



**Curriculum & Instruction**



**Methods of Teaching  
English**

*for*

**4<sup>th</sup> Year English Majores Students'**

**Instructor**

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# **Chapter I**

## **Planning for Teaching**

## **Introduction**

This chapter discusses the processes involved in lesson planning. Lesson planning is a creative, thought - provoking and challenging process. Indeed, there is no a simple formula or prescription that says lesson planning must be in one form rather than the other. That said, we should stress that whatever steps you follow, key elements must be out there in any effective and successful lesson plan. Precisely, this chapter presents the following steps:

- 1- Concept of Planning**
- 2- Concept of Educational Planning**
- 3- Characteristics of Effective Educational Planning**
- 4- Types of Planning**
- 5- Context of the lesson**
- 6- Aims and objectives of the lesson**
  - Meaning and scope level of objectives
  - Characteristics of a well learning objectives
  - Classification of objectives
- 7- Procedures (action)
- 8- Assessment of learning
- 9- Evaluation of teaching

## **1- Concept of Planning:**

Planning is fundamental to the achievement of set goals. Planning is a deliberate effort to determine the future course of action for accomplishing predetermined goals and objectives. Akpan (2011) conceptualizes planning as the process of examining the future and drawing up or mapping out a course of action for achieving specified goals and objectives. It involves working out in broad outline the things to be done and procedures for doing them in order to accomplish set purpose. It is a process of making rational and technical choice. Planning is a systematic, conscious and deliberate process of deciding ahead of time, the future course of action that a person wishes to pursue in order to reach set goals. This definition suggests that planning is part and parcel of every man's endeavor politically, socially, economically and academically.

Similarly, UNESCO (2003) describes planning as a process that makes it possible to work out a systematic outline of activities to be undertaken in order to meet the developmental objectives of a country within that country's possibilities and aspirations. These definitions depict that planning is both futuristic and goal-oriented. It is intelligent preparation for actions that will lead to the achievement of predetermined goals and objectives (Akpan, 2000). It involves a conscious, careful and systematic process of arranging a future course of action directed at goal accomplishment. Planning therefore, provides the direction in relation to objectives, activities, procedures, strategies, and cost implications, sources of fund, responsibilities and duration or time frame for attainment of set objectives. It spells out what is to be done, who to do it, when it should be done and how it should be done in order to reach set target.

Planning is a careful analysis of relevant information from the present and the past and using such information to predict future development so that a course of action can be determined that may enable attainment of stated

objectives. Planning is concerned with the future and involves predicting the effect of future events so that hindrance of the present could be minimized or eliminated in order to meet the future with more confidence and success. Therefore planning gives direction; enhances continuity of actions and reduces overlapping of responsibilities, waste of time, energy and resources (Akpan, 2000).

## **2- Concept of Educational planning:**

Educational planning involves a systematic and scientific set of decisions for future action with the aim of achieving set educational goals and objectives through effective use of scarce resources. It provides the tool for coordinating and controlling the direction of the educational system so that educational objectives can be realized. It is a process of identifying and classifying educational needs of a nation and the direction education should take and the strategies for implementing decisions concerning educational development. Akpan (2000) maintains that educational planning should reflect the state of development of a nation including the needs and readiness to execute the planned objectives. Thus, educational planning must take into consideration the population growth of children of school age in relation to access to education, educational opportunities and the demand for education. Comb cited in (Akpan, 2000) described educational planning as the application of rational systematic analysis to the process of educational development with the aim of making education more effective and efficient in responding to the needs and goals of the learners and the society. This means that educational planning should take into account the needs of the pupils/students in terms of learning facilities and equipment, textbooks, classroom spaces and qualified educational personnel. In meeting the needs of the society, educational planning should take cognizance of

the manpower, cultural, social and communication needs of the society (nation) as well as the economic changes (Akpan, 2000). Therefore, educational planning is a blue-print that gives direction for future development of a nation's educational system and prescribes courses of actions for achieving defined goals and objectives. Educational planning involves restructuring of the present educational system, forecasting future possibilities, formulating realistic and achievable goals and objectives developing action plans for implementation and periodic appraisal of progress and achievement. The political, social, economic and technological needs of a nation must be considered in educational planning.

In support of this fact, Beeby cited in Okwori (2011) states that educational planning is the exercise of foresight in determining the policy, priorities and cost of educational system having due regards for economic and political realities for the system potentials, for growth and for the needs of the country and of the pupils served by the system. This implies that educational planning is a scientific study of the future with regard to a nation's educational development. The future development of a nation is the focus of educational planning. It involves studying the future educational needs of a country and putting in place relevant policies and priorities, actions, and programs that will enhance achievement of set educational goals. Educational planning does not just happen by chance. It is an organized social practice involving studying the present and using available information concerning the educational challenges of a country to plan for future educational development. The outcome of educational planning is the education plan which contains educational policies, goals and objectives, activities and programs to be carried out, implementation strategies, method of monitoring and evaluation of achievement and progress and the time frame for implementation.

### 3- Characteristics of Effective Educational Planning:

A good and effective educational planning should have the following features:

1. **It should be dynamic:** We are living in a society and environment that are not static and changes occur daily. Educational planning should be dynamic in order to keep pace with changes in the society.
2. **It should be comprehensive:** Planning should take the overall view of the entire educational system. If planning is concerned with national educational system, the overall view of the national educational system must be done in order to have adequate information for planning. If the planning is for one level of education, for example, secondary education, an overall assessment of the secondary educational system must be carried out.
3. **Educational planning should be integrated:** This implies that educational planning should aim at maximizing output through the use of limited resources. Efforts should be made to link the various planning operations and the focus should be to improve the outcome of educational services provided.
4. **Educational planning should be iterative:** Planning should require redefining educational goals and objectives because of serendipity and unforeseen obstacles. The planning should be flexible to give room for adjustment.
5. **Planning should provide for exploration of alternatives:** This would enhance choice of possible alternatives, in terms of methods, strategies and approaches for effectiveness and efficiency.
6. **Educational planning should be goal-oriented:** It should focus on achievement of set educational goals and objectives. Planning should be based on clearly defined goals that are simple and easy to understand.
7. **Educational planning should be future-oriented:** It should focus on the improvement of future educational development.



8. **Educational planning should be pragmatic:** This means that the plan should be good and effective. The pragmatic nature of educational planning can be evaluated by how good the plan is and how well it is implemented.

9. **Planning of education should be a continuous process** that takes into consideration current changes in the society.

10. **Educational planning is a deliberate action:** It does not happen by accident.

11. **Educational planning is a formal activity:** It has a structured plan and some procedures in a written form to follow.

#### **4. Types of Planning:**

Types of planning refer to forms of educational planning adopted by planners in conjunction with the polity to map out the direction of future education of a country within a specified time-frame. Planning is a rational process of decision making aimed at achieving set goals in the future. It is a deliberate action involving prediction of the future and arranging the means and procedures for achieving set target.

Planning under the classification of time specifies clearly the time - frame for the implementation of the plan. It includes long-term planning, medium - term planning - short-term planning, lesson planning.

**a) Long-term planning:** This type of planning is usually carried out by top management of an enterprise or school organization. It covers a period of 5-10 years and above. It is strategic in nature and deals with matters relating to diversification of school curriculum and planning for effective and quality instruction in school.

**b) Medium-term planning:** This type of planning defines the future goals and

objectives of education with greater clarity and provides clear-cut strategies and procedures or action plans for achievement of future targets. It covers a period of 2-4 years.

**c) Short-term planning:** This is a type of planning designed to achieve immediate future goals. It covers a time frame of one year or less than one year. It helps the organization to progress gradually to achievement of long-term goals.

**d) Lesson Planning:** The purpose of a lesson planning is providing a structure step-by-step of what the teacher wants students to be able to do by the end of a lesson, or what they will have done during it.

## **5- Context of the lesson**

Any good and effective teacher must be thinking of the context of teaching before embarking or sketching his lesson plan. We do not teach in a vacuum, nor do we teach what strikes our minds. Without planning for teaching, our teaching and effort would be futile and meaningless. Let's also imagine that another teacher who, too, does not understand the context of teaching, decided to teach a lesson about subject and object pronouns. The teacher does not know that this is a very simple topic which all the students have mastered. Imagine the teacher entering the class and starting to teach it. Would you think that the students will be attentive? Do you think that the teacher will be able to manage this class? Of course, this will be questionable. The students will feel that the teacher is giving them trivial input. They will not be that interested as it would have been with a new topic about which they do not have enough information. Again, the reason for this particular lesson to be unsuccessful would be the teacher's ignorance of the teaching / learning context.

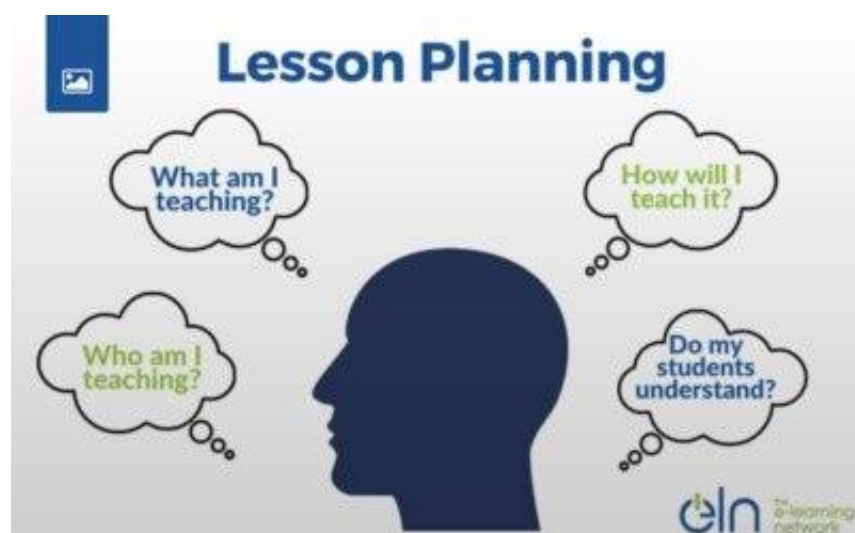
## **6- Benefits of lesson planning**

Every teacher is required to prepare or plan for his teaching. S/he should prepare a lesson plan because this is considered as guide for the day's lessons. Lesson planning is important because:

- It gives the teacher a concrete direction of what she/he wants to take up for the day.
- Research has shown that student learning is correlated to teacher planning. One major explanation is that when plan is ready, teachers can focus on its implementation.
- A teachers' most important trait is confidence. Lesson planning can help the teacher to be well prepared and be aware of what he/she intends on teaching the students.
- Lesson planning is important because it helps teachers ensure that the day-to-day activities that go on in their classrooms are providing students with an adequate level of long –term progress toward the goals outlined in their scope and sequence, as well as their individual education plans when necessary.
- An organized teacher will always be able to deliver the lesson within the given time frame (during the limited class timings). With the additional time saved, a teacher can give additional attention and time to students that require additional help.
- Also, there will be a sense of control and direction while teaching.
- Furthermore, a teacher is one of the first few inspirations of a child. Setting a good example of pre-planning can always assist a teacher to become a good inspiration and the confidence with which the teacher delivers the lesson will make the student realize the importance of planning ahead of time and adopt this habit for other disciplines of life.

An effective lesson plan includes several elements: learning objectives, questions, materials, and activities. It is important to have the learning objectives in mind because those should drive the development and implementation of all activities in the classroom. Questions are inquiries that the teacher plans to direct at the students over the course of the lesson. Sometimes these questions are rhetoric in nature, but more often they are designed to help the student think at a higher level than simple memorization and comprehension. It is important to come up with a plan for assessment to determine whether the class has met its targets. Lesson planning is a complex yet essential part of the teaching process that changes over time as teachers gain more hands-on experience.

A **lesson plan** is a teacher's guide for facilitating a lesson. It typically includes the goal (what students need to learn), how the goal will be achieved (the method of delivery and procedure) and a way to measure how well the goal was reached (usually via homework assignments or testing). This plan is a teacher's objectives for what students should accomplish and how they will learn the material.



In order to begin with lesson planning, it is important to know the aims and objectives of the course being taught to students. A teacher should be prepared not only to teach the students but also to make sure that they take some fruitful

thought regarding the lesson at the end of the class. The aims and objectives should answer questions regarding all the angles of the course. The questions could be like the following:

- What are the present capabilities of the students?
- What should the students understand regarding the subject?
- Is the timing of the lesson appropriate or should it be delayed?
- What should they take away from the subject at the end of the class?

Answering these questions will definitely help the teacher to take the right decision about what to teach and how to teach it. It will help teachers to save time and embarrassment in the classroom. Now, let's move on to the second step in lesson planning that is aims and objectives'.

## **7- Aims and objectives of the lesson**

Imagine you are holding your suitcase at a railway station. You met your friend who asked where you are leaving or heading for. Imagine your answer is that you do not know. Once more, imagine the impact of your response on your friend. This is the situation of a teacher who enters a classroom without having a clear idea of what she wants to achieve. A teacher should have clear understanding of the following issues relating to aims and objectives:

\* Meaning and scope / level of objectives

\* Classification of objectives.

### **❖ Meaning and scope / level of objectives**

Generally speaking, an aim is what we want to achieve or get. We have two different levels of objectives: 'aims' and 'objectives'.

