its statement of purpose and its level of difficulty. The material should meet the students need to build up vocabulary and

structure and to gain general understanding from its content. It should be easy to read and to understand. It should be extensive in quantity and interesting in its topics. Students should be able to read the chosen material quickly with personal enjoyment and self-confidence outside the class. Frequent and systematic feedback on the extensive reading is essential to keep students reading.

2. Intensive Reading Activity

in the intensive reading activity, an EFL teacher supplies his learners with short passages to practice reading in the class or at home. The primary purpose of this activity is to teach new vocabulary and concepts to develop comprehension skills of the students. In this activity the reading teacher provides his students with a variety of exercises for learning syntactical devices and lexical features. Students are never asked produce or use grammatical patterns, but to recognize the structural clues for decoding the message. They are also trained to use lexical clues to decode messages from the reading text. The emphasis on the study of vocabulary and grammatical patterns should generally be on decoding in intensive reading classes. Students are taught to develop such skill for recognition as guessing meaning from context, using a dictionary and rapid phrase identification. The material normally deals with scientific or news reports; argumentative representations, narration, description and summary of a thing, persons, events and commentary reactions. It is considered an essential part of the established EFL programs. It assists and promotes the degree of understanding of students. The material is selected on the ground that its content is a little bit difficult and hard to read swiftly with only two fixations per line of print. This type of activity often requires a long time to manipulate.

Suggested Questions

1. Skimming is used differently according to the organized patterns of writing. Explain this statement with illustrations in terms of various writing materials such as a news story, magazine and textbook.
2. Compare the procedures to be used to skim-read for a main idea in (a) a magazine (b) a textbook.
3. Give four sets of examples to improve letter identification by your students.
4. Why is the eye-movement technique important to the reading skill? Show how this technique is applied to EFL learners.
5. Discuss with illustrations "scanning" as a device of speed reading.
6. Identify three major reading approaches and their relative methods.
7. Make a comparison and contrast between silent and oral reading.
8. How can you become an effective reader? Cite briefly the skills for effective reading.
9. How can you train your students to adopt a good habitual style of reading?
10. Develop three different exercises to improve number recognition by the reading learners.
11. Discuss the techniques in Silent and Oral reading.
12. Why is Scanning important in reading.
13. What is the distinction between Extensive reading and Intensive reading?
14. Cite the procedures a language teacher should follow in teaching a reading lesson.

9 The Teaching of Writing

Introduction

Composition is a writing practice which deals with a text longer than a single sentence, such as paragraphs, essays and reports. There are three types of composition exercises commonly used: controlled, directed and free.

In controlled composition, students are given sentences in short texts and instructed how to work by substituting, modifying, linking, expanding, rearranging and combining them. Manipulation of structure and vocabulary is controlled. This type of composition is normally used for beginners to train them to write grammatically correct text. In directed composition, students are encouraged to create their own sentences, their usage, the desired content and proper organization in a sentence, a topic and a paragraph or in a discourse. Their responses are restricted according to the given model or to the type of directions in the drill on composition. The model provides the content and guides the ideas for the composition. The teacher prepares his own models. He can also use model passages from the reading text or adapt them from external sources. Activities in this type of composition are generally designed for group working. In free composition, students are not controlled or limited to write on a given topic in any way. They are entitled to write whatever they like about a particular topic or report. The overall emphasis is laid on rhetorical organization of the paragraph and the discourse level of composition.

Composition involves the content of a written text (what to Say), logical organization and arrangement of the written sentences within a paragraph and paragraphs within the units of discourse (how to sequence what is said), and the expression of the ideas (how to express what is said with respect to mechanics).

Procedures in Teaching Composition

A writing teacher may wish to follow the procedures discussed below in a composition lesson:

1. Presentation of the Composition:

- a. The language teacher should discuss the type of composition assignment. He should also explain the idea, content, model and procedure of the composition.
- b. The language teacher should clear up any difficulty in linguistic rule. He should explain briefly the grammatical structures necessary for writing the assignment, particularly the controlled composition.
- c. He should be certain that students understand the assignment. the directions and the instructions.
- d. He should engage the entire class in the composition writing activity.

2. Writing of the Composition

- a. The EFL teacher should ask his students to write on lined paper of a standard size.
- b. He should ask them to write on every other line and to leave ample room for corrections.
- c. He should instruct them to write legibly and clearly. Sloppy and careless work is not accepted. The hand written composition should be neat. There should be no cross-outs, crowded letters and ink blots on the letter.
- d. He should allow students to ask questions to facilitate writing. He should provide them with list of vocabulary if they ask for it.
- e. He should be encouraging and stimulating to improve the standard level of writing compositions.

3. Correction of the Composition

- a. The teacher should give periodic and systematic feedback on the students' writing. All vocabulary, grammar and style mistakes should be indicated and the correct form should be supplied.
- b. The teacher and students should be familiar with the correction symbols for common mistakes. A list of symbols with their explanations and examples in text are prepared to facilitate proofreading, editing or

correction. The teacher should involve his students in practice to correct material such as the given sample. (See Table 2).

- c. The teacher can summarize the major rules of punctuation capitalization and spelling for his students. He should give them an outline of these rules in the beginning of the term.
- d. The teacher should review or discuss again the patterns which constitute a general mistake or problem for most of the students.
- e. The teacher should firmly ask his students to do the corrections He should not record the grade or mark for the written composition in their notebooks unless the students have already done the corrections.

Table 7
Correction Symbols

Symbols and Explanations	Examples in Text
≡ Use capital letters	college of education
○ Close up space	an other
^ Insert letter or word	d ⁱ vide
⊖ Delete, omit this part	ask ^o him
○ Spell out or abbreviate	22% off in (January)
≡ Use boldface type	Chapter
/ Use lower case or separate words	Do might be
↷ Transfer / transpose	a teacher language
↷	a language good teacher
← Move it to the left	← new house
→ Move it to the right	Happy Marriage →
¶ Insert new paragraph	Yesterday. ¶ However
No ¶ No paragraph. Join it to the preceding one	Yesterday. ¶ However
= Straighten line	th re
⊙ Insert period	neatly. Our

⋮	Insert colon	two items (a) clock
^	Insert comma	It happens [^] fortunately, that
'	Insert apostrophe	manager's
?	Insert question mark	Is it too late? No,
!	Insert exclamation mark	What a nice day!
"	Insert quotation marks	He said "will
-	Insert hyphen	well ⁻ known trade mark
;	Insert semi-colon	as discussed [;] therefore
//	Use parallel form	to use and apply the
prep	Change or supply the preposition	consist ^{prep} from
sp.	Spell it correctly	<u>Famalarize</u>
#	Insert a space	Draw a tree
stet	Let it stand as set	He disappeared
(/)	Use parentheses	Two features: (/) a to highlight
[/]	Use brackets	its colour ^[/] is red
agr	Reconsider the verb agreement	The number of pupils ^{agr} are
v.	Insert a verb	His handwriting ^{v.} legible

adj	Reconsider the adjective/Use adjective	He is a ^{adj} boy.
frag	Sentence fragment	We read and then ^{frag} copied it
gr	Correct the mistake in grammar	<u>The dogs are</u>
tns	Correct the tense	They ^{tns} make it yesterday.
ww	Select another word(wrong word)	Keep your hand ^{ww} clear

Practice in the Use of Correction Symbols: Students are given the sample as a practice for correcting its information using the correction symbols. The text is the originally corrected reference which students may need to cross check their answer.

The Text: While we were camping at the desert, all of a sudden, a golden snake came out from a thick rock. It moved directly to us. I cried crazily and ran away. One of my friends held an axe to hit it. The snake disappeared.

The Sample: While we were camping at the Desert, all of a sudden a golden sneak came out from a thick rock. it move direct to us I cried crazily I and ran away. One of my friends held an anaxe to hit it. The Snake disappeared.

Techniques in Teaching Composition

1. Techniques in Controlled Composition

There are several techniques in teaching controlled composition.

1. The language teacher asks his students to make changes in a particular grammatical item in a given passage, for example, to modify its tense to past.

Example: I have a two week vacation. I think, I will spend it in Luxor with my family. It's going to be a wonderful and interesting trip.

Answer: I had a two week vacation. I thought I would spend it in Luxor. It was going to be a wonderful and interesting

2. The language teacher asks his students to make relative changes as a result of a modification in a grammatical feature such as pronouns in the following example.

Ex.: I decided to go to Cairo with my brother. We will meet on the beach and enjoy ourselves.

Ans.: He decided to go to Cairo with his brother. They will meet on the beach and enjoy themselves.

3. The language teacher gives a variety of acceptable alternative-words to his students to select and substitute. Only one alternative-word is accepted for substitution as in the following example:

Ex.: I have decided to go to Aswan with my brother...

Cue: (planned, fly, wife)

Ans.: I have planned to fly to Jeddah with my wife...

4. The language teacher writes pairs or sets of sentences on the board asking his students to combine them to form a single sentence, Without using "and" or "but". For example:

Ex.: Do you have a two-week vacation?

I will spend it in Los Angeles.

My family will accompany me.

Ans.: Do you have a two-week vacation to spend in Los Angeles with your family?

Ex.: Do you plan to work harder?

I will study for three hours daily.

I will work with my brother.

Ans.: Do you plan to work harder studying with your brother for three hours daily?

5. The language teacher gives general modifiers, i.e., adjectives and adverbs which qualify or limit the meanings of nouns and verbs respectively, asking his students to insert the appropriate one in the place of each number or in the proper place. A sample exercise might go like this:

Ex.: I have (1) decided to fly to Jeddah with my (2) friend
next week. We will spend two (3) days enjoying
ourselves.

(1) finally; just; already

(2) respected; old; decent

(3) charming; delightful; beautiful

Ans.: I have already decided to fly to Jeddah with my
respected friend next week. We will spend two
charming days enjoying ourselves.

2. Techniques in Teaching Directed Composition

- a. Students are asked to conduct real or imaginary written interviews with their classmates. They should decide about the nature of the information to be obtained. Students might prepare an application form about the background information of the interviewee, e.g., nationality, age, education, experience, family size. It may also include a survey of other activities of interest and course preference. A real interview may take place and be held at the beginning of each semester with new friends.
- b. Students are asked to make a written description of the items in the picture including locations, shapes, sizes and colors. The teacher can write necessary words and expressions on the board to help his students write useful and meaningful information.
Ex: Suppose I draw a picture of your class. Imagine that the picture is hung on board and try to describe the items in it in detail in a form of a written paragraph.
- c. The language teacher divides his class into pairs of students. In each pair, he gives one of the students a picture, asking him to write a description thereof and then give it to his companion. This description of the picture is

used as a base for the partner for rough drawing. Finally, students collaboratively make lists of similarities and dissimilarities between the written description and the drawing.

- d. The writing teacher develops a list of questions about a particular picture, asking his students to write complete answers to them. Then, students are instructed to put these sentences together to form a paragraph. Students may need to use combining exercises while developing the passage.
- e. Students are asked to discuss, describe and explain in a written form a series of objects in the class. These descriptions should be so concise and accurate that they will distinguish the items under discussion. from all other relevant ones. The teacher can, for instance, ask group "A" describe the items: board, chairs and desks, whereas group "B" may be asked to identify: window, doors and walls.
- f. Students can write lists of words, for example, about items they should prepare for their picnic, shopping list, list of things to do tomorrow, list of people to invite to a party, list of places to visit and so on. Students first, list the names of the items and then classify them into specific categories. The list of the things to be prepared for the picnic, for instance entails:

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------|
| a. a ball. | b. blankets |
| c. cooking pots | d. flashlights |
| e. fruits | f. knives |
| g. matches | h. meat |
| i. rice | j. salt |
| k. spoons | l. a tent |
| m. T-shirts | n. vegetables |
| o. water | p. playing cards |

These categories include clothing, food, kitchen articles, and sport items, etc. Finally, students use these categories while writing a paragraph, for example, preparation items for a class picnic.

- g. The teacher tells a story to his class and then asks them to repeat in writing.
- h. Students are asked to take notes on lectures and on formal discussions.

Ex: Ask students to write down an intensive report on the types of activities to be used in teaching composition.

- i. The teacher writes or tells an incomplete story, dialogue, event, or personal experience to his class asking them to complete it in a written form. For example:

Ex.: Once I was walking late at night, I heard a horrible voice.

- j. The language teacher writes a story on board asking his students to use it as a model in writing a creative one beginning with a similar introduction. students can add or delete words in the text. Such an exercise might be as follows:

Ex.: I wrote a business letter to my customers informing them about the arrival of the stock last week.

Ans.: The newsman wrote a brief report to his readers describing the car accident that happened yesterday.

- k. The language teacher reads a short paragraph or a story aloud several times asking his class to answer the comprehension questions based on it. He then repeats it and lists several key words on the chalkboard. Using these words as cues, the students should try to rewrite the story or paragraph in a meaningful and complete manner. Teacher should check it and indicate errors, gaps and sequence problems.
- l. Students are asked to make a variety of simple and meaningful sentences which are put on the chalkboard. Students are encouraged to consider these sentences and try to combine them in any way to form a coherent passage in a written form. Students can work individually or collectively in this activity. For example, students may create the following sentences:

Ex.: I get up at 8 o'clock.

I enjoy reading.

I spend a good time at school.

I have a new car.

I work very hard.

Ans.: I get up at 8 clock. I go to school in my new car. There I have a good time, enjoying reading and working very hard

m. Students are given an "advertisement" from a magazine asking them to describe it in a form of a letter writing to a friend as illustrated below:

Ex.:

Grand Opening Spanish Food Oct 22 nd to Nov.3 SR. 30 per guest plus service charges

n. The teacher gives a particular diagram to each student in a pair asking him to write instructions on how to create it and to redraw the diagram. Then they make a comparison between theirs and the original These instructions may include how to prepare a particular dish, how to write a coherent paragraph in the target language, how to behave with your parents.

