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***INTRODUCTION TO DIDACTICS : A COURSE FOR THIRD-YEAR
LICENCE LEVEL***

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Table of Contents

Introduction	06
Course Objectives	06
1 Important Concepts	07
1-1 Definition of Didactics	07
1-2 A Brief History of Didactics	09
1.3 Characteristics of Didactics	11
1-4 Didactics: General or Specific	13
1-5 Didactics Versus Pedagogy	15
1-6 Didactic Interactions	15
2- Learners and Learning.....	17
2-1 Learners and their Characteristics and Contributions.....	17
2-2 Learner Individuality (Attributes).....	18
2-2-1 Age	18
2-2-2 Aptitude	19
2-2-3 Personality	20
2-2-4 Anxiety	21
2-2-5 Gender	22
3- Language Learning Strategies	23
3-1 Learning Strategies	23
3-2 Features of learning strategies	24
3-3 Classifications of Learning Strategies	24
3-4 Strategy Training for Learners	28
3-5 How to be a Good Learner?	29
3-6 How Important is the students' motivation	30
3-7 Who is responsible for learning?	31
3-8. What Characteristics Do Good Classroom Learners Share?	32
3-9 What is special about teaching adults?	32

3-10	What are the different levels?	34
4-	Teaching the Four Skills	36
4-1	Listening	36
4-2	Speaking	40
4-3	Reading and Writing	43
5-	Approaches to Language Teaching	46
5-1.	Grammar-Translation Approach	46
5- 2.	Direct Approach	47
5-3	Audiolingual Approach	49
5-4.	Communicative Language Teaching Approach	51
5-5	The Silent Way	51
5-6	Community Language Learning	52
5-7	Total Physical Response	53
5-8	Suggestopedia Language Learning Method	54
6-	Attitudes, Motivation and Learning	55
6-1	Attitude	56
6-2	Motivation	58
6-2-1-	Integretaive Motivation	59
6-2-2-	Intstrumental Motivation	59
6-2-3	Extrinsic Motivation	61
6-2-4	Intrinsic Motivation	61
7-	Motivation and Language Learning	62
8-	Age and Aptitudes in the Process of Learning	64
8-1	Age	64
8-2	Aptitude	64
9-	Approaches to Motivation	65

9-1 Behavioral Approach to Motivation:	65
9-2 Humanistic Approaches to Motivation	66
9-3-Cognitive Approaches to Motivation	66
9-4-Social Learning Approaches to Motivation	66
9-5- Psychoanalytic Theory of Motivation	67
9- 6- Reinforcement Theory of Motivation	67
10- Teachers and Teaching	68
10-1 Definition of Teaching	67
10-2 Teaching, Learning, Acquisition	68
10-2-1 Language Teaching	69
10-2-2 The Subject Matter of language Teaching	70
10-2-2-1 Language Systems	70
10-2-2-2 Language Skills.....	72
10-2-3 Other Areas that are Part of Language Teaching	73
10-2-4 Acronyms of Language Teaching	73
10-2-5 Contributing Areas to Language Teaching	73
10-2-6 First Language, Second Language or Foreign Language.....	74
10-3 Acquisition and Learning	75
10-4 Characteristics of a Good Teacher.....	77
11- Teaching Grammar and Vocabulary	78
11-1 Teaching Grammar	80
11-2 The Approaches for Teaching Grammar	80
11-2-1 Deductive Approach	80
11-2-2 Inductive Approach	81
11-3 Goals and Techniques for Teaching Grammar	84
11-4 Overt Grammar Instruction	84

11-5 Teaching Vocabulary	85
11-5-1 Why we Should Teach Vocabulary	85
11-5-2 Teaching Tips	85
11-5-3 Kind of Activities to Teach Vocabulary.....	85
12- Error Correction	87
13-Classroom Management	90
13-1 The Teacher in the Classroom	91
13-2 Using the voice	91
13-3 Talking to Students	96
13-4 Giving Instructions	97
13-5 Student Talk and Teacher Talk	98
13-6 Using the L1	99
13-7 Creating Lesson Stages	102
13-8 Different Seating Arrangements	104
13-8-1 Orderly Rows	105
13-8-2 Circles and Horseshoes.....	107
13-8-3 Separate Tables.....	108
13-9 Different Student Groupings	109
13-9-1 Whole Class	109
13-9-2 Groupwork and Pairwork	109
13-9-3 Class-to-class	112
References	113