### **What are the difference between 'aims' and 'objectives'?**

**An aim** is of a general level. It means the general change that we wish to achieve as a result of teaching. The scope of aims is broad and difficult to measure. Conversely, **an objective** is the specific change we wish to achieve as a result of teaching. The scope of objectives is limited and can be easily measured (Tyler, 1949, Richards, 2001), Let's give examples in the coming paragraphs.

Suppose that a teacher has set out this as his / her aim of the lesson:

'The students will successfully understand a reading text in English'.

You may notice that this is an 'aim' not 'objective': because we do not know exactly how we can judge that the students have successfully read and understand the text. In other words, we do not know exactly how we can measure this. It did not tell us the students will do this, and this and this. It just guides us to a main destination. It is like someone who wants to travel from Cairo to Alexandria. All that we knew is that the person will go to Alex not to Aswan, for example. It did not tell us whether the person will take a train, a car or a plane. Nor did it tell us the time a person needs to reach Alex. It did not tell us about the day of travel, either. All these are the details. These are specific things that the aim did not tell, but objectives can.

- **Definition of Learning Objective**

Learning objectives according to Pollard and Triggs (1997: 255) are **'statements of what you want pupils to learn.** 'These are simply what you want your students to learn as a result of teaching. What the teacher will do and what the students will do must be a reflection of the planned objectives. This means the teacher and students' roles will be directed towards achieving the lesson objectives. An objective can tell us the specific things that could help us achieve the general aim.

**Learning objectives** are statements of what a learner is expected to know, understand, and/or be able to demonstrate after completion of a process of learning. Learning objectives form a basis for curriculum, course syllabus, course development, as well as assessing the learning process.

▪ **Components of a well learning objective:**

A well-written learning objective provides a basis for planning, developing, delivering, and evaluating an educational activity. Preparing Instructional Objectives, Mager (1975) states that a behavioral objective or a learning objective should have four components which are audience, behavior or performance, condition or constrains, and degree or standard or criteria as described below:

- 1- **Audience:** The learner's characteristics
- 2- **Behavior** (performance): What the student will be able to do
- 3- **Condition** (constrains): The conditions under which behavior occurs
- 4- **Degree** (standard, criteria): An explicit description of acceptable behavior

First, the instructional objective must state the audience and describe the learner's characteristics for the educational activity. The behavior should be specific, observable, and assessable. The condition under which the behavior is to be completed should be stated, including what tools or assistance are to be provided. The degree or standard should describe the acceptable level of behavior, including an acceptable range of answers that are allowable as correct.

Today, the performance objectives or learning objectives are written by ignoring the indication of the conditions and standards, but a written indication of the behavior using measurable or observable verbs is essential for a valuable objective.

**Ex: by the end of the lesson, students should be able to apply the rules of punctuation correctly.**

Moreover, Moon (2002) states that well-written learning objectives should:

- Be observable and assessable
- Begin with an action verb
- Have only one verb per learning objective
- Avoid vague terms like know, understand, learn, be familiar with, etc.
- Be realistic within the timescale of the course to be able to be achieved and assessed
- Be linked with program outcomes
- Be linked with teaching and assessment methods

You can see now that the teacher could measure if students have successfully read and understood the text by getting the students do the above things. You may have observed that the aim is to specify the general or final learning behavior we want the students to achieve (destination), Objectives tell us how this can happen. Teachers have to set out the lesson aim clearly and to specify the objectives that will help them achieve their aim. Objectives must be specific. We must also be able to measure them.

- **Classification of objectives**

It is not enough at all that the teacher decides his/her aims and objectives. Neither is it sufficient for teachers to know how to formulate aims and objectives. They must decide further the kind of objectives they want to achieve. There are three categories of objectives from which the teacher decides what to plan for teaching: cognitive, affective and psychomotor. If the teacher plans to provide students with **new information**, then she must use the cognitive objectives. These objectives concern the mind (brain). If planning for changing



students' **attitude** toward something or increasing their motivation to do something, then affective objectives must be planned for. These objectives relate to the heart. If planning for training students to acquire **certain skills**, like using a microscope, then teachers need to use psychomotor objectives, which relate to body and muscles (Shawer, 2003).

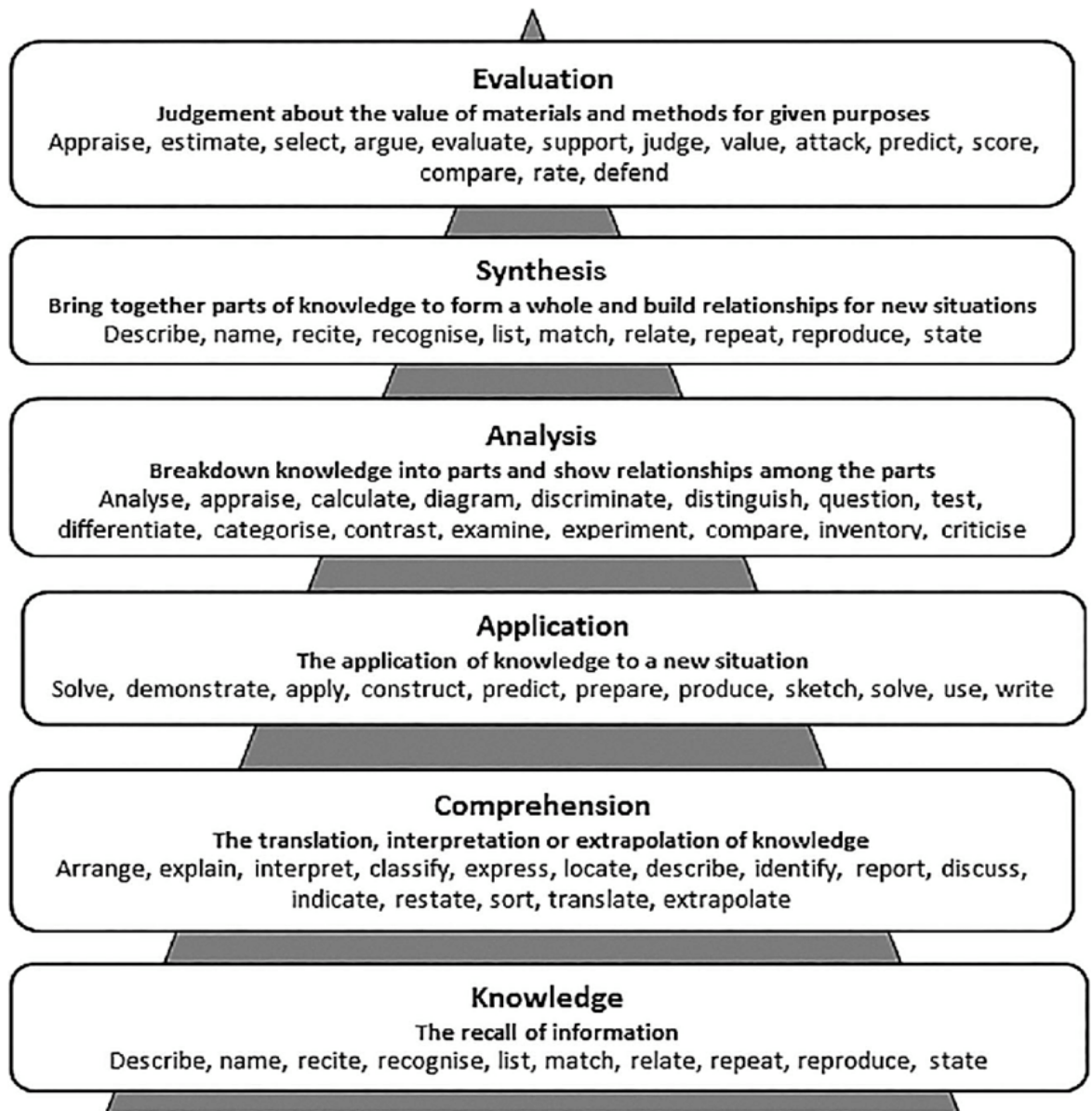
Behavioral objectives can be written for one of the three domains of learning – cognitive domain, affective domain, and psychomotor domain – as defined below (Anderson and Krathwohl 2001; Krathwohl et al. 1964; Simpson 1966):

- 1- Cognitive Domain: Acquisition of knowledge and intellectual skills (knowledge)
- 2- Affective Domain: Integration of beliefs and ideas (attitude)
- 3- Psychomotor Domain: Acquisition of manual and physical skills (skills).

▪ **Classification of objectives at the cognitive domain**

Bloom suggested that student cognition develops at five hierarchical levels:

Knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. They start from simple moving to complex, concrete moving to abstract and from the specific to the general. A teaching lesson may address one or more of these objectives. If a teacher plans to just provide students with bare facts and principles, which the students need to remember, then the objectives of the lesson must be at the level of knowledge. This basic level is necessary as it provides the learner with the basic facts, information and concepts upon which subsequent learning depends. A student cannot achieve a comparison or an analysis of something without having this basic knowledge.



If the lesson aims at developing student cognition further, where students need to understand the knowledge they have acquired, then the teacher opts for the comprehension level of objectives. To develop student understanding, teachers could use three techniques: translation, interpretation and extrapolation. By translation, the students transform something from one state to another. If they manage to do this, then they show an indicator of or evidence for understanding. When they interpret some basic information by showing its meaning, they show another evidence for understanding. When students look at the different pieces

of information and put them together to understand something, then they show higher understanding.

Planning a lesson to enable students to apply or generalize their abstract learning to concrete situations, then the teacher must choose the application level of objectives.

Do you think that getting and understanding information enough? Of course not! If the students cannot make use of what they learn, then their learning is useless. Imagine you have learnt at school the way of making a table. You should make a table at home when you get the same equipment needed for making a table. If the lesson aims to teach students how to analyze learning tasks into their small component parts through recognizing the underpinning elements, relationships and principles, then teachers pick out the analysis level 'of objectives. For example, when you give your students an essay to read, they should be able to analyze it. They should know the central idea, the main ideas and the supporting ideas. They should know whether the tone of the essay is positive or negative. They should identify the tense and type of sentences used and so on. Imagine that they read and cannot perform these tasks!

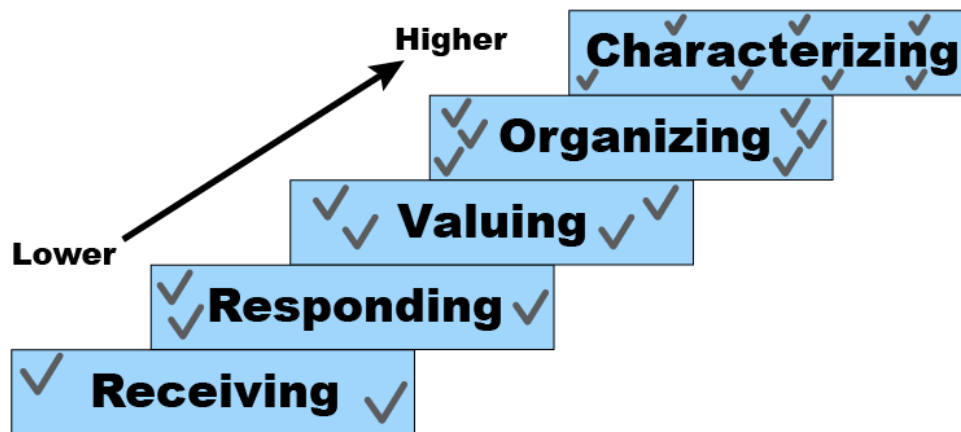
If the teacher aims to help the students how to synthesize separate parts into a new whole, then she must use the 'synthesis level' of objectives. For example, a student who learned how to analyze a microscope into its components, she should know how to assemble them again. Suppose law students were given a murder crime to figure out its mystery to achieve the value of justice. If we provided them with some motives, suspects, witnesses, could they put these pieces of information together to catch a killer? Finally, if the teachers aim to develop student ability to use internal and external evidence and criteria to assess something, then they should pick out the 'evaluation level of objectives. The teachers must develop their students' judgmental abilities. This

relates directly to critical thinking skills and if the students can give objective judgments. They need to know how to use a set of criteria according to which they can reach a sound decision. Having set out the objectives relating to mind development (cognition), let's try to set out the objectives that relate to the heart (feelings, likes, dislikes) in the following section.

- **Classification of objectives at the affective domain** Krathwohl et al. , (1964) suggested a parallel taxonomy of objectives in the affective domain: receiving, responding, valuing, organization and characterizing of a value complex.