C. Techniques in Free Composition

In independent composition, creativity is encouraged. Creative writing involves topics such as essays, personal diaries, research, reports. and term papers. The basic principle is to provide the reader with accurate and clear information. Certain writing formats are considered in the writing of these topics.

a. Students are asked to make a special diary to state in English their feelings, events, activities and reaction to incidents they get involved in on a particular day. Correcting and grading are not recommended to encourage fluency. However, the work is checked periodically and systematically to ensure the participation of the entire class in writing.

b.

Personal Diary
May, 1995 Thursday 23 rd , It was a lovely day that I spent with my close friends in the park. We played volleyball. My team won the match. My mother cooked a delicious dinner.

c. The language teacher asks his students to write a paragraph in the target language at the end of the class period about what was covered and what happened in the class. Students might write about attendance, subject matter, types of activities, mood of the teacher and students and give general comments and reaction as in the following example:

d.

Wednesday 24, I had an English language test. As I was not well-prepared for it, I felt very frustrated. I was afraid that the questions would be very difficult. When the teacher distributed the question paper, I read all the questions then I was a bit relieved of the frustration and began to feel much relaxed and comfortable.

e. Students are asked to write an inquiry report or essay about any topic suggested by the EFL teacher.

f. A writing teacher may ask his students to compose a letter of a particular type, i.e., personal letter, business letter, official letter, or a complaint letter. Students

are not given a model to use in their writing, The teacher may only draw their attention to the appropriate format and layout of writing a letter such as:

- Putting the sender's address in the top right hand corner.
- Putting the date under the sender's address.
- Starting the letter with "Dear Sir/Madam/Mr/Mrs/Miss/Ms/Bush.
- Use the surname, or the given name, but never both as in "Dear Robert Bush"
- Putting a comma after "Dear.....,"
- Feel free to write whatever you want to say in a simple, clear manner in paragraph form.
- Closing the letter with either "Yours sincerely," or "Yours faithfully," with your signature under it.

(Detailed information will be given under the Teaching of letter writing)

- g. Students are asked to write about their wishes, fears, and troubles in life. Feelings, naturally, stimulate creative writing Students are encouraged to express such feelings, by clearing out any difficulty in the selection of Vocabulary and structure.
- h. Students are provided with a variety of titles and then asked to write on one of them. Such titles of writing material might be like this:

Lucky Boy

Help! Help!

My Education

Fire! Fire!

A Lost Child

When I Was a Child

A Scientific Discover

My Dear Parents

Nightmare

Steps in Writing Composition

The EFL teacher should discuss with the students steps in writing a composition. He should provide numerous examples and various practices in assembling materials, outlining the heading, writing a paragraph, developing a discourse, making a conclusion, and revising the written paragraphs. He may wish to use the following techniques and activities in teaching the steps in writing the composition:

Step 1: Choosing the Composition

- a. Select an interesting subject which your students have or can find enough information to write about. The chosen subject should have special meaning for them.
- b. Limit the scope of your subject to a specific topic so that you can cover it adequately. Hence, you have to state the purpose of your composition clearly.

Step 2: Assembling Materials

- a. Ask students to make a list of ideas about the subject you propose for writing. Tell them that it is not necessary to get their ideas in a logical order at this early stage of writing.
- b. Finally, ask them to review the list of their ideas and eliminate the unrelated or unimportant themes from it. Clear up any difficulty.

Step 3: Writing an Outline

- a. Ask them to write the title of the subject in the centre at the top.
- b. Show them with examples how to classify the related ideas into groups according to their similar characteristics and general concepts.
- c. Help them arrange these groups of ideas in a meaningful and logical way.
- d. Show them how to outline ideas using Roman numerals to identify headings (main topics), capital letters to identify subheadings (subtopics), and Arabic numeral of sub-subheadings (sub-subtopics). Emphasize that each heading should focus on only one particular thought.
- e. Ask students to start with an outline of the largest and salient ideas and proceed to smaller and less ones. Make a distinction between ideas by using numbers and letters.
- f. Explain with illustrations the use of parallelism of topic in the outline. Emphasize that main topics should be parallel in grammatical form. Likewise, subtopics under the same main topic should be parallel in

grammatical form. For example, if the first subtopic in the list is an adjective the others should be adjectives as well.

- g. Give plenty of drills to enable the students to organize and present their ideas effectively and logically in written form. Students should be encouraged to outline a subject into main headings and subheadings.

Step 4: Writing and Revising the Paragraph of the First Draft

- a. Ask students to compose their ideas clearly and put them in a logical order in a paragraph. Each paragraph should discuss only one topic which is stated in the topic sentence. Sentences in the paragraph should flow and be related to one another smoothly.
- b. In the first draft, ask them to ignore problems and errors in spelling, capitalization, punctuation and style development.
- c. Ask them, while writing the first draft, to leave large margin and space between lines for additions, modifications and corrections
- d. Let them now revise their writing after they have completed recording their ideas. Students should be encouraged to check the text, style, and the mechanics in each paragraph. In the revision activity, you should play a significant role in clarifying any difficulties.

Step 5: Teach Transition and Their Uses

Ask students to make a clear and smooth transition between paragraphs by using linking words at the beginning of a paragraph. Students may use direct or indirect links.

Direct links are the following connectives:

However	Otherwise	In addition	as much as
Moreover	Therefore	Likewise	In fact
In conclusion	Thus	Similarly	Accordingly

Meanwhile Indeed For instance On the other hand

Furthermore Next For example Finally

Hence Consequently At last In contrast

Indirect links are pronouns, repetition of key words or phrases, and synonyms. Pronouns serve as transitions to connect a person or a thought mentioned in the preceding paragraph. Pronouns commonly used as linking words are: I, you, he, she, it, they, them, one, this, that, these, those, etc. Repeating in the first sentence of a paragraph a key word or phrase used in the preceding paragraph makes a smooth transition between the two paragraphs. Giving also in the first sentence of a paragraph a synonym to a word in the preceding paragraph makes a clear link between the two paragraphs.

Step 6: Making a Conclusion

Ask students to write a concluding paragraph which is a kind of summary of the major points of the composition. In this paragraph students highlight and emphasize the most important thoughts that he tackled and discussed in the composition.

Step 7: Revising the First Draft

- a. Ask students to check the introduction, paragraphing, transition between paragraphs and conclusion.
- b. Encourage them to eliminate or add ideas, change orders of ideas, modify the structure of sentences, check punctuation marks, and correct spelling.

Step 8: Developing the Final Draft

- a. Ask them to rewrite the first draft neatly after making all changes and improvements in the revision.
- b. Emphasize the layout of writing or typing it.

Teaching Letter Writing

The EFL teacher should teach how to write effective personal and business letters. He should explain the structure and form of letter writing. He should familiarize his students with the parts of a letter by discussing and giving examples of them. He should give plenty of practice in letter writing by using the techniques in directed composition and free composition. He may wish to discuss and illustrate the parts of letters as follows.

1. Sender's Address

- a. The address or heading appears at the top right-hand corner of the letter. The heading consists of four lines: (a) The number of the house followed by the name of the street; (b) the town or city, state and zip code number; (c) the country- if it is to be sent abroad; (d) The date should be written as discussed earlier, as the last element in the address. However, if the letter sheet is a letter head, place the date two space below.
- b. According to the British standard of letter writing, each item of the address is followed by a comma, but the last item is followed by a full stop. However, Americans generally do not use punctuation at the end of each line in the address, unless the last word is abbreviated. In that case it should be followed by a full stop.
- c. The heading should be single-spaced and typed in the block form.
- d. The following abbreviations can be used in the personal address:

St. for street

Rd. for Road

Sq. for Square

Ave. for Avenue.

However, in the business letter, it is advised to avoid using abbreviations in the address or in the names of months.

e. The date can be written in three ways:

22nd May, 1998

May 22nd, 1998

May 22, 1998

f. The letter writer can use abbreviations for the following months of the year that would appear on the personal letter "Jan.," "Feb.," "Aug.," "Sept.," "Oct.," "Nov.," and "Dec.". However, the names of the months: March, April, May, June and July can be written in full.

2. Recipient's Address

It is always used in a business letter, but not in a personal one. Three spaces should be left below the heading, in line with the left-hand margin, as shown in the sample letter. The recipient's address should consist of (a) the addressee's name and title. The title can be given on the same line preceded by a comma or on a separate line, below it without any punctuation (b) the company or organization's name and address, (c) the City, state with a comma between them, and zip code and (d) the country, if it is to be sent abroad. Remember that the date should not be given under the recipient's address. The letter should be typed in single space, in a block form.

3. Salutation

- a. Ask students to begin the personal letter with the salutation "Dear", in the left-hand margin against the heading. The word "Dear" could be followed by a title or the first name of a friend (Dear Professor Hafiz, Dear Ali) or a relation (Dear Father, Dear Mother, Dear Uncle Ibrahim, Dear Aunt Muna, etc.). The salutation is normally followed by a comma, not a colon.
- b. Tell students that the salutation in the business letter takes three formats according to your relation to the recipient. When you write to an individual in a company and you have got his name, use (Dear Mr. Krashen: When you write directly to a firm or a group, use (Gentlemen:) or (Ladies:). When you write to a particular person, but you have not got his/her name use

(Dear Sir:), (Dear Madam) or (Dear Ms:). The salutation should be followed by colon or a comma.

4. Introduction

Teach your students that in the introduction, they should state an incident that stimulates them to write the letter. Give them some introductory statements which might go like this:

Hello! I trust this letter will find you well.

Thank you very much for your letter which I received...

I was glad to hear from you that...

I am so glad that you were able to accept...

I am sorry it has taken me so long to write, but..

I have not heard from you for some time, so..

It was very kind of you to

5. Body

- a. The body of the letter includes an explanation about the reasons and motives of writing the letter. It should state all information you want your addressee to have. It should be clear, and informative.
- b. This part of the letter is always written below the salutation and the opening statements. It is normally typed single-spaced, with double-spacing between paragraphs. You can type the paragraphs in indented or block form.

6. Conclusion

Ask your students to conclude their letters with such statements as:

I am looking forward to seeing you soon.

I shall be looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Thanks for your cooperation in...

With my best wishes.

I wish you good luck in.

I wish you success in (your educational career).

Please pass my nice regards to..

7. Closing

In the closing part, students should be asked to use the standard form of the complimentary close such as "Sincerely", "Sincerely yours" "Yours truly," "Very truly yours", "Respectfully yours, ". The complimentary close Should begin with a capital letter and end with a comma. The sender should sign his letter in the space left between the complimentary close and his name. His signature should be readable.

8. Additional Remarks

The sender could use additional remarks at the left hand corner under the signature. The teacher should introduce these abbreviations and ask them to:

Use "P.S." if you want to make a note or add some information after the closing.
PS. stands for postscript.

Use "cc": if you want to circulate copies of the letter to people other than the recipient.

Use "Encl." or "encl." if you want to enclose additional material with the letter.

9. The Envelope

The name and address of the person to whom the letter is sent should be placed in the middle of the envelope. Titles (Prof, Dr, Mr, etc.) are always used with names (the first or initial letter and family name). On an envelope. But the return address of the sender should be written on the upper left-hand corner. His name should not be followed by a title on the envelope.

Suggested Questions

1. Point out with examples five techniques for teaching directed composition.
2. Explain in detail four techniques in teaching controlled composition and two in free composition.
3. What are the main differences in controlled, directed and free compositions?
4. Letter writing and storytelling could be used in teaching directed and free compositions. Explain this statement with illustrations.
5. Explain how a language teacher should correct a written composition.
6. Identify certain symbols which are used in correcting a written composition. Give an example of each symbol.
7. Point out the distinction between topic outline and sentence outline.
8. Discuss the important steps that a language teacher has to follow while teaching his students the methods of writing a composition.
9. Show how the structure of writing a personal letter differs from a business letter.
10. Point out the elements of writing a letter. Develop a personal letter to your friend where in all its elements are included.

10 The Teaching of Handwriting

Introduction

Legibility of handwriting is essential for EFL learners because a script is meant for reading purpose. Legibility leads to easy and pleasant reading, It helps the readers and the graders to read both intensively and extensively without any feeling of boredom. The graders might be influenced by the legible handwriting and be stimulated to read the entire written material easily and the reverse of it is equally true. On the other hand, illegibility in handwriting may create an adverse reaction on the part of the readers and the graders. In sum, legibility is very important in passing the printed message on to the readers.

Procedures in Teaching Handwriting

A good lesson in handwriting should go through these procedures: (1) visualization, (2) analysis, (3) practice, (4) evaluation and (5) correction. Each of these procedures will be discussed below:

1. Visualization

A language teacher can present printed letters or words visually on cards. Flashcards and wall charts of alphabets and coloured chalk should be used to facilitate the teacher's demonstration of the writing of English letters. Strips of paper with capital and lower case letters are to be pasted above the board as an instructional aid to familiarize the Students with and to show them the proper strokes of handwriting.

2. Analysis

The teacher can discuss how to make and form each letter on the cards separately. The teacher should show the proper strokes of English letters.

3. Practice

A language teacher should ask the students to come to the board and copy the letters or words given on the cards. The rest should practice writing in the copy books.

Practice should include a variety of handwriting drills, for example, on spacing, slant and size of letters.

4. Evaluation

The teacher can check the students handwriting in order to detect if they consider the quality of good handwriting in their performance. Uniform Spaces and size, for example, should be maintained, otherwise students should be directed to reconsider it in writing. Here, the writing teacher also shows where the writer starts each letter and the direction of the strokes.