Introduction

Foreign language teaching and learning have experienced a significant revolution as a result of research in both scientific and theoretical knowledge. This shift has resulted in a change in the role of the teacher and in conceptions of knowledge and learning. Therefore, the current course book introduces foreign language didactics and sheds light on the various techniques, procedures, methods and strategies that didactics as a discipline studies. However, this does not mean that this material is going to provide the students with all what concerns didactics and thus a lot of questions may remain unanswered for them while going through the course book for the first time. This is an „introductory“ course. Students are then asked to do further researches related to the different topics of the syllabus. The course book lectures are supported with a reference list which may help students enhance their understanding and look for more detailed information they need.

Thanks to this course, third-year licence students will have all the tools they need for a good command of Didactics. In addition, this knowledge of didactics will undoubtedly help students to choose the speciality for their master studies.

Course objectives

These are the things students are expected to be able to do at the end of their study. These objectives will enable students to evaluate how much they have learnt and to identify where and what they need to improve in their learning. Thus, by the end of this course students should:

- 1- be able to recognize the basic terminological distinctions in the field of didactics.
2. be able to recognize the terminological distinctions regarding English language teaching.
- 3- be able to recognize the possible questions which could be asked in the teaching learning process.
- 4- be able to recognize the descriptive and rational study of all teaching-related activities before, during and after the teaching of content in the classroom, which includes the "planning, control and regulation of the teaching context

1- Important Concepts

1-1 Definition of Didactics

The word didactic is drawn from the Greek verb ‘didaskhein’. It means teaching and ‘tékné’ suggests art; “art of teaching”. Didactics refers to the principles, phenomena, forms, precepts, and law of teaching with no subject in particular (Stoker, 1964; in Navarro and Pinero, 2012). Didactics concentrates more specifically on how teachers, learners and knowledge interact and support one another

Didactics is one of the Sciences of Education. It is mainly interested in the processes of teaching and learning. Unlike other Education sciences, Didactics concentrates specifically on how teachers, learners and knowledge interact and support one another. Therefore, it is considered as a key subject in the teacher education curriculum. Didactics acts as a hinge between the general education subjects and the subject-specific disciplines, which builds up the core of a teacher’s knowledge.

Hence, the previous stated definition seems to be too broad and can be viewed from many different perspectives. In other words, one might ask the following questions: is didactics about classroom techniques? Is it about planning? Is it about evaluation?

In fact, the field and concept ‘Didactics’ are considered to be complex ones. Thus, we shall first explore the history of Didactics and then come to understand it as it is conceived nowadays.

1-2 A Brief History of Didactics

There has always been a concern with teaching and learning, since these two processes were first established as a form of ascertaining the continuity of civilization. The first accounts of teaching are those of Socrates and Plato.

Socrates taught through questioning, a teaching method known as “Socratic questioning” even to this day. This method was made explicit by Socrates's pupil Plato in “The Republic.” Socrates is generally seen as the first great teacher and this may be because of his tumultuous life and death but also because of his effort to engage students in finding answers on their own (and also because through Plato, we had the opportunity to read about his teaching). His ideas have permeated the educational field and were taken up by other educators.

One such follower was Saint Augustine (354—430) who, in his *De Magistro* adapts the questions to require an expected, dogmatic answer. This was in keeping with a catechistic approach to teaching and learning. We must remember that in the Middle Ages, education was the task of monks in monasteries, who also held the key to knowledge since they were the ones who copied old manuscripts by hand, since there were no printing presses.

Education in those days was a privilege of the rich and powerful and it was done mainly as apprenticeship: a young man would be put in the service of a wiser, older man who would teach him whatever the young person needed to know. The same was true for the different trades that made up commerce in medieval society.

However, it is not until 1613 when the term Didactics is used for the first time by Ratke (1571—1635), one of Jan Amos Komensky's ('Comenius' 1592 – 1670) teachers, in his *Aphorismi Didactici Praecipui*. In this particular work, Ratke conceptualizes Didactics as an intuitive kind of learning about reality, stressing the role that induction, psychology and the absence of pressure have on experience.