Levels	Sample verbs
1. <i>Receiving phenomena</i> : Developing awareness of something	Choose, describe, name, use, identify, locate. <i>Example</i> : Identify the general properties of X
2. <i>Responding to phenomena</i> : Developing active participation, willingness to respond, and motivation	Answer, label, recite, write, report, discuss, help, present, perform. <i>Example</i> : Perform correctly calculations on X
3. <i>Valuing</i> : Committing oneself to a particular object, phenomenon, or behavior	Justify, propose, read, report, select, share. <i>Example</i> : Demonstrate belief in the relevance of X
4. <i>Organization</i> : Making judgments or decisions from among several alternatives	Combine, organize, prepare, synthesize, complete. <i>Example</i> : Organize the principles of X to solve Y
5. <i>Internalizing values</i> (characterization): Integrating one's beliefs, ideas, and attitudes into a total, all-embracing philosophy	Question, serve, qualify, practice, listen, and discriminate. <i>Example</i> : Cooperate in group activities

❖ **Table 1:** Taxonomy of educational objectives for the affective domain



Teachers should also think seriously about developing student motivation, attitudes and interests. They must understand that their cognitive objectives can never be achieved unless the students are emotionally and psychologically ready. To achieve this, teachers need to prepare their students to consciously and willingly tackle learning tasks and problems by planning for objectives at the receiving level. Imagine the students are not willing to listen to the subject of the lesson, do you think they will learn? Receiving or willingness to learn is as essential as the information you aim to teach. This is the door to learning. If the door is closed, how could you enter a place? If the mind is closed, how could you pass your information into students' minds? Having opened the door (mind), now the students are ready to receive your input.

Before moving on to the **third affective objective**, it is interesting to show the link between (receiving) and (responding) and how they relate to the next objective (valuing). Imagine your friend watched a film and described it to you as very interesting and exciting, and that it concurs with the type of film you are normally interested in. This means that your friend made you anxious for seeing it to the extent you went to the cinema (receiving). This also means that your friend managed to make you willing to watch it. You started to watch the film, but you found it

boring, silly and a total waste of time. Do you think that you will continue watching? If you were forced to keep watching, will you watch with interest? Of course not (responding)! We therefore conclude that being a successful teacher in making your students willing to learn does not mean or guarantee that you will keep them responding or at least interested in learning (Shawer, 2003) .

Students need also to affectively assess tasks by achieving objectives at the valuing level. Assessment of what the student receives and responds to is of a higher order thinking process. When the students think about their learning, this means they are aware of the logic behind what they learn. This also means the learners can draw differences between useful and useless aspects of learning according to a set of assessment criteria. If students do not assess their learning, then their learning is mechanical and of no practical benefit. The students in the affective domain also need to achieve objectives relating to the organization level. Teachers need to plan teaching activities that help students organize learning tasks to specify which tasks are of first priority to learn and what comes second. This also indicates that the learner's attention and awareness are in action which makes learning meaningful and of practical use.

When the students value or assess learning tasks and organize or set priorities among them, they are so close to achieve objectives at the characterizing of a value complex level. This means the students have formed a rich store of the learning tasks and strategies that could be used to facilitate learning (Shawer, 2003). So far, we have set out objectives to be used for developing the mind (cognition) and the heart (affection), why don't you as a teacher help students develop their body (skills)? The following section will show you how you could do this job.

❖ **Classification of objectives at the psychomotor domain:**

The psychomotor domain (developed by Rothwell and Kazanas in 1989) relates to the physical skills and/or the performance of motor tasks according to a standard of accuracy, rapidity, or smoothness. Subcategories progress from observation to performance of a procedure to mastery of a physical skill. Learning is demonstrated by the learner performing the skill to a designated standard or level of proficiency.

**Why It Is Important**

In clinical training, this domain might include performance of a laboratory test or demonstration of a clinical procedure. Note that cognitive knowledge underlying the skill is generally necessary.

<b>PSYCHOMOTOR DOMAIN</b>	<b>ACTION VERBS for OBJECTIVES</b>	<b>EXAMPLE</b>
<b>Perception:</b> observation of behaviors involved in completing a task	Observe, attend to, ask, describe, participate, answer	Observe correct technique for conducting a pelvic exam
<b>Set:</b> becoming mentally prepared to perform the task	Question, explore, consider outcomes, participate, tell, give examples, express confidence	Describe the steps involved in conducting a rapid HIV test
<b>Guided response:</b> the early stage in learning a complex skill that includes imitation, performing a task with assistance, and trial and error; adequacy of performance is achieved by practicing	Complete, demonstrate, replicate, share, point out, break down, put together	Demonstrate an IV insertion procedure safely and correctly on multiple patients under supervision
<b>Mechanism:</b> the intermediate stage in learning a complex skill; learned responses have become habitual, and the movements can be performed with	Arrange, choose, conduct, construct, design, integrate, organize, perform, modify, refine, respond, vary	Draw blood using universal precautions

some confidence and proficiency (acting without assistance)		
<b>Complex overt response:</b> performing automatically with facility and habitually; fine tuning and perfection of the skill or technique	Arrange, choose, conduct, construct, design, integrate, organize, perform, modify, refine	Conducts a thorough physical examination

Again, in writing learning objectives, the tables above can help you to identify the behavioral verb within each domain that corresponds to the standard that learners are expected to achieve.

As mentioned earlier, the tables are organized by order of difficulty, with the most complex learning activities at the bottom. For example, within the cognitive domain, being able to criticize a process (a verb that falls into the evaluation level of learning) shows a much more complex behavior than simply being able to identify a process (a verb that falls into the more simple knowledge level of learning). Knowledge must be mastered before criticizing can take place. Identifying the domain and desired level of learning will dictate the methodologies and types of activities utilized in the training.

***Example***

The following is an illustrative set of objectives for a prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV and AIDS (PMTCT) workshop; the learning domain and subcategory are indicated after the objective:

By the end of the workshop, participants will be able to:

1. List and describe specific interventions to prevent HIV transmission to infants (cognitive—knowledge).
2. Correctly identify and describe prophylactic treatment regimens in five case studies of HIV-positive pregnant women (cognitive—application).



3. Develop a plan to integrate PMTCT into antenatal care (cognitive—synthesis).
4. Explore and reflect on personal attitudes and values related to pregnancy in HIV-positive women (affective—receiving, responding).
5. Demonstrate correct use of personal protective equipment (psychomotor—guided response).

Planning for these objectives to be realized in our teaching is necessary in many fields. In the field of languages and social studies, students need to learn how to write, use computers and draw maps. In science, teachers need to train them how to use lab equipment, like the microscope. Psychomotor objectives are also needed in medicine, engineering and other fields.

If we ponder over the cognitive objectives, we will soon find out that the psychomotor objectives follow the same hierarchy of teaching. They both start with the simple operations to the more complex ones. When teachers plan to train their students to acquire a specific skill, they need to begin with the imitation level. For example, we may wish to teach someone how to drive a car. The first thing is for the teacher to give the student a description and explanation of the component parts relating to the driving process. For example, to explain what each button is used for. What the clutch, gear, accelerator and the like are used for. Then the teacher or trainer needs to show practically the learner how to position herself in the car, make the car gear neutral and then to turn it on by switching on the contact key. The learner will first look at the teacher and try to imitate her.

Second, the teacher plans to develop the learner's skill by achieving the manipulation objective. This requires the teacher to guide the learner to follow instructions. For example, the teacher lets the learner to sit in his / her seat and try to switch the car on whilst the teacher guides them through some instructions. This way, the learner's skill develops somewhat from just watching and imitating to trying things out themselves. Then the teacher attempts to achieve the precision

level. This takes place by asking the learner to do the same thing, till she does it with the least possible mistakes.

The teacher then directs the learner to realize the articulation level. This means they are trained to do separate operations at the same time. For example, the learner could reverse the car and could explain the processes involved. The learner could also use the screen wipers as well as different kinds of light in the car and explain when to use them. All these objectives together will lead the learner to the habit - formation level. This means that the learner does the skills without thinking about involved processes. Imagine what a person did when they first started to drive. Watch them after some months or years, they do things with very little thinking and effort.

In short, when teaching a specific skill, this could start with listening to an explanation from a teacher or trainer, then imitating what they do. The next step is to manipulate or practice the involved steps till one reaches precision. Finally, all these steps lead the learner to do the skill unconsciously. Having understood the context of teaching (first step of lesson planning) and teaching objectives (second step of lesson planning), we now come to the third step of lesson planning that is procedures.

### **Exercise 2.1**

From the list of objectives given below , identify those which meet the criterion observable ' by placing a tally in the appropriate column .

Observable Unobservable Objectives French text

1. To translate a paragraph from a
2. To understand Darwin's theory

3. To identify four common trees
4. To describe the characteristics of mammals
5. To appreciate the ' Moonlight Sonata
6. To study a diagram of the circulation in man

### **Exercise 2.2**

Correct each of the following objectives by making sure both verbs and object clearly define observable actions and end - products .

1. To learn this week's French vocabulary .
2. To know the rules for correct punctuation .
3. To know the causes of the Civil War .
4. To understand the difference between hard- and softwoods .
5. To know Chapter 3 in your chemistry book .

### **Answer key**

Suggested corrections are given below . Other corrections are possible , but carefully check that verbs describe observable action or end - products of that action .

1. ( a ) To write the English equivalent of each French word in this week's vocabulary .  
( b ) To use each word in this week's French vocabulary in a conversation with the teacher

2. (a) To state the rules for correct punctuation .
  - (b) To punctuate a a paragraph correctly .
  - (c) To correct incorrect punctuation in a given passage .
  - (d) To explain each punctuation r 16 rule and write a sentence illustrating the proper application of each rule .
  
3. ( a ) To list the causes of the Civil War .
  - ( b ) To arrange the events causing ( leading up to the beginning of ) the Civil War in sequential order .
  
- 4.( a ) To distinguish between the hard- and softwoods in a number of given samples .
  - ( b ) Explain the difference between hard- and softwoods . examples of softwoods .
  - ( c ) Give six examples of trees having hardwood and six 5. ( a ) To recall the major facts in Chapter 3 and list
    - ( b ) To explain the contents of Chapter 3 to the teacher , using them from memory . your own words

### **Exercise 2.3**

- . Each of the following objectives is poorly written
- ( a ) Identify the major problem and ( b ) rewrite the objective to correct that problem .
1. To show the class how to extract moisture from soil .
  2. To understand the problems of developing countries .
  3. To grasp the significance of the energy crisis .

4. To collect newspaper clippings about the European Economic Community ( EEC ) .

5. To view a film on air pollution ,

### **Answer key**

1. ( a ) Problem : Teacher - focused learning activity

( b ) Correction : To investigate the amount of moisture in soil . Pupils , working in groups of two , will carry out an experiment to measure the moisture contained in 100 grams of soil .

2. ( a ) Problem : Vague , unobservable .

( b ) Correction : To describe the problems of one developing country and discuss with the pupils possible solutions to these problems.

3 ( a ) PLANNING Problem : Vague, unobservable.

( b ) Correction . To consider the sources and uses of energy . To discuss the pros and cons of the use of nuclear energy .

4 (a) Problem. Learning activity rather than outcome.

(b) Correction To list the advantages and disadvantages of EEC membership .

5 (a) Problem: Learning activity rather than outcome. ( b ) Correction To explain in your own words the necessity for control of air pollution giving examples to support your argument .

## **Lesson plans**

Making a lesson plan involves:

1. Deciding on the kind of things you want the pupils to learn and stating what is to be learned in terms of precise instructional objectives.
2. Specifying an appropriate sequence of topics and tasks.
3. Describing the teaching methods to be used to move pupils towards the learning objective.
4. Describing how the pupils will demonstrate what they have learned or determine how to tell whether or not the procedures have worked by establishing checkpoints to provide feedback and monitor pupils' progress. Remember that without a plan which features objectives , an observer is likely to misjudge the effectiveness of your classroom behavior , e.g. a class discussion which contains too many recall questions on the part of the teacher is likely to be criticized unless the reason for doing so is explained. If the recall questions are intended to be used as a device to reinforce the information contained in a lesson which the class found difficult and are followed by a discussion in which the class are encouraged to reflect on and apply the information they have gained , it could be an effective strategy . But without your objectives and the strategy used to achieve them being described your teaching performance may be misjudged . Knowledge of your plans and intent enables the supervisor to help the student analyze how well classroom behavior corresponded to what was planned. A guide to making a suitable lesson plan is given below.

### ❖ Lesson planning guide:

1. General headings of date, class, age of pupils, number in class, duration of lesson and subject taught.
2. General aim : Why am I teaching this ?
3. Particular aim or instructional objective: Exactly what do I hope the pupils will learn as a result of this lesson?
4. Subject matter: What am I teaching?
5. The intended structure of the lesson and how the time will be: used . The form of this section will vary according to the kind of work undertaken. It should indicate :
  - ( a ) the teacher's work : e.g. exposition, questioning ; showing of film or filmstrip ; individual coaching - explaining . D where possible , t the kind of helpi is hoped to give .
  - ( b ) the pupil's work : e.g. their share in planning and carrying through the work ; discussion ; Completion of exercises or questionnaires : individual or group work .
  - c ) where possible , the order in which the work is expected to progress , e.g. Accompanying diagrams may show planned blackboard work and use of other visual aids, assignments, etc.
6. Materials of exercises set, by pupils. and equipment : ( a ) required by teacher , ( b ) required by pupils .
- 7 , Subsequent comments ( to be completed as soon as possible after the lesson is over ) :
  - ( a ) How far the work has developed as planned .
  - ( b ) Particularly good aspects of the work : eg things in which the children showed unusual interest ; marked cooperation on the part of the children ; particularly useful material or equipment ; showed very little

interest ; behavior difficulties ; inadequate provision of material or equipment ; unforeseen difficulties ; outstandingly bad work . (d) assessment of the total situation , suggestions about future work , good points to be followed up , deficiencies made good , desirable modifications in original programme.