5. Correction

A language teacher should direct the students to rewrite the transcript with their utmost effort. Better performance in writing should be achieved. Correction of writing is essential and should be made promptly. In correction the language teacher should give the correct model of handwriting in his Students' notebooks. The teacher should give remedial classes to help his Students eliminate errors in handwriting.

Techniques in Teaching Handwriting

Numerous techniques could be used to teach legible handwriting to FFL students. These teaching techniques deal with the sitting position, strategies of introducing handwriting and handwriting assignments.

1. Sitting Position

Show the proper sitting position for writing legibly. The teacher should draw his Students attention to the following principles of the proper sitting position:

- a. Desks and chairs should be at the correct height for Students.
- b. Students should sit straight.
- c. They should have their feet flat on the floor to sustain their weight
- d. Their forearms should rest on the desk ready for writing.
- e. They should hold their paper with the free hand.
- f. They should keep the chair close enough to the desk.

- g. They should not bend over on the paper too much which causes strain on their eyes.
- h. They should keep the desk clear of other materials.
- i. They should hold the pen loosely.

2. Strategies of Introducing Handwriting.

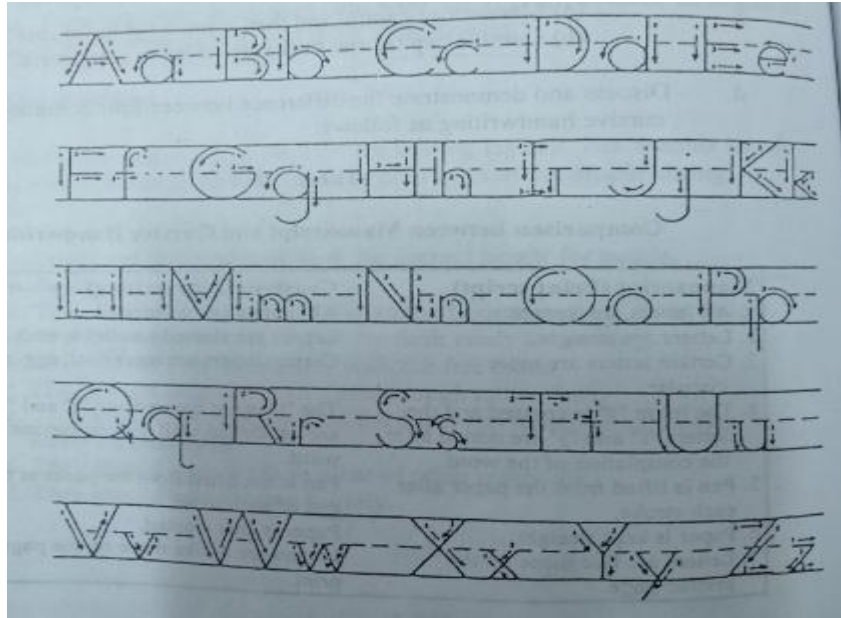
- a. Start teaching capital letters then proceed to lower case form.
- b. Make a clear distinction between capital and lower case letters by using a variety of drills such as:
 - (a) Two letter grouping.
 - (b) Matching between capital and lower case form.
 - (c) Tic- tac- toe.
 - (d) Jigsaw matching.
- c. Teach manuscript handwriting first and the cursive one later. Moreover, begin to teach:
 - a. Manuscript capital and then manuscript lower case letters.
 - b. Cursive capital and then cursive lower case letters.
 - c. Discuss and demonstrate the difference between print script and cursive handwriting as follows:

Comparison between Manuscript and Cursive Handwriting

Manuscript (print script)	cursive (Loop writing)
1. All letters are separate.	All letters are connected.
2. Letters are straight	Letters are slanted parallel to each other.
3. Certain letters are more circular.	Certain letters are more oval, egg-shaped.
4. The letter "t" is crossed and the letters "i" and "j" are dotted after the completion of the word.	The "t" is not crossed and "l" and "j" are not dotted until the completion of word.
5. Pen is lifted from the paper after each stroke.	Pen is not lifted from the paper at the end of each letter.
6. Paper is kept straight.	Paper is kept slanted.
7. Letters are like those on the printed page.	Letters are unlike those on the page of print.

- e. Use several tracing letter from exercises to train the Students to the proper hand movement and stroke of the English letters.
- f. Give accurate 'models on the board, showing the right hand. movement and regular stroke of letters.
- g. Distribute handouts on the Alphabet in which you highlight the hand-movement by using numbered arrows to show the direction of the initial, medial and final strokes of each letter separately.

English Alphabet



h. Prepare and paste a permanent and clear Alphabet strip of capital and lower case-form at the top of the board in order to be of assistance to your Students when they write. For example:

Aa	Bb	Cc	Dd	Ee	Ff	Gg
----	----	----	----	----	----	----

h. Discuss the criteria for good handwriting. The quality of legible handwriting should be emphasized and done at the board before it is started on paper at the desk.

Quality of Legible Handwriting

Features	Description
1. Spacing	Equal spacing between letters and between words is necessary for legibility and ease in reading.
2. Size of letters:	All letters should be uniform have correct height and width. All letters should have proper and relative height width.
3. Alignment:	All letters should touch and rest on the baseline.
4. Slant: proper uniform	All letters should lean the same way. In order to have a proper slant, the paper and pen must be held correctly. However, too much slant causes crowded letters.
5. Quality of line:	The line should be printed neither heavily nor lightly. A heavy line signifies that the pen is held too firmly. A light line signifies that the pen is held too lightly.
6. Directionality	The hand-movement should be from left to right.

1. Handwriting Assignments

- a. Ask your language students to practice handwriting in and out of the class. A special four-line paper should be used to start with. They can switch over to two lined and then the standard ruled paper in due course of time. The Students should also be asked to write on the handwriting books provided by the school beginning with the last line of and going up to the preceding one of the page. The amount of work should be based on and controlled by the amount of time free for supervision as well as by the fatigue factor. Most Students feel tired after writing for about ten minutes.
- b. Give consistent and regular supervision, correction and feedback to illegible handwritings of individuals. Writing should be supervised to avoid poor habits, such as gripping the pencil too lightly, incorrect letter formations and poor sitting position.
- c. Give special concern to individuals and assess their progress in handwriting periodically. The teacher should recognize the differences and

appreciate that no two Students write the same way. Hence the teacher should emphasize individual improvement in handwriting rather than insisting on similar standards for all.

- d. Never use handwriting exercises for disciplinary purposes. Mischievous students are not required to do more handwriting assignments as part of a punishment device.
- e. Identify the types and causes of common errors in handwriting. The teacher should also tell Students the disadvantages or illegible handwriting.

Samples of Common Errors in Handwriting

Names and Types of Errors

1. Spacing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Letters spacing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. letters are written too close b. letters are written far apart ii. Word spacing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. There is not enough space b. Words are written far apart c. There is no uniform spacing between words 	
2. Size	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Letters are too small b. Letters are too large c. Letters are not relatively high d. Letters are not relatively wide 	
3. Closing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Failure to close certain letters 	
4. Roundness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Some letters are not rounded 	
5. Loops	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Letters are written without loops 	
6. Alignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Letters rest above the base line b. Letters rest below the base line 	
7. Slant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Letters are not slanted 	
8. Faulty endings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Failure to end the letter without proper stroke 	

Suggested Questions

1. Point out the important strategies used in teaching handwriting.
2. Compare and contrast the print script and cursive writing.
3. What are the advantages of legible handwriting?
4. State the characteristics of good handwriting
5. Identify with illustrations the common errors committed in handwriting
6. Point out the proper procedures of teaching handwriting. If you have another one please feel free to write it down.
7. Discuss the various techniques of giving and correcting the assignments on handwriting.
8. Use the numbered arrows to show how to train your students to write English alphabets legibly.

11 The Teaching of Vocabulary

Introductory Points

1. Vary the use of techniques in presenting the meanings of new vocabulary.
2. Avoid the myth that a particular technique is the best. All techniques are good according to their situations. Different situations have different techniques and requirements. Certain techniques are not always the best to present any words.
3. Begin to introduce concrete vocabulary then switch on to abstract ones. Concrete vocabulary items such as numbers, days of the week, shapes, colors and names of objects are easy to learn. Also start with vocabulary items which are related to the environment and the personal experiences of your learners.
4. Remember that it is difficult to learn adverbs and adverbial expressions. Hence special concern and care should be devoted to their presentation for the first time.
5. In order to avoid confusion in meanings, don't introduce words With some close relation and connection in meaning at the same time. There should be separate time to ensure the full mastery of the first word prior to the presentation of the second word.
6. Keep the fact in mind that a teacher's duty does not end by only teaching the meanings of new vocabulary but extends to providing practice with them until their use becomes fully mastered. This teaching role is sometimes neglected or not fully emphasized.
7. Get your students acquainted with the meanings of the common suffixes, roots, and suffixes. A student should also be encouraged to apply prefixes and suffixes to expand the meanings of new words and change their parts of speech, such as: danger, endanger, dangerous, dangerously.
8. Provide your Students with careful training in how to use the dictionary properly. You should explore your Students' ability to use head- words properly in locating the desired words. A monolingual dictionary is greatly emphasized compared to a bilingual one.

Procedures in Teaching Vocabulary

A language teacher can go primarily through these procedures in teaching new vocabulary:

1. Ask simple questions or point to the object, item, or picture and let the students see the object.
2. Give accurate pronunciation of the word and let the students hear it.
3. Ask for repetition of the new word using the chorus method then let the students say it until they have no difficulty in pronouncing it.
4. show the meaning of the new vocabulary various techniques such as drawing , mime, object, context, etc., and let the students listen attentively to your explanation.
5. Write down the new word on the board with emphasis on its spelling and let the students copy it in their notebooks.
6. Wait for a while and let individuals read the new words on the board.
7. Check to ensure that the meanings of new words are understood by asking quick questions such as:
 - show me your book
 - point to your bag.
 - touch your nose.
8. Assign some vocabulary exercises and activities to your students which reinforce the meaning of vocabulary items.

Techniques in Presenting New Vocabulary

1. Context

An EFL teacher can create a self-explanatory context or situation in known structures to introduce new words. Words become meaningful when they are taught in context, not in isolation. New words in contexts can either be abstract or difficult. Words

occurring before or after the newly presented vocabulary or phrase help students deduce their meanings. This deductive process is effective and reliable particularly when the new words in the sentence are already known to students. Suppose you have to teach these new words: dentist, lend and perfume; the following contexts are appropriate to show the meanings because the teacher has already introduced all the words in sentences except the new ones:

- a. He had severe pain in his tooth. Hence, he went to see a dentist.
- b. I forgot to bring my purse into the school today, please lend me L.E 50.00.
- c. The doctor asked her to stay in bed for a week because she was very ill yesterday.

The context and situation should be clear, vivid and relevant to the students cultural background. Some situations could, for example, be misinterpreted if they are not clear and vivid as follows:

- a. Today I have an appointment to see a doctor at campus (campus vs. hospital).
- b. Yesterday, I bought some writing material and office supplies from a bookstore. (bookstore vs. stationery).

In these examples students might think of a hospital instead of campus and a bookstore instead of a stationery. Moreover, students, for example, could not be personally acquainted with the meanings of these phrases in contexts because they are culturally bound:

- a. Sham-Elnaseem costumes
- b. Christmas (I bought a Christmas Tree).
- c. trick or treat

Therefore, the meaning of such phrases should be exactly understood prior to use in contexts or situations. Accordingly the teacher should check to ensure that the meaning of the new words are exactly understood.

2. Description or Definition

An EFL teacher can describe a new vocabulary item by providing verbal picture or illustration which enhances the clarity of its meaning in the mind of students. Examples of the use or description in presenting vocabulary words are as follows:

- a. Giraffe is an animal with a long neck and legs, and dark brown spots on its yellow skin.
- b. A person is having fever when he has abnormally high temperature as a sign of illness.

Moreover, a language teacher can provide definitions in simple English to introduce the meanings of new words. Using simple definition for the newly presented vocabulary requires considerable experience in TEFL. It is useful and helpful to consult a learners' dictionary such as the Oxford Students Dictionary of American English and the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. An English dictionary which is prepared for learners of ESL/EFL is an excellent source for providing simple definitions along with simple example sentences. Examples of such simple definitions for newly introduced words are as follows:

- a. To borrow is to get something from somebody with an intent to return.
- b. To expand is to make or become larger in size, extent, volume, etc.

3. Educational Trips

An EFL teacher can make an educational trip to teach students new words visually, for example, on a farm, in a zoo, cafeteria, science laboratory, museum etc. Words for things in a street or a shop window can also be introduced on the trip. Names of animals such as a monkey, lion, elephant, tiger, bear, camel, fox, zebra, kangaroo, and gazelle can be introduced in a living context, i.e., in a zoo.

In a single visit to an outside classroom location, a language teacher can introduce many words to his students. Hence, it is recommended to make plenty of revision of newly introduced vocabulary. This teaching way of new vocabulary in a living context is Very vivid and valuable.

4. Objects

An EFL teacher can use real objects and items available in the classroom to show the meanings of English nouns for words such as doors, windows, desks, chairs, chalk, and pencils, etc. Hundreds of such objects and items are already available in the classroom. He can also use realia asking students to bring some real objects and items into a classroom. Realia may include such things as fruits, articles of clothing, and kitchen utensils. To avoid confusion, the teacher should draw the students attention first to an object and then to its meaning. This technique is very useful because it encompasses the practical process in learning vocabulary i.e., pointing to it, saying it, explaining it, writing it, and having it read.

5- Drawing

An EFL teacher can draw simple objects on the board to help students understand the meanings of new words. He can draw, for example, a set of stick figures to illustrate the meanings of a bicycle, car, train, boat, tree, and ladder. The teacher can also draw simple items such as flowers, the sun, a tea-pot and keys to identify the equivalent words in the target language. However, it is not necessary for the language teacher to be an artist to use this technique. Drawing the objects should be clear and complete but not confusing.