But it will be his pupil, Comenius, who will define the field for the first time in history and who will establish the basis for Didactics as a science. Comenius' *Didactica Magna* (1640) sets a series of classical principles for the discipline, amongst which we may count:

- Didactics is both an art and a science.
- Teaching should have as its main aim the learning of everything by everyone.
- Teaching and learning should be characterized by speed and effectiveness, prioritizing the key role that language and images play in each of the two processes.

Comenius' greatest achievement was the systematization of the construction of Didactics as a valid science and art. He sets Didactics as separate from Pedagogy and introduces the concept of “method.” However, his approach to the matter is a very specific one. He proposes that each discipline should develop its own didactic methods congruent with the purposes and content of the discipline. This stands in stark contrast with previous proposals, which saw the existence of one sole

method that could be applied to any area of knowledge. If one looks at Comenius' proposal one can clearly perceive a change from standardization to individualization. To him, each person has the potential to learn anything in so far as the right methods and resources are organized in such a way that allow for the person's intuition to come into contact with a specific area of knowledge. This stands in stark contrast with previous elaborations of the field which saw it as more standard.

Comenius' work will be followed by further efforts towards the individualization of education as those proposed by Rousseau (1712-1778), Pestalozzi (1746-1827) and Froebel (1782-1852). Also, from this moment on, we will be able to perceive a constant swing of a pendulum between two extreme positions: those who saw education as dealing with the transmission of knowledge via a sole method and those who saw it as happening via specific individualized means. Incredibly enough, even today, there is no agreement and neither should there be, because one thing is certain: there is no best method. Teaching should be at the service of learning and, as Comenius said, teachers should look for all possible alternatives to help everyone learn.

1.3 Characteristics of Didactics

As any other discipline, didactics has its own characteristics which are fundamental and bring it back to the content and classroom. Some of these features are:

- 1- 'Didactics is said to draw closely on practice'. In other words, more focus is put on visualising and embodying the full complexity of the teaching-studying-learning process.
- 2- 'Intentionality in school context'. Successful schooling is the result of planned processes that are built around powerful knowledge where teaching and learning processes are interpreted and evaluated. The process of teaching is diverted to some kind of gone. This means that teaching is a purposeful activity. It is goal-directed
- 3- 'Didactical questions' used for reflective planning processes and analyses of ongoing teaching.
- 4- 'The didactical triangle' which is the simultaneous interest in content; learners and teachers and how these three components interrelate in the teaching and learning process (Claesson, 2018: 11 – 13)



Figure 1 : Didactic Triangle (Seghnoucheni et. Al, 2014: 29)

1-4 Didactics: General or Specific

What constitutes the field of Didactics? How do teaching and learning interact with knowledge? What is, in short, the structure of Didactics? Is Didactics the same as Methodology? These and other related questions have guided developments in the field of Didactics. For many years, it was considered that Didactics possessed a generality of purpose. If, as many authors claimed, it had to do with teaching and learning, then it could be defined in terms of things that teachers do and things that students do in the classroom. In fact, teaching and learning were seen as one and the same process, a two-way street where knowledge was transmitted from the teacher to the student who, in turn, returned his or her understanding of the teacher's transmission as proof of learning. In this paradigm then, we talk of the teaching and learning process (singular).

However, if we go back to the conceptions of Comenius, we can readily see that each discipline is, in fact, made up on inherently particular knowledge (concepts, facts, skills and dispositions), which is unique and makes the discipline unique as well. For example, the way in which historians approach the study of history is not the same way in which a physicist approaches the study of a natural phenomenon. If we take this example, we can clearly see that a historian will look for artifacts and documents, which provide accounts of a certain event. They may interview witnesses, look at photos, read documents, and once they have collected all this information, they will provide their own interpretation of the event. This interpretation can be the same that other historian may provide or not.

In the case of the physicist, he or she will first of all observe a certain natural phenomenon in order to develop a hypothesis. This hypothesis will guide the way in which the physicist will collect information and come to conclusions. If the conclusions are in line with the hypothesis, then what will be developed is a thesis, a general statement, which will hold true for all occurrences of this kind of natural phenomena. If the hypothesis proves false, then the physicist will go on to reformulate the hypothesis and collect further data until a plausible, generalizable explanation of the phenomenon can be given.