### ❖ **Teaching activities or methods**

It is important to remember that teaching and learning are two different functions , the process of teaching being carried out by one person, while the process of learning is carried out by another. If the teaching-learning processes are to work effectively there must be some connection or bridge between the teacher and the learner. Much of this book , therefore , deals with the communication skills required by teachers to become effective in making these connections . These skills primarily involve talking . Research studies have shown that the average teacher does 70 per cent of the talking in primary and secondary classrooms (Flanders 1970, Perrott 1977). The percentage is probably higher in some settings ( e.g higher education ) and lower in others . Much of this time is spent in presenting new concepts and information to pupils using narration, description and explanation. This activity, which may be called the lecture-explanation method, is teacher centered, interaction between teacher and pupils being minimal.

### ❖ **Lecture and explanation techniques**

In almost all lessons or learning sequences the teacher has to present information and ideas . He has to introduce topics , summarize the main points of the learning activity and stimulate further learning. All these activities require the use of lecture-explanation techniques at various points in a learning sequence, but they must not take up too much of the lesson time.



A rough guide is that lecture - explanation, without any pupil participation, should not usually exceed 10-20 per cent of the lesson time, time being nearer 10 per cent for younger pupils and 20 per cent for older pupils. However, teachers frequently use techniques which ensure that students do not sit passively through an entire lecture - explanation sequence. Asking pupils questions about the lesson is an example of a technique designed to create pupil involvement.

#### ❖ **Discussion**

Discussion consists of questions, answers, and comment by both teacher and pupils. Since it involves feedback and pupil participation one would expect it to be an effective method of learning. This expectation is borne out by research evidence (McKeachie 1963; Abercrombie 1971). It is a useful preliminary or follow - up to any independent learning and it is useful in helping students to work out complicated problems. Most lessons should contain some discussion .

#### ❖ **Independent studies**

These methods vary from the common situation in which each pupil carries out a given activity independently , for example the solving of a mathematics problem or the translation of a passage into another language , at one end of the continuum , to a completely open - ended choice of individual activity at the other . e.g. an ' activity session in a primary classroom in which objectives are hidden until the tasks are complete . In between these two are the inquiry methods commonly used by science teachers in which specific problems are set for investigation , bearing in mind the resources available , but freedom in the methods of solving the problem are allowed . Inquiry methods although often effective can be time - consuming , requiring decisions by the teacher on the best mix of methods to use to achieve his instructional objectives . The use of these methods require very careful planning in advance on the

part of the teacher ( Perrott et al . 1977 ) , requiring as they do arrangements for independent study by individuals or small groups Gage and Berliner ( 1975 ) describe the most common teaching methods as being a combination of lecture - explanation , discussion and individual instruction In the following chapters , we shall consider in greater detail the teaching skills which play an important role in these three common teaching strategies .

## **8- Procedures (action)**

Procedures involve the description of the techniques and practices in a learning situation. It deals with what teaching materials to be used for achieving the lesson objectives, and how the material and objectives to be realized (teaching / learning activities). Procedures also involve what role the teacher will take in the classroom and what roles his / her students will play (White, 1988a). Teaching and learning activities are the roles which the teacher and students take in the learning situation (Richards, 1990). We could sum up the main elements that the procedures of a teaching lesson normally involve:

- Organizational strategies:
- Starting the lesson
- Development of the lesson
- Ending the lesson

### **❖ Organizational strategies**

Organizational strategies involve issues of attendance, seating students, timing of the lesson, space needed for conducting the lesson and use of the resources available.

### ❖ **Starting the lesson**

Starting the lesson involves the way the teacher warms up students to get set for learning. Teachers could use advance organizers by asking a question about the lesson topic, connecting the past and the present lesson, reviewing the main points the past lesson involved or by beginning with a concise introduction.

### ❖ **Development of the lesson**

Lesson development requires teachers to be very specific about what the teacher will do (teacher role) and what the students will do (learner role). This relates very much to the teaching method to be used. Will the teacher use the discussion method, for example? If this is the case, then the roles are clear. The teacher's role will be to write the topic of discussion on the board or to show it through an overhead projector or indeed through any appropriate means of presentation. Then the teacher has to specify the elements of the topic by writing down the elements needed for covering the topic. The teacher could write specific questions about each element. The students' role will be to answer each of the questions and to connect the elements of the topic together and to the main topic. The teacher's role will also involve organizing the discussion.

The teaching method, as you can see, will decide what the teacher and students will do in the classroom. It decides who reads the

lesson, who searches for information, who listens, who talks and so forth. Development of the lesson will be in action through achieving tasks that will help achieve each of the lesson objectives. Once the objectives are thought to be covered in the tasks and realized, then the lesson is ready to be brought to a close. But, how will you end the lesson?

### ❖ **Ending the lesson**

Teachers could bring their lesson to a close through asking students to submit their reports, if this was what they were asked to do. They may ask them some questions about each element of the lesson to make sure the lesson is understood. They could also end the lesson by setting out homework questions or assignments. The teachers also could end their lesson by asking the students to answer a big question or some questions about a certain topic to be discussed in the coming lesson. They may further end the lesson through a summary of the phases of the lesson. The teacher may let the students ask questions about different parts of the lesson.

## **9- Assessment of learning**

Assessment of learning relates in the first place to students and feeds into the teacher's evaluation of the lesson. Teachers may also the learning of their students in several ways initial assessment, formative assessment of summative assessment. Through the initial assessment, you could assess the learning of your students in the previous lesson through asking them questions about it before starting today's lesson. You could find out an assessment form of

the main elements of the previous lesson before commencing the lesson you are about to teach and then collect them and have a look at the answers at home or during the school day (Shawer, 2003) .

Teachers should use formative assessment which takes place throughout the teaching session. This could happen by asking questions to check student understanding. The teacher should observe students to see who is taking part in the activities and who is confused. The teacher could ask one or two students to comment on a specific point and ask his / her classmates to comment on their classmate's response. Formative assessment is a key mode in any successful lesson because you give immediate feedback to the students. Teacher may use summative assessment in several ways. This normally takes place at the end of the lesson by handing out a test form to be marked off. Teachers may ask just oral questions at the end of the lesson to check understanding. Through their observation of their students throughout the lesson, teachers may take notes of confused students and give deferred feedback to them in the tutorials (Shawer, 2003).

#### 10- **Evaluation of teaching**

If assessment of learning concerns learners in the first place, evaluation of teaching relates to teachers, Reflective teachers are always in a constant state of self-appraisal and evaluation of their work. Good teachers may evaluate their teaching in several ways. By answering a number of questions, teachers may be in a position to evaluate their teaching and make use of the data they get to improve their teaching.

- Have I managed to achieve the lesson objectives?
- Have the students answered the lesson questions?
- Have the students been motivated throughout the lesson?
- Which parts of the lesson were successful? Why?
- Which parts of the lesson were unsuccessful? Why?
- What needs to be changed or improved in the next lesson?
- Has each student achieved his / her role?
- Have I started the lesson well? Why?
- Have I made the tasks in the development part of the lesson specific and clear

## **Chapter II**

### **Teaching the Four Skills of English**

#### **1- Teaching Reading**

# 1- Teaching Reading

## Introduction

This and the next five chapters deal particularly with language receptive skills (reading and listening) and productive skills (writing and speaking), as well as the teaching of grammar and vocabulary. This chapter focuses on the reading skill. It sheds some light on the meaning of reading and reading comprehension in addition to various approaches and methods of reading instruction. Precisely, this chapter attempts to discuss:

- **Reading styles (purposes).**
- Extensive reading, intensive reading and reading speed .
- Reading material.
- Why do we teach reading?
- Approaches to reading instruction.
- A method of reading instruction.

### ❖ **Reading styles (purposes)**

Reading is a virtual dialogue between the reader and the author (or text) in which the reader grapples with the text to make sense of it (De Debat, 2006 ).

Styles of reading (the purpose for which someone reads a text) influence the reader's comprehension of the text. Hedge (2000)



draws our attention to some styles of reading. Readers opt for receptive reading for enjoyment when they want to enjoy a story, a newspaper editorial or a political argument. Readers may choose reflective reading when they read a text and then read it again to have second thoughts or reflection on it. They may be 'skim readers to get the general sense of a text. This takes place when they preview the headings of a book or a newspaper. Readers opt for 'scan reading when they read quickly through a text in search for a specific point of information, like scanning of a magazine for a particular Piece of news. Readers may be obliged to do intensive reading.

They need to look carefully at specific cues. For example, lawyers may read a text very carefully to find some kind of wording to use for defending something .

### ❖ **Extensive reading, Intensive reading and reading speed**

Extensive reading is an individually - directed reading, where learners are directed to read a wide range of texts on their own. This normally happens when a topic is of interest to the reader. It must be very detailed reading over a long period of time. When readers read extensively, this helps them improve reading comprehension and pace. Extensive reading involves a long time, large quantity of material, and longer texts. Intensive reading, on the other hand, involves short reading texts that do not generally exceed one page. It is often used to train learners on reading strategies. For example, students read intensively to know how to use connectives and guessing meaning of difficult vocabulary in context. Through

extensive and intensive reading, the reader's speed will improve in addition to reading comprehension. Precisely, readers need to read in whole phrases and groups of words that give meaning rather than reading word by word (Hedge, 2000). Teachers should direct their weak or low level students to focus on comprehension first before thinking of speed improvement (Fry, 1975).

### ❖ **Reading material:**

There are three types of reading materials available for teachers. In reading instruction, teachers may use 'authentic' texts, 'pedagogic' texts and 'adapted' texts (Hedge, 2000). Authentic texts are those written for native speakers of the language not for pedagogical purposes. Teachers may use this kind of material with advanced learners, because the input including vocabulary and structure may be very difficult to beginners. Pre - intermediate students or beginners will feel frustrated when they deal with authentic texts as they find no way to text understanding (Shawer, 2003).

Pedagogical texts are those texts written for teaching purposes. Unlike authentic texts, pedagogical texts involve some control on the language for instructional reasons. For example, specific vocabulary, tenses and information are directed towards a particular type of learner and particular purpose learning. This type is normally used with low level students to motivate them and to get the tasks approachable. However, these might be also used with advanced students to develop certain skills. Finally, adapted

materials involve authentic texts which are adjusted or modified to suit a particular type of learner. Teachers need to know their students well before deciding on the kind of material for reading instruction (De Debat, 2006).

### ❖ **Why do we teach reading?**

Hedge (2000) indicates that reading instruction is necessary to help learners:

- be in a position to read the texts they need and have interest in .
- acquire a number of reading strategies (eg skimming and scanning) to enable them to understand texts .
- develop a Range of vocabulary necessary for reading and whole language development.
- develop ways of interpreting texts.
- read critically or cross up texts or authors' messages
- get information (e.g. from travel leaflets and brochures, train timetable, regulations etc.)
- be able to follow instructions (e.g. Maps, recipes, catalogs).
- keep in touch (e.g. read postcards, invitations, and letters).
- be in touch with the world (e.g. read newspapers)

### ❖ **Approaches to reading instruction**

There are three approaches to teaching reading:

- Bottom – up
  - Top – down
  - Interaction processing.
- **Bottom - up processing (language knowledge / formal schemata)**

It focuses on the development of the lowest levels of cognitive development. It aims at helping learners develop their reading of texts through matching sounds and letters, syllables and words. Formal schemata (language knowledge) are the knowledge about the structure of the text. Herein, the readers make use of the grammar that governs the construction of sentences. They use cohesive devices, like 'reference items' and 'lexical cohesive devices. Reference items involve, for instance, 'they and the latter', whereas lexical cohesive devices include synonyms. To understand texts, readers familiarize themselves with 'connectives', like 'more' referring to addition and 'whereas' referring to contrast. Vocabulary is also formal schemata that affect readers' comprehensibility of the text (Hedge, 2000).

The bottom - up approach is referred to often as the phonics method. The phonics method considers reading instruction a linear process where readers should decode the letters, words and sentences of a text and then attempt to establish relationships between these linear elements. Therefore, readers start with decoding letters first, then they move on to decode words and in a row they decode the phrases and sentences. Readers' main cognitive processing is to recognize

these discrete elements and establish connection between them in order to recall them.

This method is based on behavioral psychology where repetition of sounds and drills would help develop the learner's reading ability. They process information through a logical progression starting with the smallest unit (letter) up to the biggest (sentence). The phonics method is criticized for encouraging rote learning, because learning is focused on memorizing isolated words and structures of a language.

By contrast, little or no focus on information processing occurs (De Debat, 2006). Top - down processing (schematic or content knowledge) directs the readers to use their background knowledge about the topic of reading to make sense of the text at hand (Beard, 1990). The top - down approach to reading instruction is thought to be of a more positive impact to readers than the bottom - up approach. It is in line with the schematic theory that moved the focus from symbol recognition to a process of making sense of a text through linking the reader's prior information about the text with the information in the text.

Reading instruction, thus, has become an active processing of meaning rather than passive decoding of forms. In order to develop readers' ability, they need to use their experiences and stored information and connect it to the text information (De Debat, 2006).

Content schemata (schematic knowledge) mean the knowledge the reader has about the topic of the text.