6. Mime

An EFL teacher can use mime, pantomime and gesture to introduce new vocabulary. He can demonstrate and perform actions (without words) to show the meaning of action verbs such as to eat, drink, wave, smile, jump. and sleep. Miming action is a good technique to teach or use the progressive verb forms (-ing with am, is or are) such as eating, running opening, closing, and any other physical and psychological conditions. Descriptive adjectives such as fat, thin, short, and tall can be acted out.

Preposition of place can also be presented to students by pantomimes and gestures such as on the desk, in the drawer, in the bag and above board. To ensure the understanding of the meanings by the students and to revise the newly introduced

words, the language teacher should ask students to themselves when he pronounces a word.

7. Synonyms

An EFL teacher can use synonyms, i.e. words with the same meanings out of context or in sentence context to illustrate the meaning of a new word. Examples of synonyms out of context are:

- a. The new word "costly" is synonymous with "expensive".
- b. The new word "movie" is synonymous with "film".

However, samples of Synonyms in context are:

- a. Camels are very "big" and elephants are "huge".
- b. I bought a "gift" for my son. Surprisingly, our neighbour also bought a "present" for him.

This technique of presenting words is effective, particularly when the synonym with the new word is already known to students.

8. Antonyms

An EFL teacher can define a word by giving the opposite meaning a new word when its opposite is already known. The opposite word or expression can be used out of context or in a context. Examples of antonyms Out of context are:

- a. The new words "cool" and "soft" are opposite to "warm" and "hard" respectively.
- b. The new words "incorrect" and "dishonest" are opposite to "correct" and "honest" respectively.

Examples of antonyms in context are:

- a. A "sharp" knife is not "dull".
- b. That athlete is strong. He is not "weak".

To avoid confusion, a language teacher should not simultaneously introduce and teach two new words with opposite meanings such as "wet" and "dry" or "early" and "late" in one class period. The introduction of the second word in each pair should be delayed until full understanding and mastery of the meaning of the first one is ensured. It is recommended to leave at least a one week gap between the introduction of the first and second words.

9. Translation

An EFL teacher can give native language equivalents of new Words to show their meanings. The language teacher can translate the meanings of the new English words into Arabic. This technique is adequate and useful particularly if: (a) the students are homogeneous with respect to the language background, (b) the new vocabulary deals with abstract terms or adverbial expressions such as "originality" or "happiness" and "simply" or "actually", respectively.

10. Pictures

You can introduce new words with pictures or flash cards. It is easy to collect pictures from magazines and journals, commercial sources or inexpensive books for children. It becomes much clear for learners if each picture represents a single object. The picture should be large enough to be seen by all the students in the classroom. It is better to paste each picture on a piece of cardboard in order to make flash-cards. These picture are then placed on the chalk-board or on a magnetic board. The language teacher should point to the objects in the pictures and then give their foreign language equivalents to avoid misunderstanding of the introduced words.

11. Wall Charts

An EFL teacher can use wall charts which are visible and clear. Here he can display several permanent or long-term charts or pictures on the classroom walls to show, for instance weather or price charts, articles of furniture, professional and occupational items, means of transportation, animals and birds. They should remain on the walls long enough to be noticed and familiarized by the class. Each group of pictures should be placed on a separate large folder. Generally, the teacher can go through the

following process in using this technique: pointing to the object, pronouncing the words, asking for repetition and writing it on the board.

Classroom Vocabulary Exercises

Various classroom vocabulary exercises are discussed below. Some of the ideas of these exercises are suggested by Birckbichler & Omaggio (1978). Illustrative examples with instructions are provided for the facilitation of their uses and practices. Note that an asterisk (i.e. *) is used to indicate the correct answer or the reason for the proper choice throughout the script.

1. Find Odd Word or Number

A student tries to find an irrelevant word from the given list of the vocabulary or numbers. Each list or group includes only one word or number which is odd and different from other words or numbers. Each group includes several words or numbers related in the same way. Here is an illustration:

Instructions: Identify the odd word and explain the reason of your choice.

- d. dogs, cats, parrots, tigers, monkeys * (animals vs. birds)
- e. rice, meat, restaurant, chicken, flour * (food vs. a place)
- f. eye, nose, lips, toes and chin. (body parts at the head vs. at the leg)

Instructions: Circle the number which is different from the others

(a) 3, 5, 9, 12, 15 *(even number)

(b) 5, 10, 16, 20, 25 *(not divisible by 5)

(c) 12, 14, 16, 19, 20 *(odd number)

2. Blank is to Blank

A student tries to add and complete the missing word in the pair which should have some relation to the given word in the other pair. The first relevant pair of words work as model for the student to find an appropriate word to complete the relationship of

the missing pair of the next one. The sequence and order of words in each pair should be considered in the selection of the missing word. A sample exercise might be:

Instructions: Supply the missing word to complete the relationship of the pair:

a. chalk :blackboard ::pen :----- *(paper)

b. rabbit :carrot :: monkey :----- * (banana)

c. bird :fly :: fish :----- * (swim)

3. Discrimination Tasks

Several multiple-choice items are developed in order for the students to complete the stem by selecting the right word from the given alternative which are similar in form or meaning. for example:

Instructions : Select the best word to complete the sentence.

a. We have----cars

a. tow b. too

c. two d. to

b. We can ----at his office.

a. meat b. mate

c. mail d. meet

-c. It ---- heavily during the winter.

a. runs b. trains

c. rains d. ruins

4. Reverse Semantic Cloze

Students are given a correct passage or sentence with additional inappropriate words that have been deliberately inserted. Students are asked to find the words which are unacceptable either semantically or syntactically. Only one word is inappropriate as in the following examples:

Instructions: Underline the inappropriate cloze

- a. They go in home. *(in)
- b. She likes the cats. *(the)
- c. I went to the college yesterday morning. *(morning)

5. Correct Me

The teacher reads a paragraph or a sentence containing incorrect words. Students should find the inappropriate word and suggest its substitution. There is no insertion of a word but a replacement of the wrong one. No additional word is inserted. A sample exercise might be:

Instructions: Identify the incorrect word and suggest an appropriate substitute.

- a. It is sunny tonight, let us go to the beach. *(today)
- b. She has written a nice picture and mailed it. *(letter).
- c. I see your voice with my ears. *(hear)

6. Ranking Preference

Lists of vocabulary are given to students. These lists include groups of words classified under one superset name. Students are asked to rank words according to their preference, desire, and liking. There are no right or wrong answers in this exercise. All answers are acceptable. The exercise might go like this:

Instructions: Rearrange the following items according to your personal preference.

- a. dogs, cats, mice, monkeys, chickens
- b. apples, oranges, grapes, bananas, pears.
- c. geography, geometry, physics, mathematics, psychology.

7. Semantic Clue Searching

Learners are asked to identify specific information from a reading passage or a sentence such as names of time, names or places, names of countries, names of animals, names of kinship, names of food, name sport, names of transportation and so on. For example:

Instructions: Underline the names of kinship and circle the names of animals in the following sentences.

- a. His young sister bought a lovely kitten.
- b. That old woman has two parrots and a canary-bird at home.
- c. There is a large elephant and a small calf in the zoo.

8. Multiple Choice

Students are asked to select the best choice from the given alternatives in order to fill in the blanks in the stem. Alternatives include three distracters i.e., wrong answers in addition to the correct choice. An exercise of this sort might be:

Instructions: Select the best from a, b, c, and d to fill.

1- He---- the light-bulb.

- a. a. created b. did
- b. c. discovered d. invented

2- She - my homework paper.

- a. gave b. lent
- c. *borrowed *d. grasped

3-The judge----- me very carefully.

- a. told b. said to
- c. *listened to d. saw

9. Sentence or Word Jumbles

Students are instructed to rearrange a group of words or a series of letters to form a meaningful sentence or a word respectively. Reasonable space should be left among disordered words. Punctuation marks should also be provided to draw the attention of students to the type of required sentence i.e., statement or question. In some cases students need to add some new words or syntactic structures to their sentences. Such an exercise might go like this:

Instructions: Rearrange the words to form a meaningful sentence in every item. Feel free to add words and a grammatical feature to your sentences.

1. (letter) (today) (expecting) (are) (?)
*(Are we expecting a letter today?)
2. (waiting) (she) (tired) (.)
*(She is tired of waiting).
3. (nothing) (since) (done) arrived) (.)
*(I have done nothing since I arrived).

Instructions: Reorder the following jumbled letters to form meaningful words.

- a. dwrlo *(world)
- b. halck *(chalk)
- c. srca *(cars).

10. Related Words

Students are given pairs of words related in meaning or connotation. The number words in one of the two given columns should be more than the other to reduce the chance of guessing. Here, students are instructed to provide the appropriate letter in the given space to the left side of the serial number to show the proper meaning or relationship of each pair This exercise is useful for practising and revising vocabulary after it has been introduced to the class. For example:

Instructions: Supply the appropriate letter in the given space to the left side of the serial number:

- a. Pairs of related professions and their locations.

Professions	Locations
1. Teacher	a. Hospital
2. Nurse	b. School
3. Pilot	c. Aeroplane

- | | |
|------------|-----------|
| 4. Soldier | d. Office |
| 5. Manager | e. House |
| | f. Battle |

b. Pairs of related body parts with feelings.

Body parts

Functions

- | | |
|-----------|----------|
| 1. Nose | a. Taste |
| 2. Ear | b. Smell |
| 3. Eyes | c. Hear |
| 4. Tongue | d. Feel |
| | e. See |

11. Vocabulary Quiz

A duplicate sheet of a large rectangular box is given to each student. In the box, a series of words are scattered randomly. Words normally deal with either synonyms or antonyms. The type of the selected words is often identified at the top of the box. Here, students are asked to identify words with their identical or opposites by writing them outside the box. The exercise might go something like this:

Instructions: Identify words with their opposites and synonyms.

Opposites		
large	hot	Best
tall		Thin
dark	short	
		fat
cold		
worst		Light

Synonyms		
glad		Rapidly
costly		
obtain	big	mistake
merit	expensive	Value
error		
happy	Quickly	
		get

12. Crossword Puzzle

A crossword is a puzzle with sets of squares, say 25, which are filled in with words. One letter is placed in each square, so that the word may be read horizontally, vertically, diagonally. Words in the puzzle often consist of synonyms, related words and antonyms. Students are asked to circle or draw a line across, down or diagonally on the letters to build a Word.

Instructions: Circle the letters which show different weather conditions.

K	N	S	M	R	O	T	S	L
H	U	R	R	I	C	A	N	E
U	K	Y	A	H	L	X	O	P
M	L	D	I	T	E	W	C	W
I	Y	U	N	O	A	J	H	I
D	N	O	G	V	R	N	I	N
I	N	L	E	K	M	I	L	D
T	U	C	O	O	L	C	L	Y
Y	S	X	O	W	T	B	Y	D

Suggested Questions

1. Select five classroom vocabulary exercises and discuss them in detail with illustrations of your own.
2. Discuss the procedures a language teacher should use in teaching vocabulary.
3. Identify the ways of presenting new vocabulary.
4. Select and identify a good technique to introduce the following new content vocabulary to your students in the table presented below:

Content Words	Preferred Techniques
Key	
Hospital	
Open	
Nurse	
Furniture	
Chalk	
Life	
Zoo	
Car	
Drink	
Tall	
Air	

5. "Related Words" and "Vocabulary Quiz" are interesting and useful Vocabulary exercises. Discuss and exemplify these exercises.

12 The Teaching of Grammar

Introductory Points

1. A grammar teacher should teach the structures from simple to difficult. However, there is no clear cut definition of the terms "simplicity or "difficulty" i.e. not everyone agrees on how to define those words. However, an experienced teacher can easily explain the easy as well as difficult structures to his students.
2. Be certain to teach, first, such structures which can be easily demonstrated in class with the help of concrete vocabulary. Concrete vocabulary and structure should be introduced prior to abstract vocabulary and structure.
3. Emphasize teaching the most difficult structures which are suggested by the findings and results of contrastive analysis. Interference errors should be taught before generalization errors. Advocates of this concept believe in the importance of contrastive analysis. Native language background experience should be considered. Grammatical structures should be sequenced with due consideration of native language background experience.
4. A language teacher should teach the regular forms first then irregular ones. Begin with the regular comparatives, superlatives and forms of verbs, nouns, and adjectives and then shift to irregular ones. It is easier to learn regular rules than to learn exceptional cases.
5. Be certain to use known words with students in introducing grammatical points in context. The use of familiar vocabulary highlights the new grammatical points and reduces the level of difficulty in learning grammar.
6. Equal emphasis should be placed on teaching both the form and the meaning of a grammatical pattern. Be sure not to neglect the meaning of a grammatical point while teaching grammar.
7. Both oral and written drills should be used to reinforce teaching of grammar. Oral drills precede the written ones to enhance understanding of the introduced grammatical points. Lack of using oral drills in teaching

grammar hinders students' ability to use the grammatical pattern in oral communication and consequently reduces accuracy in speaking.

8. The grammar teacher should use various and several teaching methods and techniques to introduce his students to a new grammatical structure. Variations in teaching methods and techniques increase the level of interest and motivation on the part of students and also enhance their learning in EFL.
9. Provide sufficient and considerable practice in the use of a desired grammatical structure before moving to the presentation of another language pattern.
10. Keep in mind that the purpose of using language drills is to enhance teaching the use of the newly introduced grammatical points and not to test what they have already learnt.
11. Develop a short item in the series of your drill exercise in order to reduce the burden on the students memory while practicing or answering the drill.