As you can see, the very nature of the discipline (History or Physics), as well as its modes of thinking about and perceiving reality, is inherently different and unique for each area of human knowledge. Hence, in teaching, we should be able to account for this difference so that learners can have access to the modes of thinking which are specific to each discipline in the curriculum. In this sense, it can be clearly seen that different approaches are needed for each discipline. As a result of this realization, the concept of General Didactics, a unified body of knowledge about teaching and learning which can be applied in all the different disciplines, ceases to make sense. What is needed then is a Specific Didactics, which allows teachers of a certain discipline or subject to help their learners learn it with rigor and efficacy.

1-5 Didactics Versus Pedagogy

Pedagogy comes from Latin and Greek, in which a pedagogue refers to a servant or a man who guards and supervises a child (Watkins & Mortimore, 1999; in Harjanne & Tella, 2007). In ancient Greece, pedagogues took care of pre-puberty-aged boys. The meaning of the concept of pedagogy has changed over the times. Kroksmark (1995) sees that the concept of pedagogy is significantly very similar to the concept of teaching, and therefore not far from the concept of didactics. As a synonym for study of teaching, pedagogy and didactics are parallel concepts. In the same way, Kansanen (2003) expands the concept of pedagogy by arguing that it includes content, context, actors, goals and it is usually guided by the curriculum. The definition of didactics also contains education though teaching is emphasized more.

Pedagogy is the biggest of the two as it covers the why and how of education, but also talks and thinks about the curriculum, the values and the visions on education. However, didactics focuses on the how. It is more mechanic, often easier to research.

1-6 Didactic Interactions

Didactics is the science of education concerned with the processes of teaching and learning. These are two different processes even though, to some authors, they are two sides of the same process.

For our intents and purposes, we will conceptualize them as two separate although interrelated processes: one dealing with the transformation of

knowledge into teachable objects (teaching), and the other dealing with the construction of knowledge via interaction with knowledge but also with teachers and peers (learners). Teaching is concerned with how the teacher adapts his or her knowledge of the subject matter in order to transform it into an object of learning. Teachers generally know much more than their students and their knowledge is both complex and diverse.

For example, back in 1990, Grossman provided a characterization of teacher's knowledge, based on the work of Elbaz and Shulman, which clearly depicts this complexity and diversity. To this author, teacher's knowledge evolves out of the interaction of four interrelated and mutually inclusive areas:

- a- Subject matter knowledge: which includes the various paradigms within a field which affect both how the field is organized and the questions that guide further inquiry together with an understanding of the canons of evidence and proof within a discipline which help members of the discipline evaluate the knowledge claims made. If a teacher only possesses this kind of knowledge, we cannot claim that person is a teacher, but a subject expert.
- b- Pedagogical knowledge: to include knowledge about learners and learning, classroom management, curriculum and instruction. Again, this kind of knowledge is not sufficient to make a teacher. Those who possess strong pedagogical knowledge but lack the necessary content knowledge cannot be called teachers but a pedagogues or activity designers.
- c- Knowledge of context: encompassing students' backgrounds and identity configurations, knowledge of the educational institution and the community

within which it develops its social role and last, but not least, knowledge of the requirements of the school system and the purposes of education in society. If teachers only possess this kind of knowledge then they cannot be called teachers either, but social workers.

What sort of knowledge makes a teacher, then? To Grossman (op. cit), besides a strong grounding on all the previously mentioned kinds of knowledge, teachers need to possess a fourth kind of knowledge unique to the profession

d- Pedagogical Content Knowledge: the kind of knowledge that distinguishes between the subject matter expert, the activity designer, the social worker and the experienced teacher. It includes a multitude of facets and is, in itself, an integral part of a teacher's professional landscape. Pedagogical Content Knowledge encompasses: knowledge and beliefs about the purposes for teaching a subject at different grade levels; knowledge of students' understanding, conceptions and misconceptions of particular topics in the subject matter; knowledge of curriculum materials available for teaching the subject matter; knowledge of both horizontal and vertical curriculum alignments for the subject and, knowledge of instructional strategies and representations for teaching particular topics, etc.

2- Learners and Learning

2-1 Learners and their Characteristics and Contributions

In the previous lectures, we saw how teaching and learning are two complementary processes that come together when two or more people with

complementary drives meet. One has the drive to share what he or she knows, while the other has the drive to learn so as to better function in a complex world. It is the turn now to look at the contributions which learners can make to both the teaching and learning processes.