This relates directly to meaning and information rather than form or rules. When readers have information about the message or topic of the text, this means they will be able to comprehend it. Comprehension means 'constructing a schema that provides a coherent explanation of objectives and events mentioned in a discourse' (De Debat, 2006: 10). Schemata theory acknowledges the characteristics of readers as key factors for understanding texts. Readers' culture, age and others will therefore play a significant part in their reading comprehension.

Finally, the interaction approach is a combination of both the bottom - up (formal schemata) and top - down (content schemata) approaches to reading instruction teaching according to the top - down approach sets out some criteria to help improve learners' reading abilities. This means that texts need to be of relevance to student needs, interests, differences and culture, in order for texts to be meaningful to them, (De Debat, 2006).

### ❖ **Method of reading instruction**

Based on the information gleaned from the bottom - up and top - down approaches, teachers could plan their reading instruction according to a three phase method:

- The pre - reading phase
- The while - reading phase
- The post - reading phase

- **The pre - reading phase**

In the pre - reading phase, a number of pre - reading activities could be adopted to achieve a number of functions. These activities are essential to evoke readers' thought and to activate their existing schemata about the topic at hand. These will also help the teacher to assess the extent to which their students have knowledge about the text. They will enable the teacher to introduce a key vocabulary through a variety of materials. Teachers should make use here of both 'formal' and 'content' schemata. The first step in this pre - reading phase is for the teacher to select the texts about which learners will have relevant prior knowledge (schemata).

Teachers then ask students to employ some key pre - reading techniques:

- Prediction
- Previewing
- Semantic mapping of the text.

**Prediction** is a mental process for anticipating what the text will be about. Through prediction, readers eliminate irrelevant issues to the text and focus only on what they think the text tackles. Readers start to pose questions about the text through prediction. They use the information they have to figure out the message the text is written to convey.

**A second pre - reading technique is previewing .**

Through it , readers employ quick and significant strategies to understand the text . They look at the title , headings , sub - headings and pictures to get a general sense of the content of the text . They pick out the first and last paragraphs to link and consolidate their hunches about the text.

**Another pre - reading technique is semantic mapping .** Through it the readers draw a mental map about the topic and scan the text for salient information in order to complete this mental map . They scan for a piece of important information then for others and link them together so that they work out the main message of the text . Semantic mapping involves the building up of key concepts and vocabulary about the text . You as a teacher could ask your students to use any of these techniques to get set to reading . You could also ask them to :

- Agree or disagree with a proposition evoked by the text .
  - Talk about the pictures accompanying the text .
  - Answer some questions about the text .
  - Answer a quiz about the text .
  - List the information they know about the topic of the text .
  - Engage in an open discussion about the topic of the text .
- 
- **The while - reading phase**



In the while - reading phase , teachers work to facilitate and direct the interaction between the readers and the text . While - reading activities are directed primarily toward getting the students active and interested while approaching the text . Teachers draw their students ' attention to employ note taking while reading . This is to help them write down their notes on new vocabulary, information and details of the text and to write a summary of what the text is all about . Through while - reading activities , teachers may ask their students to

- Follow the order of ideas in the text .
- Mention their opinions about issues raised in the text .
- Write down the information the text is intended to convey.
- Match the main issues of the text to those they expected before reading the text .
- fill in a form about synonyms and antonyms from the text
- **The post - reading phase**

In post - reading , teachers assess their students ' understanding of the text . They make use of different kinds of comprehension questions . Specifically teachers will ask their students to focus on what the writer meant and the message the text was intended to convey . Learners do not agree or disagree here with the text . They have just to show that they have understood the message of the text . Teachers may ask their students to answer critically schematic and linguistic questions in relation to :

- the purpose of the text.

- the central idea of the text .
- the main ideas of the text .
- the supporting ideas of each main idea .
- the tone of the text ( negative , positive , objective ) .
- the style of the text ( e.g. formal , informal ) .
- the target audience .
- searching for a particular type of sentences .
- giving the meaning of some vocabulary .
- back reference by citing evidence they read about a certain issue .
- answering direct questions about specific information in the text .

After getting students read and answered individually , the teacher may ask them to work in pairs to discuss the different issues and answers each has done . Then the teacher may ask the students to work in small groups to share their understanding of all elements around the text . Finally , the teacher asks the students to turn to a whole class discussion about each element relating to the text .

## **Post - reading reflections**

Based on your understanding of the content of this chapter , answer the following questions . You are very much encouraged to compare your pre reading reflections with your post - reading reflections and answers . Use the clear page provided to jot down your answers :

- What does the term ' reading ' mean
- How would you define ' comprehension
- Attempt to provide a definition of ' reading comprehension '
- Write short notes on ' previewing ' , ' scanning ' , ' skimming ' and ' semantic mapping
- Discuss the different approaches to reading instruction
- Show how could you use the multi - phase method in teaching a reading lesson .
- What do we mean by ' schematic knowledge ' and ' formal knowledge.
- What are the criteria of reading material selection .
- What are the different styles of reading .
- Draw differences between the different types of reading material
- What is the difference between ' intensive ' and ' extensive ' reading .

Clear Page for Post – reading reflections

A large rectangular area with a dotted line pattern, intended for writing reflections.

# **Chapter III**

## **Teaching Writing**

## 2- Teaching Writing

Pre reading reflections:

Before starting to read this chapter , attempt to jot down your thoughts about the issues in the box . Please try not to look at the content of the chapter . Just write down your initial thoughts on a sheet of paper . There is no wrong or right answer at this stage :

- Draw a comparison between the different approaches of writing , and mention which of them you adopt and why .
- What are the different types of writing ?
- What are the main elements of the planning phase ?
- What is the purpose of any piece of writing and how is it important in the writing process ?
- How could you make the purpose of writing clear to yourself and to the reader ?
- What is the topic of any piece of writing ?
- Why should a topic reflect the purpose of any piece of writing ?
- How do you view the ' one ' of any discourse ?
- What are the different types and varieties of tone ?
- Mention the different factors that affect our tone in writing .
- Mention the different styles of writing .
- What are the factors that affect our style of writing ?
- In which case should you adopt the formal style ?
- In which case should you adopt the informal style ?
- In which case should you adopt the combined style ?

- Mention the discourse types normally used in different pieces of writing What are the main factors which would dictate the discourse type of your writing ?
- What are the main features of the following types of discourse ?
  - ( a ) argumentative
  - ( b ) descriptive
  - ( c ) narrative
  - ( d ) expository
- What are the main audience characteristics that should be considered before starting to write ?
- Why are they important ?
- What does ' message structure involve ?
- How do you conceptualize ' cohesion ' ?
- What does ' transition ' mean ?
- What is 'punctuation'?
- Choose five of the punctuation marks and show how they are important for a text.

# Teaching Writing

## Introduction

This chapter discusses in some detail the various processes involved in writing instruction. It precisely aims to shed the light on :

### 13.2 Approaches to writing

- Product
- Process

### 13.3 Type of writing

- Personal
- Public
- Social
- Study

### 13.4 Phases of the writing process

- Planning phase ( purpose , topic , tone , style ,discourse type)
- Drafting phase ( message structure , introduction , development , conclusion ) .
- Editing phase .

### 13.2 Approaches to writing

There are two main approaches to writing:

- ( a ) product
- ( b ) process .



The product approach to writing leads students to look carefully at the features of a text to reproduce them. Students think linearly as they analyze a text with a focus on the structure of texts . The students look at how the text is organized and developed and use grammatical features , such as passive sentences , relative clauses and time conjunctions . They lack the opportunity to think about the composing process , such as developing ideas , since their teachers push them to grasp text features to emulate them in their writing . Student creativity and expression of their ideas is of less importance in the product approach . Teachers read students ' writing so that they check if their students have grasped the required features . In short , the students are trained to focus on form rather than ideas development ( Hedge , 2000 ) . The process approach does not prompt linear steps for students to follow .

Students can start with any useful way to develop their writing . The issues involved in the writing process relate to one another , whilst text structure forms a means to convey ideas and to achieve cohesion . Students learn to express themselves in an organized way . They learn how to develop their ideas , use multiple drafts and work on developing them . They critique early drafts till they are satisfied that their own purposes are realized . They interact with their thoughts , writing drafts , colleagues and teachers . The process is based on interaction rather than a dictation of specific steps . The students can start at any phase and use multiple text enhancing techniques ( Hedge , 2000 ) .

### **13.3 Types of writing**

Being clear about the type of writing that we use is of paramount importance, because it would necessitate different treatment of discourse. Personal writing deals with informal ways of expressing ourselves, like diaries, journals, shopping lists, addresses and recipes. No doubt that personal writing does not require much thought or attention, since it is not subjected into any examination. It is simply a recording or reminder of events. Public writing is formal, like letters of inquiry, complaint or request and form filling (applications, checking in). Letters need careful thought and a degree of formality. By contrast form filling is a standard writing, which does not require much thought about organization or development of ideas ( Hedge , 2000 ) .

According to Hedge (2000), study writing could be seen on a continuum starting from a simple recording to processing and developing of ideas . It includes :

- Jotting down notes while reading
- Writing summaries
- Writing a synopsis
- Reviewing
- Writing reports (experiments)
- Taking notes from lectures
- workshops, visits)
- Essays
- bibliographies

At one end of the continuum is making of notes which is a simple process, while at the other is essay and review writing, which are complex processes.

Social writing is for realizing direct functions in our daily lives, like letter writing, invitations and telegrams. This type does not require much effort or a great deal of care in our writing. There is no clear difference between this type and personal writing .

Institutional writing relates to institutions and the world of business. This may include:

- agendas
- memoranda
- reports
- reviews
- contracts
- public notices
- ads
- posters

Finally, creative writing is to express one's feelings and thoughts. involve direct assessment, people appreciate and critique it.

This involves:

- poems
- stories
- Thymes
- songs
- autobiographic

Writing a letter as a 'public writing' is different from it as a 'social writing. For example, the former will require formal style, whereas the latter will be informal (Hedge, 2000).

- **Phases of the writing process**

For practical considerations, the writing process normally passes through three hypothetical phases: (a) planning, (b) drafting and (c) editing (Kerrigan, 1983; Abdel Rehim, 1997; Hedge, 1988; Hedge, 2000). These are explained in some detail in the following sections.

### **The planning phase**

You will experience how to set out your topic and how to adjust your purpose and topic to your tone. You will also be able to pay due attention to audience characteristics and discourse type and style. Precisely, the planning phase involves thinking of:

- Setting out purpose, topic and tone .
- Discourse style .
- Discourse type .
- audience characteristics

#### **1- Setting out purpose, topic and tone**

When you plan to write, you need to think of: (a) your purpose or goal; (b) your topic; and (c) your tone of writing.

We write in order to achieve certain purposes. Purpose is then what you intend to achieve as a result of your writing. It is your destination. This means that it determines the roads you will follow and the speed at which you will go. For example, you write to your brother who works abroad to ask about his affairs. Your purpose then is to make sure he is okay and that he is doing well. You may write to him in order to help find you a job. Your purpose is not

mainly to ask about his affairs, but to get a job. The content of the two messages would be different, since the purpose of each requires different information.

Your purpose is going to determine almost all the other elements of discourse. Therefore, you are advised to:

- set out your purpose from the very beginning
- select your ideas in the light of that purpose
- set out the specifications that are in line with the purpose
- be clear about what you want to achieve as a result of writing

Since your purpose relates directly to what you want to accomplish by writing, you may write to achieve any of the following purposes:

- you may write to entertain your reader .
- you may write to educate your audience .
- you may write to inspire your readers to do Something .
- you may write to change your readers' minds about a certain issue .

Topic is not the content of writing. It is the central idea or thesis around which writing revolves, whereas a title reflects your topic. Topic definition or selection must be in line with your purpose. For example, you may aim to change people's behavior regarding dropping litter (your purpose). You need to choose a topic or (your central idea) that is able to urge people to keep their environment clean. Your topic could be dropping litter and the deterioration of public health '.

**Here are some steps to help you focus your topic.**

(a) Choose the topic that is most likely to realize your purpose. You may choose a number of possible topics and match their possible results to the result you intend to achieve.

(b) Bound your topic. You cannot cover everything. You need to select a number of main ideas that will set out the limits of the central idea or topic. For example, our central topic of dropping litter and deterioration of public health could be bounded by selecting the following main ideas:

- \* Dropping litter makes streets dirty
- \* Dirt generates a variety of rodents and insects
- \* Rodents and insects carry diseases from a person to another
- \* Rodents and insects contaminate our food
- \* Contaminated food causes diseases, like diphtheria, dysenteries etc.

It seems that the above main ideas bounded the central topic to cause and effect of dropping litter. No doubt that you can cover issues relating to economy and environment beautification. If you do, this will be too long and will take the reader to different issues. Therefore, bounding a topic means you set out specific issues that you cover rather than others. This means that you set out for yourself barriers that you will not go beyond.

Your tone undoubtedly affects the result you aspire to achieve as a result of writing. Tone is the stance you hold towards the reader. This might be in favor of the reader (positive), against them (negative) or a combination of both (neutral). A positive negative or neutral tone can vary in degree. A positive tone could be formal, informal, courteous, cordial or informative. A negative tone could also be bossy, begging, hostile, rude, angry or sarcastic. A neutral (positive + negative) tone will be objective. Choice of wording may affect your tone. A positive tone with inappropriate wording could be construed as negative. Being careful about the words that would materialize your thoughts and feelings is of vital importance.