Procedures in Teaching Grammar

1. Briefly review the known items such as names of objects, meanings of key words and auxiliary verbs which you want to introduce before explaining and practicing with the new grammatical pattern. For example, you want to teach the past tense, you may wish to review the present tense with subject pronouns "I" and "they", and the expressions of time such as yesterday and last week.
2. Use various techniques in presenting grammatical structures as diagrams, mimes, objects, drawings, etc., and let the students listen to your presentation attentively.
3. Be sure to use the new structure in a short and simple sentence in which all the other words are known to the students. Help the students understand the utterance through the use of objects, pictures, charts or actions.

4. Repeat the utterance several times with emphasis on the new structure. Encourage your students to identify how to use the newly introduced grammatical items. Use the techniques in chorus method effectively to enhance their oral participation.
5. Give additional examples of the new structures in simple sentences. Try to use coloured marker to highlight the usage of language items and let your students see and become familiar with the new structure.
6. Engage your students in varied practices beginning with oral drills (e.g., substitution drills) and then proceed to written drills (e.g., completion, and transformation drills). The variation in the type of exercises reduces the boredom on the part of students.

Techniques in Introducing Grammatical Patterns

There are ten techniques and devices helpful and useful in introducing grammatical structures to EFL learners. They encompass dialogue, text, rules, drawings, pictures, realia, diagrams, demonstrations mime, grids and tables. An EFL teacher needs to use a variety of techniques in teaching structural points in each class period to stimulate his students language interest.

1. Dialogue

The new grammatical structure can be presented in a dialogue between two speakers. There are several considerations to be noted in the use of this technique:

- a. The dialogue should be short and the content should be identified.
- b. The dialogue should reflect real and natural language that is typically used by native speakers.
- c. Words, except the new structure, should already be known to the students. It is also helpful to use objects, realia, or pictures to make their meanings clear.
- d. The dialogue can be memorized by groups and by individuals.
- e. The topic and situation presented in the dialogue should be relevant to the students' needs and interests.

An example of a dialogue used in teaching reflexive pronouns is as follows:

Speaker1: Who wrote this letter, Ahmad?

Speaker 2: I wrote it myself.

Speaker1: Yourself!

Speaker 2: Yes sir. I did it myself.

2. Text

The grammatical structure can also be presented in the context of a story or in any text form such as description and direction. The teacher can read to or tell the students the story/text where the new elements are included. They can receive a copy of the material to follow. The language of the story/text should be simple and easy to understand and the content has to be short.

3. Rules

The teacher can use either deductive or inductive approaches in teaching grammar. In the deductive approach, students are given grammatical rules of a language before they begin to practice the use of the new practical structure. Direct explanation of the entire rule and its usage are simply stated and written on the board right from the beginning. This approach is useful for teaching articles, pronouns, tense and negative sentences. However, in the inductive approach, students are given a large number of concrete examples of the new structural feature. They are then encouraged to discover and generate the rules from the given examples. This approach is appropriate for introducing items like plurals, and some/any forms.

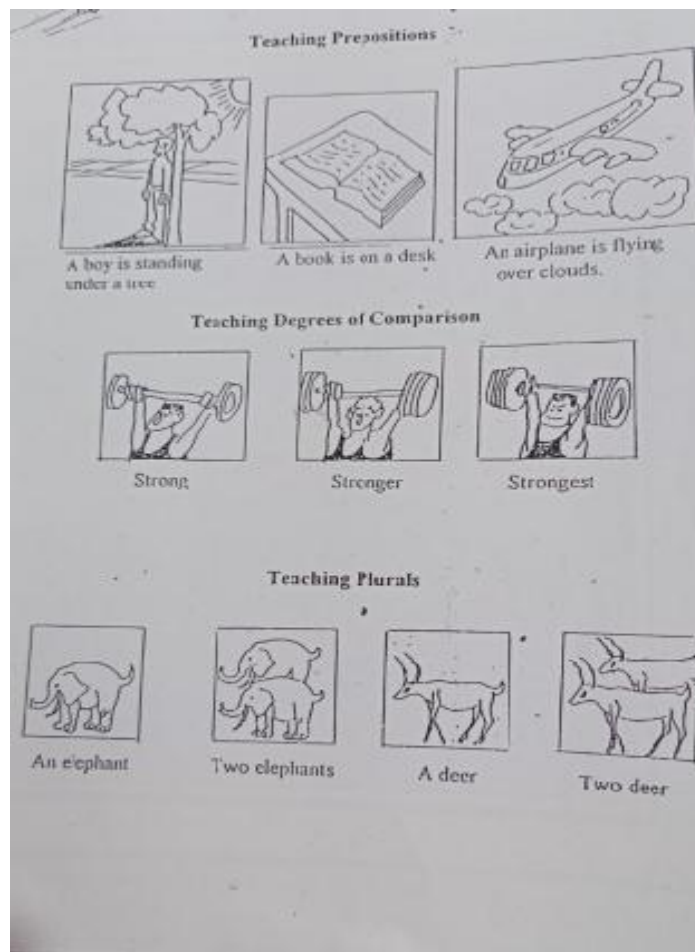
4. Drawings

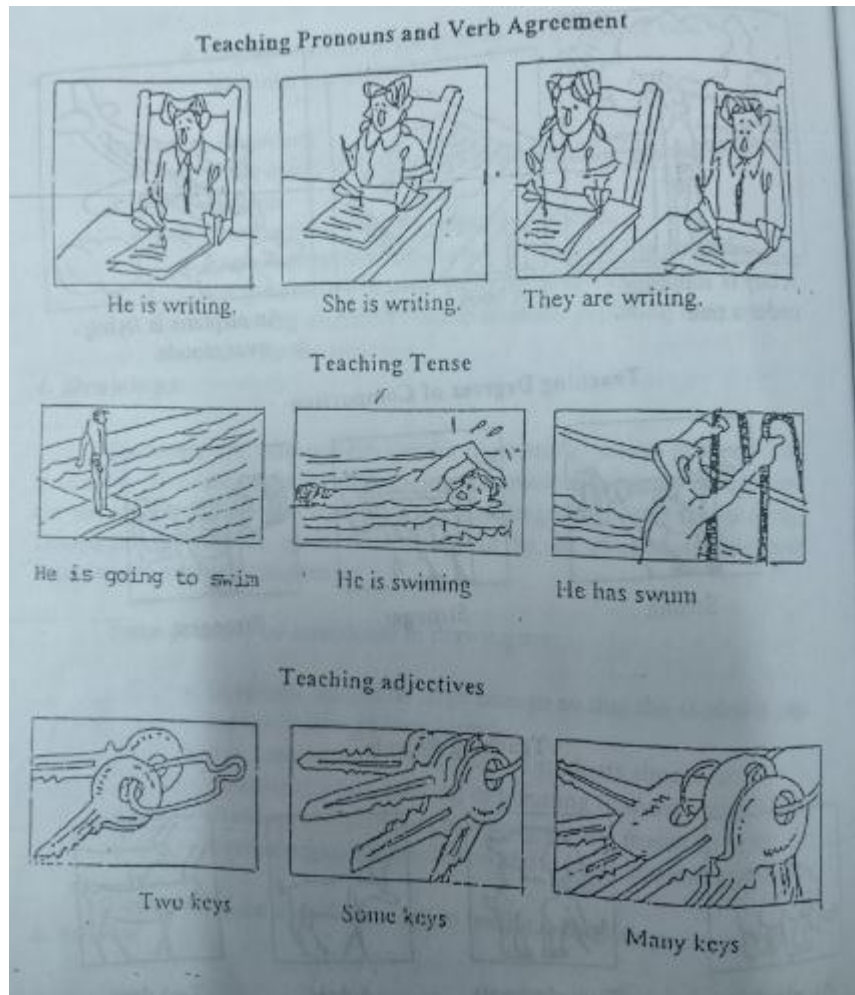
Drawings are effective devices for illustrating various grammatical structures. They are useful for introducing prepositional phrases of location (in the drawer, under the tree) and regular/irregular plurals (students/men). Drawings also provide good illustrations for the use of comparatives and superlatives, pronouns and tenses.

Some points to be considered in drawing are:

- a. Drawings should be large enough so that the students can see the illustrated item clearly.
- b. Age, interest, and proficiency of students should be considered while drawing or planning to draw something.
- c. Drawings should focus primarily on one major item to eliminate possible confusion about other irrelevant things.

Examples of the use of drawings in teaching English grammar are as follows:





5. Pictures

New structural points can be presented in association with pictures. They are excellent devices for introducing prepositions, pronouns, plurals, and the degree of Comparison (i.e., positive, comparative and superlative). Pictures can be collected from old magazines, zoo books, advertisements and trade materials. Selected pictures should be large enough to be seen by students at the back of the class. The selected picture should focus on an object to avoid confusion from other items included in it.

6. Objects and Realia

Objects and realia are used as visual representations for various grammatical structures. Since objects available in school or realia brought to class differ in several dimensions such as size, colour, shape, and scope, they create a rich environment for

teaching a wide range of structures. The language teacher could use objects to introduce grammar by selecting, sorting, scattering or moving objects. Then he can describe his activity with a proper statement emphasizing a particular grammatical structure. Objects are excellent devices for introducing prepositions, demonstrative pronouns, Comparatives and superlatives, grammatical expressions such as "the same as and "different from," and "some" and "any" (see Mckay, 1985). Here is an illustration:

Prepositions: Objects could be used to introduce students to prepositions by moving them at different locations in the class. The teacher should then describe the locations of these objects with statements such as the following:

- a. The cup is in the drawer.
- b. The briefcase is under the desk.

Demonstrative Pronouns: They deal with teaching "this, that, these, and those". The grammar teacher could use objects to teach "this and that" by placing an object near him and another far away. These objects Similar. He should describe them by using "this and that" in a stat, such as the following:

- a. This bag is red but that bag is black.
- b. This pen is gold but that pen is silver.

To teach "these" and "those", the teacher could place several objects which are similar to each other near him and several others which differ from one another, for example in size. He should put them far away from each other in the classroom and describe them by using "these and those" in such statements as the following:

- a. These bags are red but those bags are black.
- b. These chairs are yellow but those chairs are white.

Comparatives and Superlatives: The teacher could use some objects to introduce comparative structures to the students by selecting three items which differ only in color, size or shape. He should describe them through statements such as the following:

- This clock is large. (positive)
- But this one is larger than that one. (comparative)

- However, this one is the largest. (superlative)

The use of "the same as" and "different from": The grammar teacher could present these expressions "the same as/ different from" by selecting two items, which are the same in size or color and describe them in statements such as the following:

- a. This spoon is the same in size as that one.
- b. This spoon is the same as that one.

Then, the teacher could select two objects, say cups, which differ in size and then describe them with statements such as the following:

- a. This cup is different in size from that one.
- b. This cup is different from that one.

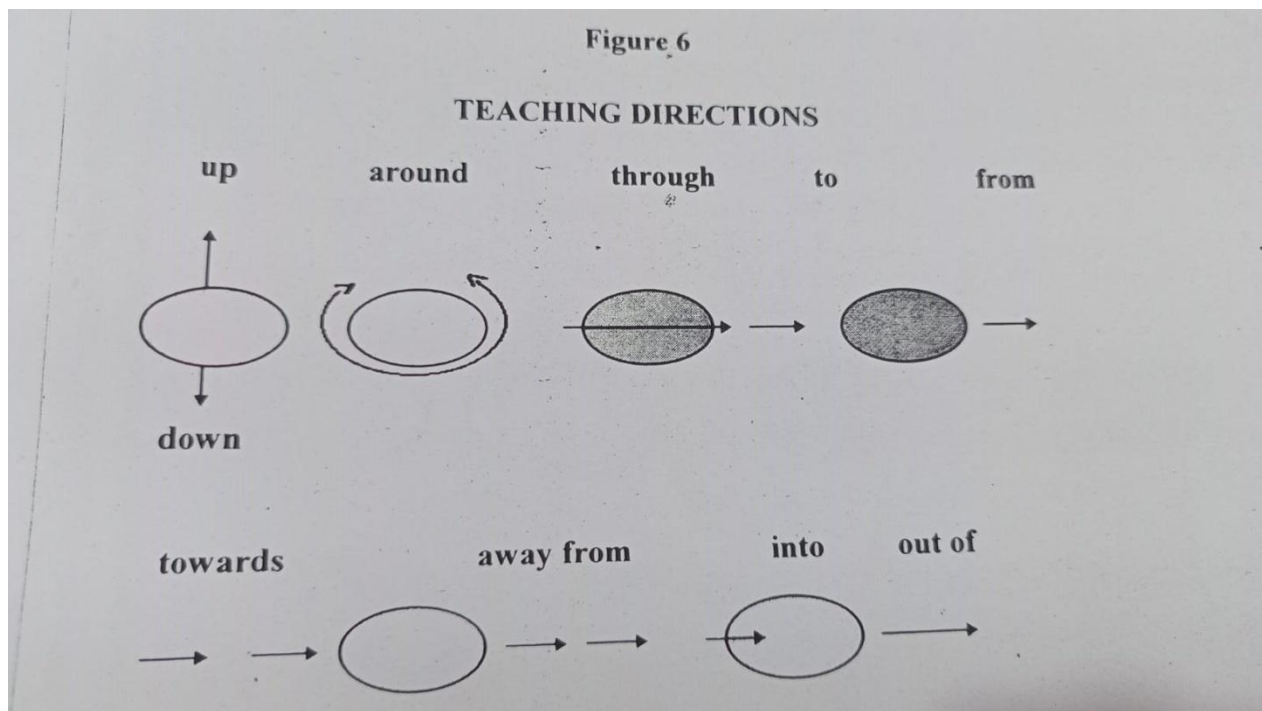
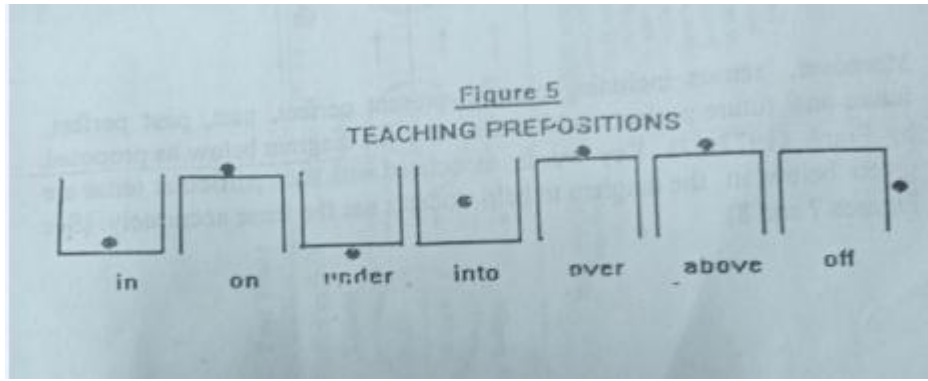
The use of "Some" and "Any": Any set of various objects is an excellent device for introducing students to the use of "some" and "any" by sorting them according to a particular dimension such as size, color, or shape. The grammar teacher should describe these objects with statements such as:

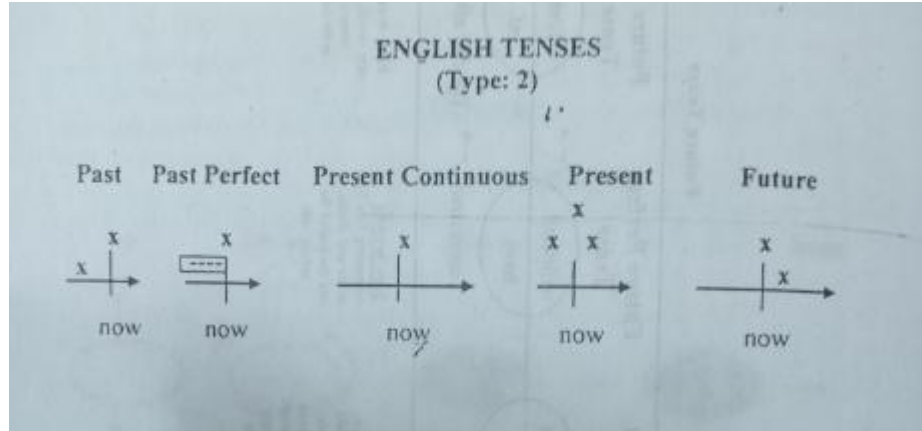
- a. There are some tea spoons, but there aren't any table Spoons.
- b. There are some pencils, but there aren't any pens.

Also, direct explanation about their use would be more useful and helpful.

7. Diagrams

The grammar teacher could use a visual display to introduce various grammatical structures. Diagrams are effective devices for showing clearly the meaning and the use of prepositions and tenses. Prepositions and directions could be represented in the following diagrams as illustrated by Haycraft (1983:35) and Frank (1972:167) respectively.





8. Demonstration

It is an effective technique for introducing prepositions such as near, between, into, out of, far, in front of, behind. To introduce such prepositions, the teacher could use life demonstrations and real samples of some locations in the class as follows:

- a. I am sitting between Ali and Mohammed.
- b. Board is placed in front of us.

9. Mime

It is a useful device for introducing various grammatical structures, A language teacher could act out a scene without speaking to represent present continuous, modals, auxiliary verbs and prepositions, such as:

- Present continuous: I am eating, drinking, sleeping, reading, washing, etc.
- Modals: I can't lift that table (with gesture and facial expressions).
- Prepositions: You must listen carefully. (Pointing out with a finger).

The key is on the table.

The English textbook is in my briefcase.

Physical actions can make the meanings and use of words clearer and more definite than verbal descriptions. Visual displays are easy to remember. They make the use of grammar practical not theoretical. Language use sounds real and meaningful

through the use of miming. Nonverbal communication including body movement, gesture and objects should be associated with the use of mime for teaching aspects of grammar.

10. Grids and Tables

Grids and tables are visual displays for introducing several grammatical structures. Grids are used for representing two contrasting specific grammatical points. A two dimensional grid could be used to introduce affirmative and negative commands (do or don't do). It is also a useful device for teaching affirmative and negative sentences with verb "to be". Examples of grids' usage in illustrating grammatical structures are as follows:

- a. To introduce the affirmative and negative verb TO BE.

Grid's Usage in Teaching Grammar

+	—
am	am not
is	is not
are	are not

- b. To introduce positive and negative imperatives.

+	—
Walk	Don't walk
Write	Don't Write

+	—
Open the book.	Don't open the book.
Run quickly.	Don't run quickly.

c. To introduce affirmative and negative sentences with verb **TO BE**:

+	—
I am strong. They are happy.	I am not strong. They are not happy.

Tables are also successful techniques for illustrating grammatical patterns to students. They are widely used in teaching, pronouns, irregular comparatives and superlatives. Examples of such tables are given below:

Personal Pronouns

A. English pronouns

Subject	Object	Possessive		Reflexive
I	me	my	mine	myself
We	us	our	ours	ourselves
You	you	your	yours	yourselves
He	him	his	his	himself
She	her	her	hers	herself
It	it	its	its	itself
They	them	their	theirs	themselves

B. Some irregular comparatives and superlatives:

Positive Degree	Comparative Degree	Superlative Degree
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
far	farther/further	farthest/furthest
little	less	least
much/many	more	most
old	older/elder	oldest/eldest

Grammatical Pattern Drills

Mechanical drills, meaningful drills and communicative drills are essential for practicing different grammatical patterns. The language teacher should provide students with practice after the introduction of a new structure. At the Initial stage of learning, he should begin with mechanical drills and gradually proceed to meaningful and then to communicative drills.

1. Mechanical Drills

Repetition Drills

The teacher provides his students with a sample sentence which illustrates the new grammatical points. He asks students to repeat the cue sentence exactly as given in chorus, in group and individually. Students should repeat the sample sentence several times until they can say it fluently. The drills should be presented in association with objects, pictures, drawings to make the model sound meaningful and applicable to the students' life and situations. The drills are successful for practicing subject-verb agreement and word order, They are useful as introductory oral drills. An example of the drills is as follows:

The new syntactic structure: Tag Question.

Teacher: This book is large, isn't it?

Student: This book is large, isn't it?

Substitution Drills

Students are given a sentence and a cue word or phrase. The students are asked to replace that cue word with one similar in nature in the given sentence. A pronoun, for instance, is replaced by another pronoun, a noun by another noun, a verb by another verb, etc. The cue may be given orally or may be associated with an object, a picture, a flash card, but without oral expression. The cue is normally given by the teacher. The teacher's cues may be replaced either in the same slot in the model sentence (as in cue -1) or in different slots in the sample sentence (as in cue -2). Hence, there are two

positions for the substitution of teacher's cues: the same slot or the different slots. Substitution drills are effective oral practice for learning any communicative expression or structure at all grade levels. Substitution drills include simple, double, correlative and multiple. Examples of each drill are provided below:

a. Simple Substitution:

In this drill, only one constituent is replaced in the model. The drill is successful for practicing word order and adverbs. Students practice the drill without necessarily understanding the meaning of the substitution word in the structure. An illustration is given below:

- Model Sentence: Did you talk to my father?

Cue -1: His

- Response by Students: Did you speak to his father?

Cue -2: Speak

- Response by Students: Did you speak to his father?

b. Double Substitution:

Two segments are changed throughout the drill. The changes are made in the wording. Such a drill might go like this:

- Model Sentence: That yellow house was built recently.

Cue -1: white/ renovated.

- Response by students: That white house was renovated recently.

Cue -2: large/rented

- Response by students: That large house was rented recently.

c. Correlative Substitution:

The substitution of an element requires other correlative changes in the pattern in the model. In this drill, students make a certain grammatical adjustment in the model. Students also need to think of the meanings of the entire sentence. This drill is useful in

practicing pronouns, articles, subject-verb agreement, the forms of the plural, and tense. Here is an illustration:

- Model Sentence: I wrote the letter myself.

Cue-1 :She

- Response by students: She wrote the letter herself.

Cue-2: He

- Response by students: He wrote the letter himself.

d. Multiple Substitution

In this drill, three or more constituents are changed. To use this drill correctly, students need to understand the meanings of the substitution words in the structure. A sample drill might be like the following:

- Model Sentence: That young man swam in the sea yesterday.

Cue -1:old/lectured/college

- Response by students: That old man lectured in the college yesterday.

Cue -2: lady/sat/ an arm-chair

- Response by students: That old lady sat in an arm-chair yesterday.

Transformational Drill

The teacher supplies students with a sentence including a grammatical point, asking them to change it into another form. Students may be asked, for example, to change sentences from present to past, from affirmative to negative, and from active to passive. The order and the number of constituent in the model is often changed in the response. The drill is appropriate in practicing tense, passive voice, questions, reported speech, and negative formation. For example:

Instructions: Change the following sentences as directed:

- a. Ali broke that window. (Put it in passive)

(Response by students: That window was broken by Ali).

- b. He drank some milk. (Make it negative)

(Response by Students: He did not drink any milk.)

- c. He flew to Cairo on Monday at 8:00 p.m. (Make a question with when).

(Response by students: When did he fly to Cairo?)

Completion Drills

An EFL teacher can give an incomplete sentence to students asking them to supply the missing syntactic structure. The following examples show how this device can be used in drilling prepositions and articles:

Instructions: Complete the following sentences with the appropriate prepositions or article.

- a. He went back home foot.

(Response by students: He went back home on foot).

- b. Dogs are sold in Western society.

(Response by students: Dogs are sold in the Western society)

- c. He arrived.. " 8 o'clock.." the morning,

(Response by students: He arrived at 8 o'clock in the morning).

Contraction or Abbreviation Drills

The teacher gives the full forms of words in a sentence in order to be changed into the short one. The order of the constituents in the model remains the same, but the number is fewer in the response than in the cue. This drill is useful for practicing the reduction of some auxiliary verbs accompanied by pronouns like the one below:

Instructions: Use the short form of auxiliary verbs in the given sentences.

- a. She cannot cook well.

(Response by students: She can't cook well).

- b. He will fly to Paris tomorrow.

(Response by students: He'll fly to Paris tomorrow).

- c. I am going to visit him later.

(Response by students: I'm going to visit him later).

2. Meaningful Drills

Restatement

A teacher instructs a student to ask one of his classmates a question which he in turn should answer. The drill might be like this:

(Example-a) Teacher: Hamzah, ask Saud what he ate for dinner yesterday.

Hamzah: What did you eat for dinner yesterday, Saud?

Saud : I ate rice, beans and fruit.

(Example-b) Teacher: Abdullah, ask Mohammed when he went to bed last night.

Abdullah: When did you go to bed last night, Mohammed?

Mohammed: I went to bed at eleven o'clock last night.

Rejoinder (Reply)

The teacher develops a sentence to which a student should reply or give his views. All comments and responses are encouraged. In this drill, a student replies with something factually correct, as illustrated below:

(Example-a) Teacher : You can use that road if you come late.

Student: Sorry, that road is blocked temporarily.

(Example-b) Teacher: I think you will have the final examination on Monday.

Student: No Sir, the schedule has been revised/changed. We will have it on Wednesday instead.

3. Communicative Drills

Rejoinder

The teacher gives a statement to which the student is asked to react. The student's response includes some expression about himself. (He communicates

Something about himself). Oral or written communications are greatly emphasized and encouraged. Here is an illustration:

(Example-a) Teacher: I drive well.

Student: You drive well, but I don't.

(Example-b) Teacher I don't like soccer.

Student: You don't like soccer, but I like it.

(Example-c) Teacher: I visited France.

Student: You visited France, and so did I.

Question and Answer

The teacher poses general questions with ease and the students should feel free to answer them. Such questions should be relevant to the real interest of the students. They should be associated with a picture, slide or reading material. Questions of this sort might be:

(Example-a) Teacher: What is your favourite fruit?

Student: My favourite fruits are oranges, apples and grapes.

(Example-b) Teacher : What have you planned to do in the summer?

Student : I have planned to travel to Alexandria to visit my elder brother.

Suggested Questions

1. Draw three different pictures to illustrate the teaching of comparatives.
2. Point out the ways of introducing new structural points.
3. How does "diagram" work in teaching English prepositions?
4. Develop grammatical pattern drills based on the given sentences as directed between parentheses:
 - a. He always loses his glass. (Correlative substitution)
 - b. She asked for advice. (Transformation drill)
 - c. He bites his nails all the time. (Completion drill)
 - d. He cycles to school (Restatement)
 - e. He smashed his car. (Question and Answer)
5. Complete the following table showing the way you would like to introduce each of the following function words.

Function Words	Preferred way of introducing function words
Him, his	
Old, older, oldest	
Under (a tree)	
Don't make a noise (Negative form)	
Went, saw (i.e. tense)	
In, on	
'v, 'll	
Boys, cars (plural)	
Some, any	
This, that	
Through, into	

13 Using the Board

TECHNIQUES FOR USING BOARD

Introduction

Point out that the board is one of the most useful of all visual aids-it is always available and can be used for various purposes without special preparation. Some of the purposes for which the board can be used are: presenting new words, showing spelling, giving a model for handwriting, writing prompts for practice. Our aim in using board should be to make things clearer to the class and help to focus their attention. So in order to use the board effectively, it is important to develop good basic techniques of writing on the board and organising the layout of what we write.