Research has homogenized the perception that all language learners might share common traits thus developing a 'universalist' approach to learner analysis which overlooks the inherent individuality of each learner and the contributions he or she can make to their learning process and also their teacher's teaching endeavors.

In this lecture, we will look at how learners differ as well as to how they are similar. We will explore what research has informed in terms of learner variation from the perspective of the different cognitive, affective and sociocultural variables that influence their learning processes.

In reviewing the contributions learners can make to the teaching and learning processes, one should be wary that, oftentimes, there are popular beliefs that may or may not have been supported by theory. In approaching each particular learner contribution we will base our opinions on what research has concluded, even if that conclusion is that the research is inconclusive!

2-2 Learner Individuality (Attributes)

2-2-1Age

The issue of age in language teaching can raise all sorts of arguments. On the one hand, we have the popular belief that young learners learn better than older

learners as it can be clearly seen by the worldwide emphasis on starting English language instruction at a progressively younger age. While it might be true that younger learners may have a more steady and easier phonological development in L2, research is inconclusive as to other aspects. For example, research supports that adult learners generally outdo young learners in the learning of vocabulary. If we review further research, exceptions can always be found for all age groups.

Hence, it would be more useful to approach the influence of age on language learning as a factor to help inform the methods used to teach different age groups instead of as a collection of principles on what works and what does not.

While popular belief asserts that adults have a harder time learning an L2, research has confirmed that in fact, they make more steady and rapid progress than children achieving higher levels of language proficiency over short periods of time. Whether this is a consequence of age or of the teaching approaches espoused by their teachers, cannot be ascertained. What is true is that adults draw on more extensive cognitive capabilities than children and thus they are able to learn about and understand language in more abstract ways, as well.

As for children, they are more likely to profit from informal and naturalistic methods emphasizing hands-on concrete learning experiences through which they can engage in communicating in the new language.

2-2-2 Aptitude

Notions of aptitude for language learning—having a “natural” capacity for learning languages easily—has received support from both popular belief and research. If we interview teachers, they will certainly acknowledge that there are some learners who seem to possess a “flair” for languages and this is often provided as an explanation as to why these learners succeed. Research is also supportive of the view that language aptitude can be perhaps the best predictor of success in language learning (Skehan, 1988).

Language aptitude can be measured but a serious dilemma with the concept is that it is generally conceived of as a genetic and stable learner endowment. If this is the case, then it cannot be influenced through teaching. Hence, learners who do not have a natural ability for languages are doomed. What research has failed to account for is how aptitude works in relation with other learner factors such as motivation, or how language aptitude can be assessed when learners have been exposed to methods with reduced language analysis. It can be concluded that, while a useful concept to help teachers shape courses, language aptitude does not by itself explain success in language learners. Other relevant factors need to be taken into consideration.

2-2-3 Personality

Personality has to do with WHO learns, and deals with issues of identity which cannot stand on their own but connect to all other areas of learner contribution. Larsen Freeman (2001) identifies several aspects of learner variation regarding personality. Some of these are:

- extraversion / introversion
- self-esteem anxiety
- sensitivity to rejection
- empathy inhibition
- tolerance of ambiguity

In order to illustrate the relevance of this area of learner contribution, we will expand on two of the above.

Introversion and extraversion

These factors will change with age, but also with motivational and learning styles. However, understanding how some of these factors impact learning can be a useful tool for teachers to organize learning experiences. For example, research has explained that extravert students—who are characterized by their sociability and impulsivity—will profit more from an approach to teaching which emphasizes communication and oral language development activities. In contrast, introvert students who tend to be introspective, reserved and good at planning prefer an academic style of teaching which allows them to display their logical and precision-oriented style of thinking.

2-2- 4 Anxiety

Anxiety has been defined as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with L2 contexts” (McIntyre and Gardner, 1994, in Larsen-Freeman, 2001:17).

Anxiety, like age, is an issue over which there is no agreement. For example, anxiety can be the root cause of poor performance or it can be caused by it. Also, there exist different kinds of anxiety, such as:

- acceptance anxiety – the fear of not being accepted by other group members.
- orientation anxiety – the fear of not being able to cope with course requirements.
- performance anxiety – the fear of not doing well in class.
- competitive anxiety – the tension of having constantly to outdo your peers.