### **TASK / ASSIGNMENT**

- Read the following text in order to identify:
  - the purpose of the writer .
  - if the purpose is clear to you .
  - how could you have improved it, had it been written by you?

The feelings you describe are very normal, especially when you are just about to take the enormous step of committing yourself to someone else for the rest of your life. Think long and hard about whether you want to be with this man for so long. His eating habits might seem unpleasant now, but what are you going to feel about them in twenty years' time? But don't wait too long! If what you say is true, you run the risk of losing him. Regarding your other worry about this otherwise perfect man, there are many commercially available mouth - washes. Buy him some next time you're both doing the shopping! (source: Soars and Soars, 1987: 57)

- In the following text attempt to:
  - see if the topic is clear
  - see if the topic is in line with the purpose
  - see if the topic is bounded
  - suggest ways of presenting the topic

In 1978 the Sussex Police launched a hunt for a six-foot, dark-haired youth of about 20 who failed to mug a five-foot, 74-year-old grandmother. The young sprang upon Mrs Ethel West while she was walking through Chichester Cathedral cloisters. The result should have been a forgone conclusion. Surprisingly, however, when Mrs West grabbed the mugger's wrist, he cried, 'Oh God! Oh no! Stop! 'Encouraged by these pleas, she put him in an arm lock at which the mugger cried,' Oh no, Oh Christ! 'and ran away. If I hadn't been carrying my shopping, I would really have put him on his back ', said Mrs West who took a course in judo when younger. 'Before my husband died I used to practice throwing him at Christmas', she explained. (source: Soars and Soars, 1987b: 91) .

- Revisit the above text and approach the following:
  - identify the tone of the text
  - check if the tone matches the purpose, topic, and reader

Discourse style

When you write, think of (a) the style; and (b) discourse type that would most likely suit your audience. The reader may accept one



style rather than the other. Style could be "formal ',' informal '(friendly) or' combined '(formal / informal). You cannot write informally to a person you do not know. Similarly, you will not address your friends in a neat and formal way. We use the formal 'style with: (a) specific type of people and with (b) particular topics. We use this style to address people we do not know (strangers) and those in (higher) positions (seniors), for example , your boss at work or your teacher at school or college. We use it to write about particular topics. For example, formal styles must be used in scientific research, course assignments, and communications among institutions.

The writing format is distinctive, where no abbreviations to be used. Sentences and phrases are carefully selected and phrased. Rules of sentence structure have always to be observed. The neutral or objective tone is the norm in formal styles. Long, complex and compound sentences are often used.

We often use the 'informal style in equal position communications, where cordial relationships are there. This involves friends writing to one another, parents writing to their sons and daughters or vice versa. We use it in topics friendly to express our emotions, congratulations, condolences, advice, and caring. Herein, the format of writing is colloquial. We usually use short sentences, abbreviations and contractions in addition to slang words and phrases.

Grammatical structure is of no importance. The tone is either positive negative or a mix. The objective tone is hardly used.

The 'combined' style is a hybrid of the formal and informal styles. It is often used with people who are neither close friends nor complete strangers, like colleagues at work, immediate bosses and those you have little contact with. We use it generally with less serious topics, like workshop reports with other colleagues or in junior schools.

The format involves colloquial phrases and vocabulary. Sentences lie in a medium position between formal and informal. This means that they are not too short or too long. We observe grammar but it is not complex.

The tone may be positive, negative or objective according to the situation. For example, a topic about pollution would involve the negative tone against those who cause such a problem.

## **2- Discourse type**

We have just mentioned that the type of people and topic determines the style one adopts. Here, we will discuss the type of discourse that would suit the audience. There are four main type of discourse:

- narrative discourse
- descriptive discourse
- expository discourse
- argumentative discourse

To use 'narrative discourse', your purpose should be narration or telling of events. It is, in a way or another, a coherent story. You plan your writing in a way that allows the mention of a group of related incidents or events. Chronological order is widespread. You

may plan your writing from major to minor events or vice versa. A line or theme should connect all events. The story has a start and a course of action that lead to an appropriate conclusion. But, the introduction part of your writing must introduce the reader to main relationships among actors of the scenes. Order of events is of paramount significance.

Descriptive discourse is similar to narrative discourse apart from ordering of events. Writers aim to describe: (a) people; (b) events; or (C) places, focusing on specific features in a scene, place or person. By giving a full depiction of the target's characteristics, the writer wants to impress the reader in certain ways. Writers may aim to influence the reader's attitude or behavior. They may focus their description on the actions of the subject in specific situations or in a particular time frame. They may also focus on a person's qualities, such as leadership. In all cases, description aims to lead to subsequent actions or changes.

People adopt 'expository discourse' to construe specific events or actions through connecting causes to effects. That is to say that a particular set of factors lead to a particular result.

For example, you may argue that indoctrination in Arab schools is behind their technological backwardness. You may mention research results to support your thesis. Expository or explanatory writing could be also used to show the differences and similarities between specific events, elements, people or things. Using contrasting examples is familiar in explanatory essays to explain why some results occur rather than others. For example, you may

give examples that the proportion of failure among single parent students is higher than that of the students who have both parents. Expository discourse also intends to lead to further actions or changes. Writers adopt 'argumentative discourse' to disprove or support a proposition, statement, opinion, course of action or whatever. The tone of discourse could be positive, negative or objective. You may argue for or against a suggestion to change the reader's mind to adopt your viewpoint.

Your purpose then is to persuade the reader to adopt your stance. You may aim to present a balanced view and leave the judgement to the reader. In this case, you do not inspire the reader to follow you. The tone of writing could also be negative, positive or objective. For example, you may object to co education and focus most on the disadvantages. You may argue for single sex education and focus only on the positive consequences. You may discuss both types of education, but this time you are objective enough to present the weaknesses and strengths of both. Here, you do not take a side.

**Audience / reader's characteristics** Our discussion about the reader's characteristics will be confined to (a) audience identity, (b) reader's interest in the topic and (c) reader's prior knowledge about the topic. Before starting to write, ask whom am I writing to? If you write to unknown person, be careful about their reaction to your writing because you do not have enough knowledge about what they like and dislike you know your reader, then you should tailor your essay in a way satisfy them. Writing to the president is different from

writing to your immediate boss, friend, brother or colleague. Each has different needs, preferences and expectations.

If you tell me something I am not interested in, I will not listen. Pay attention to your reader's background knowledge.

If you write to your audience about cloning and you use acronyms, abbreviations and complex names without explanations, they will lose motivation to read it. Even if they are interested in it, they will not have enough knowledge to help them read and understand. Therefore, an interesting piece of writing is not enough. An informative piece of writing is not enough either. Both are necessary for a successful piece of writing.

### **TASK ASSIGNMENT**

Read the following text so that you may identify:

- the style of writing running throughout the text .
- the style of writing is in line with the purpose of the text .
- If the style of writing is in line with the purpose of the text

I live in a squalid flat. I am out of work and on the dole. I didn't have a good education; in fact I left school at fifteen without any qualifications. I wrote about fifty job applications and didn't get a single job. I went for a lot of interviews, but I don't really know how to behave at interviews, I can't answer their questions very well. I sit about at home every day, watching TV, and smoking. I get through about forty cigarettes a day, so I don't have enough money to go to football matches any more. A friend of mine from school has got a

job at a travel agent's, he travels all over the world for his holidays, and he's always telling me about wonderful trips to Spain and Greece. I've never been abroad! I'm so depressed. I think the worst thing is having nothing to look forward to. I'm nineteen, and I have a lifetime of nothing in front of me. (source: Soars and Soars, 1987: 67) .

- Read the following text to:

-identify its discourse type .

-give evidence from the text that supports your answer .

-say if the discourse type used is appropriate .

-suggest other discourse types if possible .

Why save engendered species? For the general public engendered species appear to be little more biological oddities. A very different perception is gained from considering the issue of extinction in a wider context. The important point is that many major social advances have been made on the basis of life forms whose worth would never have been perceived chance. Consider the impact of rubber parodiacing plans on cookapenary Efe and isdeseze aproximately two - thirds of the world's rubber supply comes from rubber procacias plans and is made in objects as diverse as rubber washers and rubber boce, Source: Professional Testing Service (ETS) 1994: 174).

### **13.4.2 The drafting phase**

The second phase we have set out for writing is a drafting process. This will involve four elements

- Message structure
- Message introduction
- Message development
- Message conclusion

### **Message structure**

Message structure includes issues relating to (a) cohesion (b) punctuation. (c) wording. (d) grammar, and (e) paragraphing. When you start to draft, think of linking your ideas together. Cohesion is to make your message homogeneous. Nothing in your essay looks alien or irrelevant. You achieve cohesion when you link sentences, sentences and paragraphs together. Every idea must be connected to what is before and what is next. It must be taken to the main idea and must be relevant to your purposes. The next sentence should add to and clarify the preceding sentence.

Transition between ideas, sentences and paragraph has to be logical. Each idea sentence or paragraph feeds into the next. If you write ideas that do not belong to a central idea, your essay is not cohesive, no matter wonderful they are. Each paragraph tackles a different issue does not relate to the main ideas.

**Punctuation:** We must be careful about using punctuation marks to give our message credibility. It is necessary to help the reader understand what they read. Punctuation should be given due care in writing. Lack of generation devices, like full stops, capital letters,

Inverted commas, semi - colons shows the writer's carelessness and gives the reader the impression of message triviality.

**Grammar**: is necessary for the structure of sentences to be correct. It is wrong. Convey a different meaning than that you intended. Notice the difference between these two sentences:

- **I have lived in Cairo for four years.**
- **I lived in Cairo for four years.**

The first sentence means you have lived in Cairo for four years and you still live in Cairo (present perfect tense). The second means you lived in Cairo for four years, but you no longer live in Cairo (past tense).

**Paragraphing**: A paragraph is a group of related sentences that revolve around one idea. Though it can stand independently and give complete sense in itself, it can be part of a larger piece of writing. A good paragraph consists of only one main idea, usually mentioned in a topic sentence. A topic sentence, therefore, reflects the main idea of a paragraph and is usually stated as the first sentence in the paragraph. A topic sentence gives the reader an overview of what the paragraph will be about.

A paragraph consists also of a number of supporting ideas which are a number of related ideas that explain the main idea. They form the details in a paragraph. Each supporting idea covers one aspect of the main idea. For example, the main idea could be 'teaching students critical thinking skills'. The supporting ideas may involve:



- decision-making skills
- showing differences and similarities of something
- linking causes to effects
- analyzing a whole into its component parts
- synthesizing discrete parts into a coherent whole or plan
- setting out the criteria for assessing something

You may have noticed that the main idea was to some extent loose. The supporting ideas are more specific. Each of the supporting ideas adds new and specific information. There is no overlap or repetition between supporting ideas. Each supporting idea is related to the main idea. They are not discussing a different issue.

### **TASK ASSIGNMENT**

Review the following texts in relation to:

-text cohesion .

-text punctuation .

-the grammar of the text .

-paragraphing of the text .

your alternative suggestions to the faulty elements in the text

**Text (a)** Shakespeare, William, 1564-1616, English dramatist and poet, considered the greatest of all playwrights: born in Stratford-upon-Avon. He was the son of a glove maker and leather

craftsman, and attended the local grammar school. In 1582, he married Anne Hathaway, and his first child, a daughter, was born within six months. Two years later, they had twins. Little else of his life is known before 1592, when he appeared in London as an actor and playwright with a growing reputation. In 1594 he joined a group of actors known as the Lord Chamberlain's men, which became the King's Men Under the patronage of James I. In 1599 he bought the Globe Theater. He retired to Stratford in 1613. He wrote at least thirty - seven plays: history plays, comedies and tragedies. Their appeal lies in his human vision, which recognizes the complexity of moral questions, and in the richness of his language. (source: Soars and Soars, 1987b. 16) .

**Text (b)** Diamonds, an occasional component of rare igneous rocks called lamproites and kimberlitic, have never been dated satisfactorily. However, some diamonds include minute inclusions of silicate minerals, commonly olivine, pyroxene, and garnet. These minerals can be dated by radioactive decay techniques because of the very small quantities of radioactive trace elements they, in turn, contain. Usually, it is possible to conclude that the inclusions are older than their diamond hosts, but with little indication of the time intervals involved. Sometimes, however, the crystal form of the silicate inclusions is observed to resemble more closely the internal structure of diamond than that of other silicate minerals. It is not known how rare this resemblance is, or whether it is most often seen in inclusions of silicates such as garnet, whose crystallography is generally somewhat similar to that of diamond; but when present,

the resemblance is regarded as compelling evidence that the diamonds and inclusions are truly congeneric. (source: Educational Testing Service (ETS), 1994: 303) .

### **Message introduction**

The introduction part of any piece of writing is very important, because we decide to continue or stop reading from the introduction. The introduction part must comprise two elements. It must involve the central idea of the essay (thesis statement) and set out the scene for the reader. That is to give a concise display of the main points that will be covered in subsequent paragraphs. An introduction could be started in various ways. You could start your introduction with a quote that stands for the central idea. You could also start it with a question that needs an answer to grab the attention of the reader. Again, the question will reflect your thesis. You could also initiate your essay with a personal experience. Remember, the points you mention in your introduction will be the main ideas of the coming paragraphs. Thesis statement must be included normally by the end of the introductory part, after mentioning the main points of discussion.