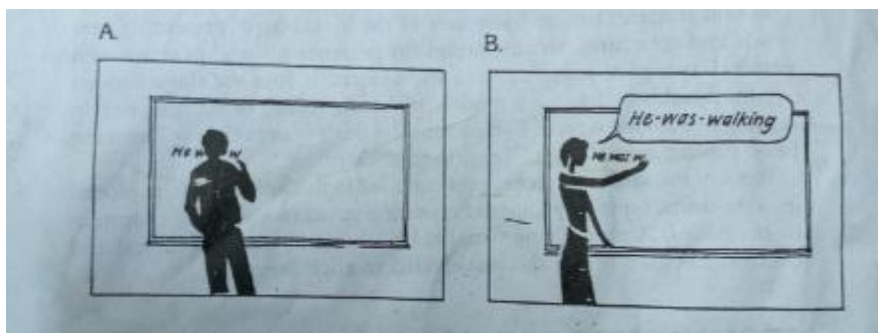
Writing on the Board

Activity 1

1. Begin by looking at the two pictures below discussing the differences between them:

- Teacher A is hiding the board, he is not involving the students in any way, and because he has his back to the class he cannot control what they are doing.
- Teacher B is keeping 'eye contact' with the class as she writes, she is allowing the class to see what she is writing, and she is keeping their attention by saying the words as she writes them.

Both these teachers are presenting language on the board. Which teacher's technique is more effective? Why?



2. If necessary, give a demonstration yourself of how to write effectively on the board. Use your demonstration to establish these basic principles:

- Write clearly. The writing should be large enough to read from the back of the class.
- Write in a straight line. This is easy if teachers only write across a section of the board, not across the whole board.
- Stand in a way that does not hide the board. Teachers stand side ways, half facing the board and half facing the class, with their arm fully extended. In this way, the students can see what the teacher is writing, and the teacher can see the students.
- Talk as you write. Teachers should say aloud what they are writing; phrase by phrase. To involve the class even more, they could sometimes ask students to suggest what to write (e.g., What's the next word?" "How do ! spell that?").

Organising the Board

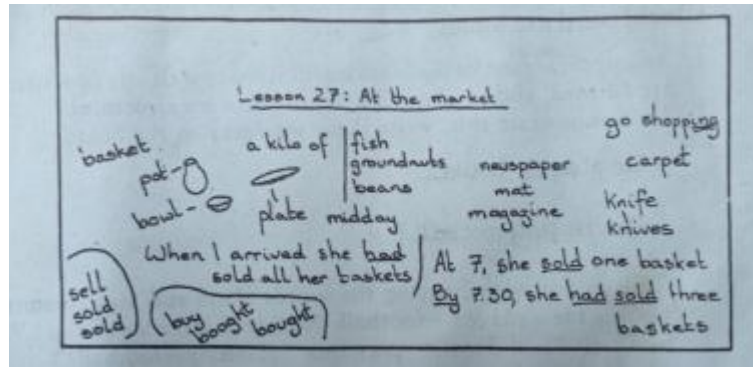
Activity 2

1. Look at the board layout and explain how the lesson developed:

- The lesson was about people selling goods at the market (shown by pictures in the textbook), and how much they had sold by certain times.
- The teacher introduced the past perfect tense, and students practised sentences like 'By midday she had sold five mats'.
- The teacher introduced key vocabulary for goods (e.g., mat, pot, basket), and added some other words which were not in the lesson (e.g., plate, bowl).
- The teacher revised time expressions, and introduced the new item midday.

[Note: This lesson is taken from M. Bates: Nile Course for the Sudan Book 3.]

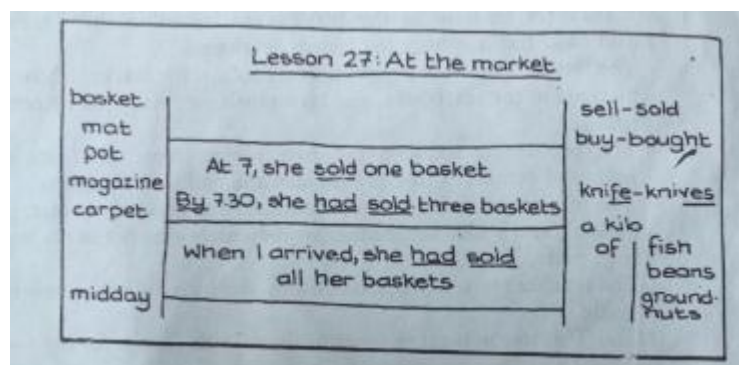
Here is a teacher's board at the end of a lesson. How could the layout have been organised more clearly?



2. Design an improved board layout on a piece of paper, or discuss together what should be done and then build up a model version on the board. Bring out these points:

- The board is too crowded. Some items could have been presented orally, or written on the board and then rubbed off again soon afterwards.
- The most important item is the example showing the past perfect tense. It would be clearer if it were written in the centre of the board.
- Key vocabulary could be written down the side of the board. Similar items close together.

A possible layout (omitting some items) might be:



PRESENTING AND PRACTISING STRUCTURES

Board Examples

1. An important use of the board is to show clearly how structures are formed, and to show differences between structures. Write these sentences on the board:

He played football

Did he play football?

(Talk as you write, saying the words aloud and also commenting, Look - He – played-football. Now let's make a question. We use did", so .. did- he - play (nor "played") - football?")

2. Discuss how to make the structures clearer.

Possible answers:

- By underlining the important feature:

He played football

Did he play football?

- By using different coloured marker {red, yellow and green stand out most clearly).
- Perhaps by drawing arrows or writing numbers to show the change in word order.

Activity 3

3. Divide yourselves into pairs and to look at the examples below:

- What grammar points do they show?
- How would you present them on the board?
 - a. a book, a table, an egg. an orange.
 - b. He plays football. Does he play football?
 - c. shelf, shelves; wife, wives.
 - d. I haven't seen her for a week. I haven't seen her since Saturday,
 - e. She is reading. She's reading. He has arrived. He's arrived.
 - f. He worked so hard that he became ill.

Write each set of examples out on a piece of paper, exactly as they would write them on the board, using underlining, arrows, numbers, etc. to draw attention to important features.

4. Come to the front in turn and present each set of examples on the board. (As this is a simple task, use it to focus on basic techniques in using the board. Write clearly and in a straight line; stand not hiding what you write; look at the class from time to time; and talk as you write, saying the words and making any necessary comments.)

Structure Tables

Activity 4

I. A good way of showing the different forms of a structure is by means of a table (sometimes called a 'substitution table').

I'm		
You're		
He's	eating	breakfast
She's	preparing	lunch
We're		dinner
They're		

Look at this structure table, which shows forms of the present Continuous tense.

1. How could you write the table on the board but still keep the attention of the class?
2. How could you use the table for practice?
3. Design two more structure tables:
 - showing examples with 'How much?' and 'How many?';
 - showing examples of the present perfect tense with 'for' and 'since'

Discuss the questions together.

Possible answers:

Keeping the Attention of the Class:

- A good way to involve the class would be to get students to suggest what to write in each column (e.g., by writing I'm and then getting students to give the other forms). (If you like, demonstrate this, either using this table or another similar one.)
- Students could be asked to copy the table as the teacher writes it.
- If the table is too long or too complex to write quickly, it would be better to write it on the board before the lesson and cover it with cloth or paper until it is needed; or to draw it in advance on a large piece of card.

Using the Table for Practice:

There are many ways of using the table. For example:

- Students could read out sentences from it.
- Students could write sentences from the table in their books.
- The teacher could give situations, and ask students to make an appropriate sentence, e.g., It's seven o'clock in the morning. What's Mrs Smith doing? (She's eating breakfast.)

It's one o'clock. What are Mona and Lisa doing? (They're preparing lunch.)

How much bread milk	do we	need? want? have?
How many eggs tomatoes		

2. Divide yourselves into pairs and design two structure tables. Write the two tables on a piece of paper, exactly as they would look on the board. The tables should look something like this:

I've He's She's They've	been	Living here learning English	For	a week a year
Since			April. Monday.	

3. Write the tables on the board.

Prompts for Practice

1. Simple prompts can be used on the board as a basis for practice.

Write this table on the board, line by line. As you write, talk and ask questions, to make it clear what the table is supposed to show, e.g.,:

Look, this is Eva's day. (write first line) OK-at half past six-what does she do? (She wakes up and washes).

(and so on)

6.30	get up, wash
7.00	breakfast
7.30	bus → work
12.00	lunch
3.00	home

Discuss what different kinds of practice the prompts could be used for:

Possible answers:

- Students make sentences from the table.

- Students ask and answer questions based on the table.
- Students make similar sentences about themselves.

Activity 5

2. Look at the examples below and discuss what kind of practice each one might be used for.

Here are three examples of prompts written on the board. What language could each of them be used to practise?

A.

	swim	French	dance
Karl	√	√	√
Magda	×	√	×
Anna	√	×	√
You	?	?	?

B.

How many?	
doctors	Rooms
nurses	Blankets
patients	beds

C.

8 o'clock – got up – breakfast – bus stop – bus – empty – surprised – school – closed – remembered - holiday
--

Possible answers:

A. Oral practice, with various structures, e.g.,:

Can Karl swim? Yes, he can.

Karl is quite good at swimming. He's very good at dancing

Does Karl enjoy dancing? Yes, he loves it.

B. Question/answer practice, perhaps about a local hospital, e.g.,:

How many doctors are there? There are six.

Or as a basis for role play, e.g., setting up a new hospital for their town. Students decide how many doctors, nurses, etc. they need.

C. Outline of a story, for oral or written composition, e.g.,:

At eight o'clock on Monday morning, Anna got up and had breakfast as usual...

BOARD DRAWINGS

Introduction

Below are some important points:

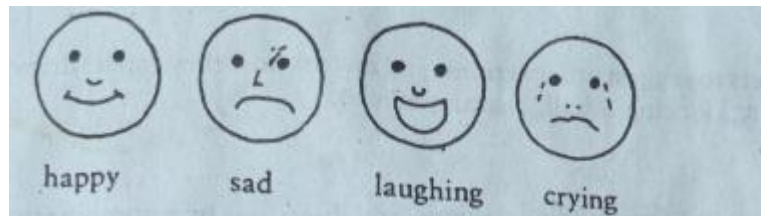
- Many teachers use the board only for writing. But simple pictures drawn on the board can help to increase the interest of a lesson, and are often a good way of showing meaning and conveying situations to the class.
- Board drawings should be as simple as possible, showing only the most important details. It is not necessary to be a good artist to draw successfully on the board - a lot of information can be conveyed by means of very simple line drawings and 'stick figures', which are easy to draw.
- It is important to draw quickly, so as to keep the interest of the class. It also helps for teachers to talk as they draw: in this way the class will be more involved, and will understand the picture on the board both from seeing it and from listening to the teacher.

Simple Board Drawings

In this section, you will demonstrate how to draw faces, stick figures and other simple pictures. Draw examples of each type on the board and copy the drawings onto paper. Use the ideas below as a guide.

Faces

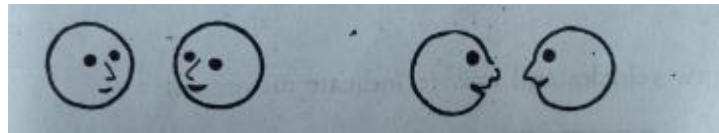
Heads should be large enough to be seen from the back of the class. Indicate expression, especially by changing the shape of the mouth:



Indicate other face expressions (e.g., surprise by raised eyebrows, anger by a frown):



Indicate which way the speaker is facing by changing the nose (this is useful if you want to show two people having a conversation):

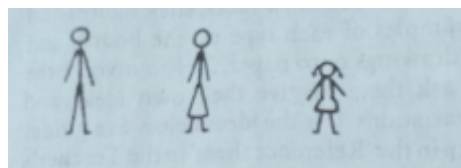


Indicate how to indicate sex or age by drawing hair:

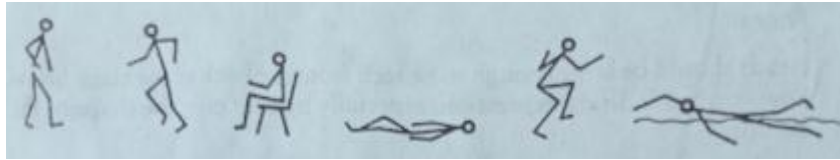


Stick Figures

Draw basic male and female stick figures. The body should be about twice as long as the head; the arms are the same length as the body; the legs are slightly longer:



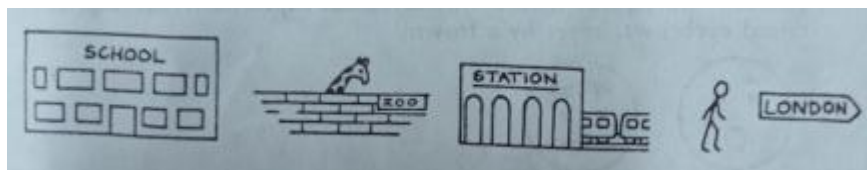
Indicate actions by bending the legs and arms:



Suggest other actions and discuss how they can be drawn (e.g. writing, kicking a ball, shaking hands).

Places

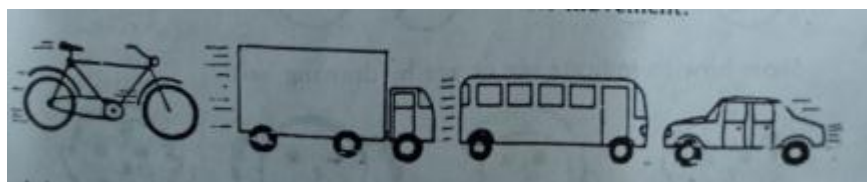
Indicate buildings, towns, and directions by a combination of pictures and words:



Draw other places (including well-known places in your town).

Vehicles

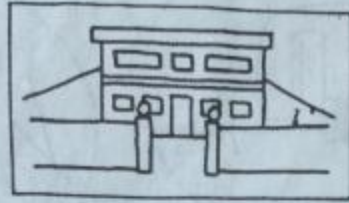
Draw vehicles and how to indicate movement:



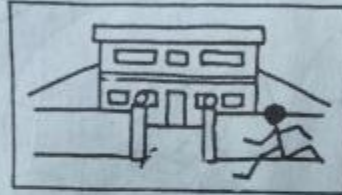
Suggest other common forms of transport, and discuss how to draw them.

Using Board Drawings

1. Demonstrate a technique for using board drawings to build up a complete situation. This might be done to introduce a topic and new vocabulary, or as a preparation for reading a text or dialogue. Use the pictures and notes below as a guide.



(draw a school)
What do you think this is? Yes – it's a school.



(draw a boy)
Look, there's a boy. He's running. Why is he running? *(students suggest possible reasons)*



Well, he's running because he's late for school. *(rub out the boy, and draw him again by the school)*
There – he's arrived at school. What do you think will happen? *(students make suggestions)*



(draw boy with head teacher)
Well, look – where is he now? Who is he talking to? *(students answer)*
Yes, the head teacher. What will he say? *(students make suggestions)*

Activity 6

Choose one of the pictures in the Student's Book. Invent a simple story based on it. Think of a series of board drawings which you can use to tell the story. The picture you have chosen will be one of this series (It could be the beginning, the middle or end).

14 Classroom Tests

Introduction

The Value of Testing

As they progress through the various stages of learning English, students are usually given formal tests and examinations from time to time (at the end of a year, before starting a new course, etc.). But in addition to these formal kinds of test, the teacher can also give regular informal tests to measure the students' progress.

Begin by discussing why it is important to give regular tests to the class.

Establish these points:

- They tell the teacher what the students can and cannot do, and therefore how successful the teaching has been; and they show what areas need to be taught in the future.
- They tell the students how well they are progressing. and where they need to focus their attention as learners. Regular tests also encourage students to take their learning seriously, and give them a series of definite goals, to aim towards.

What Should We Test?

Students are often given a general 'grade which shows their ability in English. (This may be expressed in various ways, e.g., C or $\frac{6}{10}$ Or tenth in the class or 'above average'.) This does not really tell either the teacher or the students very much unless they know exactly what the grade is based on. It is not very useful to talk in general about ability in English: student may be very good at listening but bad at writing; another student may speak fluently but make many grammar mistakes, and so on.

So, in order to comment on a student' s progress, we need to test particular skills and abilities.

Activity 1

1. We can test **language** (to find out what students have learnt):

- Grammar
- Vocabulary
- Spelling
- Pronunciation

We can test **skills** (to find out what students can do):

- Listening
- Reading
- Speaking
- writing

Which of these are the most important for your students? Which are the easiest to test?

Discuss which areas are the most important for the teachers' own classes. Obviously, there is no 'correct' answer: it depends on the type of class, what the students expect to do in the future, the examination system, etc.,. Get teachers to give their own ideas, and try to bring out these points:

i) Tests often focus on grammar and vocabulary; but if we expect students to develop the ability to understand and use English, it is important to test skills as well as knowledge of the language.

ii) Most people would regard all the skills as useful in some way:

- listening, for understanding spoken English on radio and television;
- reading, for study purposes (books, journals, etc.), and for understanding written instructions in English;
- writing, probably only for study purposes.

iii) In deciding what is important, we should not only consider students' future needs, for example, most school students may never need to write English after they leave school, but it is still important because it helps in *learning* the language.

iv) The receptive skills - listening and reading - are especially important because they will enable students to continue learning the language on their own.

2. Look at the five questions and match them with the categories in the list. Imagine you are testing students to find out these things:

1. Can they follow street directions?
2. Can they form the past simple tense correctly?
3. Can they write a few sentences about their family?
4. Do they know common words for rooms and furniture?
5. Can they understand a simple description of their town?

Which main area would each test focus on?

Think of five questions like these about your own students.

Answers:

1. Listening (and vocabulary) 2. Grammar 3. Writing (and grammar, vocabulary) 4. Vocabulary 5. Reading or listening (and vocabulary)

3. Think of specific skills and abilities you could test in your students.

TESTING RECEPTIVE SKILLS

Make these general points about testing the 'receptive' skills of reading and listening:

- If the aim is to test reading or listening skills, students should not be asked to *write* too much; otherwise the test will be unfair to students whose comprehension is good but who are bad at writing.
- The questions should test comprehension of the main 'message' of the text, so they should focus on main points rather than on individual details.
- The students should not be able to guess the correct answer without
- The questions should be reasonably easy for the teacher to set and mark; this is particularly important in a large class.

Reading Comprehension Tests

Activity 2

I. Read the text in the Teacher's Workbook and answer the questions.

(Make it clear that these are only examples of question types, so several questions focus on the same points in the text. In a real test, each point would of course be covered by only one question.)

Read this text, and answer the questions.

The dagona tree, which is common in the dry regions of Africa, has an unusual appearance. The fully-grown dagona is about twenty feet tall and has a thin trunk, about nine inches across. The trunk is bare for most of its height and the spiky branches, which have many small leaves, stand out from the top of the trunk, giving the tree the appearance of a large brush stuck in the ground.

The dagona tree has many uses. In October it produces large, round fruit with yellow flesh inside which can be eaten raw or made into a refreshing drink. The flesh can also be dried and made into flour. The outer skin of the fruit can be used for making glue; first it is dried, then the skin is pounded and mixed with water to make the glue. The bark of the tree is made up of fibres of great strength which are used to make ropes. And the spiky branches can be hollowed out and used as musical pipes.

(fictional description based on a text from Reading for a purpose Book 1: N. J. H. Grant and S. O. Unoh)

A. True or false?

Look at the following statements. Write T for true, F for false, and DK (don't know) if you can't tell from the text.

- a) The dagona tree grows in Africa.
- b) The dagona is common in rain forests.
- c) The dagona produces fruit twice a year

d) The flesh of the fruit can be used as a medicine

B. Multiple choice

Choose the correct answer:

The dagona tree is:

- a) common in parts of Africa
- b) found in sandy regions
- c) common throughout the world
- d) unusual in dry regions of the world

The tree looks like a brush because the branches:

- a) are long and thin
- b) are stuck in the ground
- c) have many small leaves
- d) grow out from the top of the trunk

C. Open-ended questions

Give short answers to these questions.

What does the fruit look like?

The fruit has four uses, What are they?

Why is the bark good for making ropes?

D. Information transfer

Complete this table.

Part of tree	Use
a) flesh of fruit	food, drink, flour
b) skin of fruit	
c)	
d)	

What are the good and bad points of each type of question?

2. Discuss the four question types. Ask teachers to comment on the good and bad points of each.

A. *True or False?*: It is easy for the teacher to think of good questions which cover the main points of the text. The questions only test comprehension (no writing involved), and are easy to mark. The main problem with true/false questions in tests is that students can guess the answer; if the choice is between 'true' and 'false' only, they have a 50% chance of being right each time! The chances of guessing are reduced by giving three choices: 'true', 'false', and 'don't know'.

B. *Multiple choice*: These are widely used in formal tests because they are easy to mark, test only comprehension, and (if they are well designed) there is only a small chance of guessing the right answer. But it is difficult to write good multiple choice questions – often they are either too easy or confusingly difficult, or focus on minor details of the text. If you like, give a few examples of bad multiple choice questions, and discuss what is wrong with them, e.g.,;

Ropes are made from:

- a) the bark of the tree.
- b) the trunk of the tree.
- c) fibres of great strength.
- d) skin mixed with water.

Both (a) and (c) are correct, and (d) is too obviously wrong

C. *Open-ended questions*: They are easy for the teacher to write, but may be difficult to mark. (For example, "Why is the bark good for making ropes? could be answered: 'It is strong', 'It contains strong fibres', 'It has long fibres', etc. Other answers might seem half-right', e.g., "Fibres'.)

D. *Information transfer*: Instead of answering a question, the student has to record information from the text in a different form, e.g., by completing a table, labelling a picture, drawing a diagram. This is often a good way of testing comprehension of the main points of a text, although it may not show whether the student has understood the text completely.

Emphasise that none of these question types is "better or 'worse" than the others for testing; each kind has good and bad points, and is useful in its own way. For an informal test, it is usually best to use a *mixture* of different types of question, each focussing on different parts of the text.

3. As a possible extension to this activity, choose a text from the textbook (or another text at the same level), and ask teachers to make up a series of questions to test reading comprehension, using any of the types you have discussed.

Listening Comprehension Tests

The same kinds of questions can be used to test listening comprehension as for reading comprehension. Look again at the text and questions in Activity 2, and imagine that the text is read out by the teacher as a *listening test*. Discuss what differences there should be in the questions. Try to bring out these points:

- Obviously, they should be simpler, and there should not be too many. In reading, the students can keep referring back to the text, but in listening they have to retain what they hear in their minds. The text itself should also be fairly short.
- In listening, we can test students' ability to recognise words and phrases which would present no problem in reading. So we could include questions which can be answered directly from the text, e.g.,:

- The leaves are made into flour. True / False / We don't know? Which part of the tree is used for ropes?
- If the main aim is to test the listening skill, we should avoid giving students too much to write; so open-ended questions should have very short (one or two word) answers.

TESTING GRAMMAR AND WRITING

1. Make these points about testing grammar and writing:

- It is very easy to test grammar- there are definite answers, marking is easy, etc., Because of this it is very common for 'writing' tests to focus on grammar.
- If tests only focus on grammar, they will not show us how well students can write in English to express meaning. If we want to encourage students to develop writing skills, then it is important to give tests in which students have to express meaning in written sentences, not merely write correct grammatical forms.

Activity 3

2. Divide yourselves into pairs and look at some examples of written tests and quickly work through them so that you can see what they involve.

Look at these tests.

Which ones mainly test grammar

Which ones mainly test writing skills?

Number them from 1 to 5 according

to how much they Focus on grammar

or writing (1 =grammar, 5=writing).

A. Give the past tense forms of these verbs:

meet go come see hear take

B. What did you do before you came here today?

Write *three* sentences.

C. Write these notes as full sentences. Put the verb into the correct form.

I/spend/last week/try/find/job.

I/buy/newspaper/look/advertisements.

I/see/interesting/job/shoe factory.

I/go/interview/but/not/get/job.

D. Fill in the gaps with suitable verbs.

Yesterday, John lunch in a restaurant. Then, he his friend Peter and they to a football match together. When they arrived, they thirsty, so they some lemonade.

E. Fill in the gaps with a suitable word or phrase.

2. I feel so tired! Iat five o'clock this morning.

3. There used to be a cinema in the town, but it last month.

4. When I was a boy, we A large house by the sea.

Discuss which tests mainly focus on grammar and which focus on writing.

A possible order:

1. A - It tests forms of the verb out of context.

2. D - The student has to choose the verbs that fit the context and then write them in the correct tense.

3. C - The student has to change the form of verbs and also add words.

4. E -The student has to supply complete phrases that fit the Context.

5. B – This is a completely free sentence writing test.

Marking Free Writing Tests

1.The most natural kind of writing test is one which simply requires the student to write freely in English, like test B in activity 3.

However, tests of this kind have two disadvantages:

- Because students are free to write what they like, they are likely to make many mistakes of different kinds. So the test will tell us very little about what they can and cannot do, or how much progress they have made.
- Because there is no single correct answer, free writing tests are difficult to mark precisely and marking takes a long time.

Activity 4

Discuss different ways of marking students' writing and bring out these points:

- We could count all the mistakes the student has made, and subtract, say, half a mark for each mistake. This is called negative marking.
- We could give, say, three marks for each sentence. If a student has written the sentence more or less correctly, they are given three marks; if they have made some mistakes but the sentence can be easily understood, they are given two marks; if the sentence is very hard to understand, they are given one mark. This is called '*positive marking*'.
- Discuss the two approaches. Point out that positive marking gives more emphasis to the content and meaning the student is trying to express; by giving a positive mark, we reward students for what they can do rather than 'punish them for what they cannot do; obviously, this will have a better effect on their attitude to learning.

ORAL TESTS

I. If we want to encourage students to speak, we should give oral tests from time to time; otherwise, students will always regard speaking as less 'serious' than the other skills. Obviously, it is very difficult to test speaking, especially with large classes. Whereas with listening, reading and writing students can all be tested at the same time, with speaking each student (or pair of students) must be tested in turn. There are two main ways of testing students' speaking ability: by continuous assessment throughout the year, and by giving short oral tests to each student.

Continuous Assessment

The teacher can either give a mark for general willingness and ability to speak in all the lessons, or else note down marks for certain oral activities done in class (e.g., role play). This system will of course only be successful if the teacher tells the students that they are being given marks for speaking.

Short Oral Tests

Explain how this can be organised even with quite a large class:

- The teacher gives the whole class a set of general topics to prepare a few weeks before, the test (e.g., talk about your family, talk about sport you enjoy).
- Over two or three lessons (while the class is doing a reading or Writing activity, or a test), the teacher calls each student out in turn and quietly tests them on one of the topics. Each test lasts 30-60 seconds. The students do not, of course, know which topic they will be asked to speak about.
- Teachers can give a mark immediately. To help them do this, they can use a 'marking grid'. Show an example of this on the board:

Content	1	2	3	4	5
Fluency					

Give some examples of marks:

- Students who speak easily with good pronunciation, and who have plenty to say, could be given to (the maximum mark: 5+ 5).
- Students who can make themselves understood but have some pronunciation problems, and who produce two or three sentences, might be given 7 (3+ 4)

Activity 5

Imagine you are giving short oral tests to your students (one minute each).

Which of these topics would be suitable?

- a. Talk about yourself and your family.

- b. Ask the teacher some questions.
- c. Describe your village/town.
- d. Talk about a friend.
- e. Talk about your school.
- f. Talk about transport in your region.

Think of five other topics that you could use, and write them down.

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