### **Message development**

To develop a piece of writing, you need to treat each of the main points mentioned in your introduction. You pick each main idea and make it the basis of a paragraph. Then you develop a number of supporting ideas that would provide enough and relevant

information to support the main idea of the paragraph. The development part should involve:

- A specific set of main ideas in your introduction;
- tackling each main idea one paragraph;
- tackling each main idea in order;
- stating the main idea of each paragraph in a topic sentence;
- deciding the supporting ideas for covering each main idea;
- selecting relevant ideas;
- providing enough information;
- avoiding repetition, redundancy and overlap of ideas;
- Discussing supporting ideas in a logical order.

Having decided on the main ideas for the paragraphs and having developed the supporting ideas for the main ideas, you need to clarify these in several ways. You may give reasons to explain why a certain phenomenon takes place. You can also draw comparisons between the supporting ideas to clarify the effect on a certain issue. Showing cause and effect clarifies the main and supporting ideas. Citing evidence from research or personal experience could be worthwhile. You need to give examples to make your discussion alive.

### **Message conclusion**

A conclusion is your transcendence over the facts and information you stated in your essay. It acts as a kind of generalization based on evidence mentioned in your writing. It is your deduction or induction of the whole essay. Some people think that a conclusion is

a summary of the essay. It is not. A conclusion is the judgment you reach on the basis of evidence in your writing. A good conclusion connects the judgments reached directly to the purpose and main topic of writing. A conclusion is a contribution to knowledge based on a well - thought argument or discussion. It may lead to a prediction about the phenomenon you have been discussing. It may also sustain a process of decision - making based on stated evidence. A conclusion may further suggest a solution of the problem under discussion. A conclusion then is your inference and understanding of the material presented.

### **The editing phase**

The editing phase is where you have second thoughts about what you have put forward into writing. We use the following checklist strategy in the editing phase. This checklist strategy covers:

- **the planning phase**
- **the drafting phase**

### **The planning phase**

You need to ask yourself:

- has the purpose been clarified?
- has the topic been in line with the purpose? o has the topic been focused and bounded?
- has the tone been appropriate?
- has the style been carefully used to match the reader's style?

- has the discourse type been carefully used to grab the reader's attention?
- have the reader's characteristics been considered?

### **The drafting phase**

The message is a reflection and embodiment of all your thoughts and planning. You need to think of:

#### (a) Message (structure)

- \* has the structure of sentences been correct?
- \* has the wording been appropriate?
- \* have the cohesion elements been considered?
- \* have the punctuation rules been checked?

#### (b) Message (introduction)

- \* has the introduction included the main idea?
- \* has the introduction told the reader what is coming next?

#### (c) Message (body / development)

- \* has each paragraph been discussing one main idea?
- \* Have you allocated a set of supporting ideas for developing the main idea?
- \* have the ideas been clear and free of repetition?
- \* have the ideas been sufficient to achieve your purpose?
- \* has the information been enough to discuss your topic?

- \* have the ideas and information been relevant to the reader?
- \* have you moved from one idea to the next smoothly and logically
- \* have you explained each idea before moving to the next?
- \* have your ideas been linked together?
- \* have your paragraphs been linked together?

(d) Message (conclusion)

- \* has your conclusion been based on the evidence you discussed?
- \* does your conclusion lead to a course of action?
- \* has your conclusion led to a judgment?
- \* have you avoided repetition of ideas in your conclusion?

### **Post - reading reflections**

Based on your understanding of the content of this chapter, answer the following questions. You are very much encouraged to compare your pre reading reflections with your post reading reflections and answers. Use the clear page provided to jot down your answers:

- Draw a comparison between the different approaches of writing, and mention which of them you adopt and why. What are the different types of writing?
- What are the main elements of the planning phase?
- What is the purpose of any piece of writing and how is it important in the writing process?

- How could you make the purpose of writing clear to yourself and to the reader?
- What is the topic of any piece of writing?
- Why should a topic reflect the purpose of any piece of writing?
- How do you view the 'tone' of any discourse?
- What are the different types and varieties of tone?
- Mention the different factors that affect our tone in writing.
- Mention the different styles of writing.
- What are the factors that affect our style of writing?
- In which case should you adopt the formal style?
- In which case should you adopt the informal style?
- In which case should you adopt the combined style?
- Mention the discourse types normally used in different pieces of writing .
- What are the main factors which would dictate the discourse type of your writing?
- What are the main features of the following types of discourse?

(a) argumentative

(b) descriptive

(c) narrative

(d) expository

\* What are the main audience characteristics that should be considered before starting to write?

\* Why are they important?



- \* What does 'message structure' involve?
- \* How do you conceptualize 'cohesion'?
- \* What does 'transition' mean?
- \* What is 'punctuation'?
- \* Choose five of the punctuation marks and show how they are important for a text.
- \* How is 'wording' important in any discourse in general and in written discourse in particular?
- \* What does collocation mean?
- \* How does the use of grammar affect your piece of writing?
- \* List ten elements relating to grammar that you need to consider in your writing .
- \* What is a 'paragraph'?
- \* What are the component parts of any paragraph?
- \* Define the topic sentence and say where it is normally located.
- \* How important is a topic sentence to a paragraph?
- \* What is the difference between main and supporting ideas?
- \* What are the specifications of supporting ideas?
- \* What are the elements an 'introduction part normally involves'?
- \* Mention some modes that could be used to initiate a good 'introduction'?

- \* How could you handle a development part of an essay?
- \* What is a conclusion?
- \* What are the specifications of a good conclusion?
- \* What should a normally conclusion lead to?
- \* What are the main elements of the editing phase?
- \* What the main writing strategy normally used in the editing phase?

Clear Page for Post – reading reflections

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# **Chapter IV**

## **Teaching Listening**

**- Pre - reading reflections:**

Before starting to read this chapter, attempt to jot down your thoughts about the issues in the box. Please try not to look at the content of the chapter. Just write down your initial thoughts on a sheet of paper. There is no wrong or right answer at this stage:

- What does the term 'listening' mean
- How would you define 'listening comprehension
- Discuss the different approaches to listening instruction
- Show how you could use the multi - phase method in teaching a listening lesson .
- What do we mean by 'schematic knowledge' and 'formal knowledge .
- What are the criteria of listening material selection .
- List some of the pre-listening activities .

## **Introduction**

This chapter discusses the approaches to listening instruction. It provides a simple multi - phase method that teachers may use to teach the listening skill. The chapter will specifically focus on

- Approaches to listening instruction
- Methods of listening instruction

### **1- Approaches to listening instruction**

In the reading section, we have explained that comprehension 'means having the base knowledge that enables us to explain issues we encounter in discourse (De Debat, 2006). The same definition applies here, but what do we mean by "listening? It generally means the attentive receiving of aural messages and assigning meaning to them. We have a bottom-up (inside the text knowledge) and top - down listening (inside the head knowledge). The former means that we use the knowledge we have about language to make sense of acoustic signals (formal knowledge schemata). The latter means that we use the world knowledge we bring to acoustic texts to make sense of them (prior knowledge Schemata).

As the case with reading, there are three approaches to listening instruction: bottom - up processing, top - down and interactive processing, bottom - up processing (language knowledge formal schemata) leads listeners to segment speech into familiar sounds of phrases, sentences and intonation. Herein, learners try to develop their listening comprehension through an attempt to understand the language knowledge of the listening text. They make

use of the grammar that governs the construction of sentences in addition to cohesive devices, connectives and vocabulary.

Top down processing (schematic or content knowledge), on the other hand, directs the learner to use their background knowledge about the topic of listening to make sense of the text at hand. Learners develop their listening ability through using stored schematic knowledge that includes their experiences and information and use it to understand the context of the listening text. When learners use their prior information, they have about the topic of the text, this means they will be able to comprehend it. Interactive processing involves both approaches to listening instruction (Hedge, 2000).

## **2- Methods of listening instruction:**

Using both bottom-up and top-down processing interactive processing, teachers could use the same three-phase method in listening instruction that we used with reading: pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening (Hedge) , 2000).

### **The pre - listening phase**

Pre - listening activities attempt to achieve the same functions that they evoked in reading. They stimulate listeners' thought to activate their existing schematic knowledge about the topic. This will help the teacher to assess the extent of knowledge their students have about the text. Teachers could introduce key vocabulary through a variety of materials, but they should focus here on both formal and content schemata. The first step is for teachers to have

selected the texts about which their learners have relevant schemata. The teacher asks the students to employ some key pre - listening techniques, like prediction 'to anticipate what the text will be about. This will direct the students to focus only on what they think the text tackles. The students themselves will pose questions about the text through using the information they have to figure out the listening message. The teacher could ask the students to:

- predict the content from the title of the text
- answer some questions about the text
- list the information they know about the listening topic
- engage in open discussions about the topic
- work on some vocabulary in the text
- work on some language features
- Activate their prior knowledge (Hedge, 2000).

### **The while - listening phase**

In the while - listening phase, teachers need to facilitate and direct the interaction between the students and the text. While - listening activities are directed primarily toward getting the students active and interested while approaching the text. Teachers may draw their students' attention to the use of 'note - taking' while listening. This would help them write down their notes on the new information and details of the text and write a summary of what the text is all about. Teachers may ask their students to:

- listen for gist
- listen for specific information



- look for key words
- pay attention to stressed words and syllables
- observe the contextual clues and the setting
- pay attention to the choice of grammar and vocabulary
- observe facial expression and other body language
- pay attention to the order of ideas in the text
- provide their opinions about issues raised in the text
- write down the information the text is intended to convey and
- match the main issues of the text to those expected before listening
- fill in a chart about the text
- tick multiple-choice questions (Hedge, 2000).

### **The post - listening phase**

In post - listening, teachers assess their students' understanding of the text. They make use of different kinds of comprehension questions. Specifically, teachers will ask their students to focus on the content of the text. They have just to show what they have understood from the text. Teachers may ask their students to answer critically schematic and linguistic questions about:

- the purpose of the text
- the central idea of the text,
- the main ideas of the text
- the supporting ideas of each main idea
- the tone of the text (negative, positive, objective)
- the style of the text (eg formal, informal)
- the target audience of the text

- a particular type of sentences
- the meaning of some vocabulary
- back reference (citing evidence they listened to about a certain issue)
- specific information in the text
- Writing a summary (Shawer, 2003; Hedge, 2000).

Having got the students listened and answered individually, the teacher may ask them to work in pairs to discuss the different issues and answers each has done. Then the teacher may ask the students to work in small groups to share their understanding of all elements around the text. The teacher may present the text through audio recording, video or just s / he reads the text.

The teacher may pause the cassette to ask questions or just lets it finish. This may depend on the length of the text. The teacher may integrate other language skills through using speaking, reading and writing activities based on the text. Finally, the teacher asks the students to turn to a whole class discussion about each element relating to the text. In real conversations, listeners may use compensation strategies, like:

- asking for clarification
- asking for repetition
- Reformulating what the speaker says (Shawer, 2003; Hedge, 2000).

## **Post - reading reflections**

Based on your understanding of the content of this chapter, answer the following questions. You are very much encouraged to compare your pre reading reflections with your post - reading reflections and answers. Use the clear page provided to jot down your answers:

- What does the term 'listening' mean
- How would you define 'listening comprehension
- Discuss the different approaches to listening instruction
- Show how you could use the multi - phase method in teaching a listening lesson
- What do we mean by 'schematic knowledge' and 'formal knowledge
- What are the criteria of listening material selection
- list some of the pre - listening activities

Clear Page for Post – reading reflections

A large rectangular area with a solid border, containing 25 horizontal dotted lines for writing.

# **Chapter V**

## **Teaching Speaking**

**- Pre - reading reflections:**

Before starting to read this chapter, attempt to jot down your thoughts about the issues in the box. Please try not to look at the content of the chapter. Just write down your initial thoughts on a sheet of paper. There is no wrong or right answer at this stage:

- What are the procedures involved in 'opening conversation' activities
- How could you keep a conversation going
- Is pronunciation teaching important to effective conversations
- Suggest how will you successfully end a conversation
- What are the requirements of a successful conversational activity
- Choose two methods that could be used for speaking instruction and explain how will you use them to promote the conversational ability of students
- How necessary are collaborative activities for the development of the speaking ability

## **Introduction**

This chapter discusses the various techniques teachers could use to teach their students how to initiate, keep and end successful conversations. It particularly covers:

### **1. Pre - speaking / controlled activities**

- Opening conversations
- Closing conversations
- Pronunciation teaching
- Language functions
- Conversation skills
- Topic personalization
- Keeping a conversation going
- Linking linguistic form to communicative function
- Communication strategies (gestures, paraphrasing, description of difficult words)

### **2. Methods of speaking instruction:**

#### **1- Pre - speaking controlled activities**

Pre - speaking activities are those procedures conducted by the teacher to prepare the students to natural or natural - like conversations. These are necessary to provide the students for the knowledge and skills without which the students will not be able to engage successfully in conversations. Speaking is a language skill which is the product of reading and listening instruction. Speaking instruction involves what Littlewood (1981) calls pre communicative activities,

The teacher's role is to provide communicative learning activities that allow for students to acquire speaking skills. These activities should encourage participation and practice from all students. Teachers need to know which activities encourage turn - taking and negotiation of meaning and which activities prepare them to practice the initiation and closing of conversations. These pre - speaking or controlled activities involve:

- Opening conversations
- Closing conversations
- Pronunciation teaching
- Language functions
- Conversation skills
- Topic personalization
- Keeping a conversation going
- Linking linguistic form to communicative function
- Communication strategies (gestures, paraphrasing, description of difficult words) (Hedge, 2000).

#### ❖ **Opening conversation**

Teachers have to prepare their students for taking part in positive conversations. According to Hedge (2000), they must not throw them into perplexing situations that might even drive students to avoid the learning process altogether. Preparing students for taking effective part in conversations helps them to build their confidence. They feel that they have acquired the content that enables them to contribute to and engage in successful conversations. One of the activities that do this job is for students to



learn how to start a conversation in English. Students could be trained to use many expressions. Opening conversation techniques are normally attention - getting devices. Some expressions are in the form of questions that invite answers, like these:

- It's a nice day, isn't it?
- It's a good person, isn't he?
- These buses get later, don't they?

The question phrase here does the job of encouraging and inviting the interlocutor to respond.

### ❖ **Closing conversation**

According to Hedge (2000), students should also be familiarized with closing conversation protocols. Teachers may draw their students' attention to use a number of expressions and closing strategies that may involve:

- Ending conversation without justification:

Ex: Well, I must think about going ...

Okay, I have to go now ...

I don't want to keep you ...

Well, I suppose I ought to get on .....

Listen, I really have to be going

- Giving reason for ending conversation:

Ex: I must get back to work ...

I have got some work to do

It's getting late ...

- Making arrangements to make contact again:

See you (soon / next week / day)

Good luck with / on ...

Give my regards to ...

Have a good evening weekend / time / journey ...

Take care

Bye (for) now

### ❖ **Pronunciation**

Teachers should introduce their students to pronunciation issues of stress, rhythm, and intonation. They need to know and sound. Teachers may use native speakers' recordings and try to analyze these features. Teachers could also record their students' speech and subject it to analysis in relation to pronunciation issues. This will depend on the level. With beginners and pre - intermediates, teachers may follow a structured course to introduce students to the basics. With intermediate, upper intermediate and advanced students, teachers may wish to focus on some elements of discourse and get their students to practice them (Hedge, 2000).

### ❖ **Language functions**

Teachers might think about providing their students with everyday language. Students need to know about:

- |                      |             |
|----------------------|-------------|
| ▪ Making suggestions | Compliments |
| ▪ Greetings          | Enquiries   |
| ▪ Invitations        | Complaints  |

For example, teachers may introduce their students to ways of making suggestions and encourage them to practice different expressions for making suggestion:

- I suggest going out.
- How about watching a film?
- What about calling Kim?
- Why don't we play chess?
- We could have a walk.
- Let's go fishing

The teacher should not also forget to get their students to practice ways of replying to a suggestion in positive or negative. For example, these may be ways to accept a suggestion:

- It's a good idea.....
- Yes, let's do that .....
- The following are ways that students may use to decline a suggestion: Yes, but .....
- It is a great idea, but I .....
- I am not sure about that .....
- I am afraid I don't like that idea ....

### ❖ **Conversation skills**

Teachers should also train their students to conversation skills which they need to be familiar with, so that they could be successful in their conversations. These may involve:

- Sharing of time
- Taking turns
- Attending to interlocutors
- Responding to interlocutors
- Tactful interruption of conversations
- initiating monologues
- Coping with a dialogue
- Participation in discussions
- Negotiation of meaning (Hedge, 2000).

### ❖ **Topic personalizing**

Teachers should personalize the topic to their students. This means that they should get the students to talk about themselves. This makes the situation more natural and encourages the students to keep talking. For example, the teacher may select a topic about arranged marriage, where some people support the idea, whereas some others are against it. The teacher could shift the situation by getting the students in pairs or small groups, where they ask each other about their views regarding arranged marriage. The students may be asked to tell a story about a real person who got married in

this traditional way. Classmates will then ask questions relating to the success of such a marriage and the justifications for adopting this way. This will lead students to genuinely discuss the topic and feel motivated to take part. The students will forget about the fear of using the language and will focus more on the content. This builds confidence (Shawer, 2003).

### ❖ **Keeping a conversation going**

Teachers should also help their students to practice the phrases and expressions normally used to keep a conversation going. When you talk to someone, this person should feel that you attend to what they are saying otherwise the conversation will be suddenly brought to a close by that person. Some modes keep conversations going. These include linguistic and paralinguistic communications. Linguistic signs involve words, like 'right,' fine ', okay yes ', ' I see and the like. Paralinguistic signs include body language, like shaking the head as a sign for attention (Hedge, 2000).

### ❖ **Linking linguistic form to communicative function**

Teachers should also create a context in which the students could use the language. Teachers need to get their students to learn the language form unconsciously through a meaningful situation. For example, Hedge (2000) suggests teaching the present continuous tense through real actions in the classroom. This could take place through questions, like 'what are you doing, Alice?' The student,

depending on the situation, may answer, 'I am looking at my book', 'I am writing down the exercise, or I am listening to you, teacher '.

### ❖ **Communication strategies**

Teachers should also train their students to use compensation or communication strategies. These are necessary for helping students to overcome their problems of communication. Sometimes, the students do not remember or know a word/s they want to use to express themselves. The student should be taught to use a strategy of going around the word through an attempt to describe it using other words they know. The students may also use body language in cases where failure in communication may happen. These and other strategies of the kind should be introduced to learners. Teachers should get their students to practice the use of these strategies (Faerch and Kasper, 1983).

## **2- Methods of speaking instruction**

We will focus here on three modes of pedagogy to speaking instruction:

- free discussion
- role - play
- gap activities

### ● **Free discussion**

In free discussion activities, the teacher arranges for students to talk about a variety of topics of interest and relevance to them. In

these discussions, the students will be able to give their opinions and talk about their experiences. In short, they will be able to express their own concerns and expectations through these issues. The students will, of course, make use of the controlled practice they have been through in the pre - conversation phase. The students will be able to:

- State preferences
- Agree or disagree
- Make comparisons
- Tell real world stories and experiences.
- Take turns.
- Introduce a topic
- Shift to new a topic

The teacher will have to make decisions about the content of the discussion and the extent to which the topic will be open and flexible. Teachers will also decide on the structure of the discussion of whether it will be divided into different phases, the roles of the students and the teacher participation (Hedge, 2000)

- **Role - play**

Teachers may to use role play as the learning activity that students use to practice speaking. They may decide to get students practice speaking through simple dialogues, where students play simple roles prompted by some information on some cards. They may engage students in more complex role - play activities that involve multi stages.

Shawer (2003) provides an example of one teacher who used this kind of role - play in action. In a lesson about a bank robbery, Gloria asked her students to take the roles of detectives, witnesses, bank manager and so on. Lots of discussions took place where almost all the students made long conversations. For example, the detective (student) interviewed his classmates and wrote a report up. For example, the witnesses described the robbers, including age, clothes, number and so on. In role - play, the students engaged in different activities. Sometimes, they discussed the topic as a group. At other times, they were talking about the topic in pairs.

- **Gap activities**

Teachers may opt to gap activities to help their students practice the speaking skill. When teachers choose this technique, they assign students into pairs or small groups. Some students will have some information which the other students do not have. The students who have the information have to discuss the topic with their partner or members of the group till they share the same information (Hedge, 2000).



# **Chapter VI**

## **ENGLISH TEACHING METHODS**

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## **Introduction:**

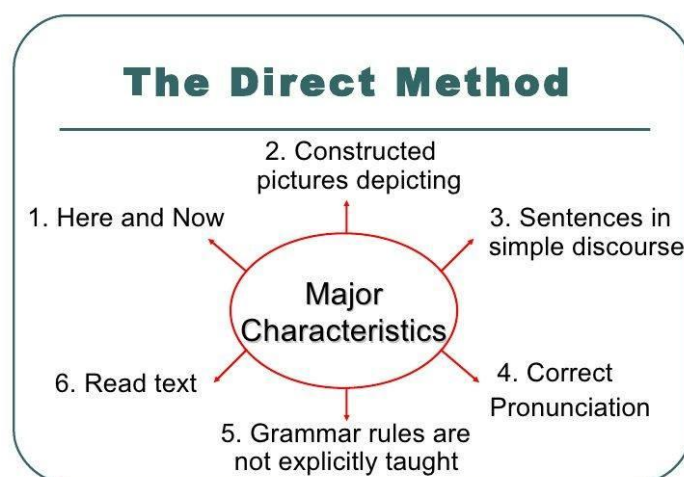
Throughout the history of teaching languages a number of different teaching approaches and methodologies have been tried and tested with some being more popular and effective than others. If you're just beginning your TEFL career, it would be beneficial to be familiar with a few of these.

### **1- The Direct Method (DM)**

If you've ever heard the Direct Method being taught, you may have rightly mistaken it for some sort of military drill, which is not far off as it was first established in France and Germany in the early 1900's to assist soldiers to communicate in a second language quickly.

The direct method of teaching English is also known as the *Natural Method*. It's used to teach a number of different languages not just English, and the main idea of the Direct Method is that it only uses the target language that the students are trying to learn.

Its main focus is oral skill and it is taught via repetitive drilling. Grammar is taught using an inductive way and students need to try and guess the rules through the teacher's oral presentation. Today popular forms of the Direct Method are Callan and Berlitz.



## **2- The Grammar Translation Method (GTM)**

Just like its name suggests, this method of teaching English is grammar heavy and relies a lot on translation. This is the traditional or ‘classical’ way of learning a language and it’s still commonly used when learning some languages. Some countries prefer this style of teaching and the main idea behind this method is that the students learn all grammar rules, so they’re able to translate a number of sentences. This is particularly common for those students who wish to study literature at a deeper level.

## **3- The Audio Lingual Method**

The Audio Lingual Method otherwise known as the New Key Method or Army Method is based on a behaviorist theory that things are able to be learned by constant reinforcement. However, just like in the army when someone behaves badly (or in this case bad use of English), the learner receives negative feedback and the contrary happens when a student demonstrates good use of English.

This is related to the Direct Method and just like its predecessor it only uses the target language. The biggest difference between the Audio Lingual Method and the Direct Method is its focus of teaching. The

Direct Methods focuses on the teaching of vocabulary whereas the Audio Lingual Method focuses on specific grammar teachings.

#### **4- The Structural Approach**

As the name suggests, the method is all about structure. The idea is that any language is made up of complex grammar rules. These rules, according to this approach need to be learnt in a specific order, for example the logical thing would be to teach the verb “to be” prior to teaching the present continuous which requires using the auxiliary form of the verb “to be.”

#### **5- Suggestopedia**

This is a behaviorist theory and related to pseudoscience. This method relies heavily on students’ belief about the method’s effectiveness. This theory is intended to offer learners various choices, which in turn helps them become more responsible for their learning.

It relies a lot on the atmosphere and the physical surroundings of the class. It’s essential that all learners feel equally comfortable and confident. When teachers are training to use the Suggestopedia method, there’s a lot of art and music involved. Each Suggestopedia lesson is divided into three different phases – 1. Deciphering 2. Concert Session 3. Elaboration.

#### **6- Total Physical Response (TPR)**

Total Physical Response, otherwise known as TPR is an approach that follows the idea of ‘learning by doing’. Beginners will learn English through a series of repetitive actions such as “Stand up”, “Open your book”, “Close the door”, and “Walk to the window and open it.” With TPR, the most important skill is aural comprehension and everything else will follow naturally later.

### **7- Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)**

The idea behind this approach is to help learners communicate more effectively and correctly in realistic situations that they may find themselves in. This type of teaching involves focusing on important functions like suggesting, thanking, inviting, complaining, and asking for directions to name but a few.

### **8- The Silent Way**

The Silent Way emphasizes learner autonomy. The teacher acts merely as a facilitator trying to encourage students to be more active in their learning. The main of this way of teaching is for the teacher to say very little, so students can take control of their learning. There's a big emphasis on pronunciation and a large chunk of the lesson focuses on it. This method of learning English follows a structural syllabus and grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation are constantly drilled and recycled for reinforcement. The teacher evaluates their students through careful observation, and it's even possible that they may never set a formal test as learners are encouraged to correct their own language errors.

### **9- Community Language Learning**

This is probably one of the English teaching methods where the student feels the safest as there's a great emphasis on the relationship and bond between the student and teacher. Unlike a lot of the other methods and approaches of teaching English as a Second Language, a lot of the L1 (mother tongue) is used for translation purposes.

**10- Task Based Language Learning**

The main aim of this approach to learning is task completion. Usually, relevant and interesting tasks are set by the teacher and students are expected to draw on their pre-existing knowledge of English to complete the task with as few errors as possible.

**11- The Lexical Approach**

The Lexical syllabus or approach is based on computer studies that have previously identified the most commonly used words. This approach in teaching focuses on vocabulary acquisition and teaching lexical chunks in order of their frequency and use. Teachers of the Lexical Approach place a great emphasis on authentic materials and realistic scenarios for more valuable learning

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