Alongside these differences, there is research supporting the fact that a certain degree of anxiety is necessary for learners to be able to actually learn effectively. This claims points out that, when learners do not experience any tension while learning, their levels of motivation tend to plummet. However, given that research is inconclusive as to the actual impact of anxiety, teachers need to keep a vigilant eye on how high the levels of anxiety generated in their classes are so as to help students avoid unhelpful forms of anxiety that could have a severely negative effect on their learning.

4-2-5 Gender

Gender is a frequently neglected area of language teaching and learning research. However, in the broader field of education, significant research has been carried out on gender differences particularly in relation to how girls perform in school and this research has been extrapolated to the ELT field. Popular belief holds

that girls are better than boys at academic tasks, while boys tend to outperform girls at oral interaction in the classroom. However, one can attribute these claims to social and cultural roles and expectations.

Research on gender differences in ELT is, again, inconclusive as there is evidence that all are equally capable of learning. The challenge for teachers though is to find ways to best support their learners.

3- Language Learning Strategies

Research into language learning strategies has begun in the 1960's. In most of the research the primary concern has been on identifying what good language learners do to learn a second or foreign language. Rubin (1975) has focused on the strategies of successful learners, once identified; such strategies could be made available to less successful learners. Rubin (1975) has classified strategies in terms of contributing directly or indirectly to language learning. Naiman et al. (1978), Cohen and Aphek (1981), Wenden (1982), Chamot and O'Malley (1987), and many others have studied strategies used by language learners during the process of second and foreign language learning.

3-1 Learning Strategies

The term language learning strategy has been defined by many researchers. Rubin (1975) defines learning strategies as any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information. Similarly, Wenden (1998) defines them as follows: «learning strategies are mental steps or operations that learners use to learn a new language

and to regulate their efforts to do so.” (Wenden, 1998: 18). All language learners use language learning strategies either consciously or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks in the language classroom, this is one feature of language learning strategies. In English, learning learners are using certain strategies which they learn to use in the middle school and learn how to use others in the secondary level. Learners can face challenging tasks that present a real difficulty for them. So they attempt to find the quickest or the easiest way to do tasks. That is to say, using language learning strategies is inescapable.

3-2 Features of Learning Strategies

- Allow learners to become more self- directed (autonomous) .
- Are specific actions taken by learners.
- Support learning both directly and indirectly.
- Are not always observable.
- Can be taught.
- Are flexible.
- Are influenced by a variety of factors.

3-3 Classifications of Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies have been classified by many scholars (Wenden and Rubin 1987; O'Malley et al. 1985; Oxford 1990; Stern 1992, etc.) Rubin has

pioneered much of the work in the field of strategies. Some of these classifications are illustrated in the table below:

Rubin (1975)	O'Malley et al(1990)	R.Oxford (1990)	Stern (1992)
- Learning strategies	- Metacognitive strategies	- Direct Strategies memory, cognitive, compensation.	- Management and Planning Strategies
- Communication strategies	- Cognitive strategies	- Indirect strategies: metacognitive,	- Cognitive Strategies - Communicative - Experiencing Strategies
- Social strategies	- Scio-affective strategies	- Affective and social.	- Interpersonal Strategies - Affective Strategies.

Table1. Classification of Language Learning Strategies.

It is noticed from the table that (other than Stern's classification), the other classifications reflect more or less the same categorizations of language learning strategies without any radical changes.

A central research project on learning strategies is the one surveyed in O'Malley and Chamot (1990). According to them, learning strategies are special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or

retain new information. We will briefly discuss some of the main learning strategies:

Cognitive strategies are used for manipulating information to be learned in ways that enhance learning, as examples of these strategies: translation, note-taking and deduction, etc. While metacognitive strategies are used for planning, monitoring, and evaluating the learning activity such as; self-monitoring, self-evaluation. In addition to social affective strategies which are used for controlling emotional reactions, and to reduce anxiety and promote self-motivation and for cooperating with others some of the strategies included in this category are: cooperation, questioning for clarification, feedback and reinforcement. The table below illustrates O'Malley and Chamot maximal list of strategies.

<p>Metacognitive Strategies</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Directed attention: deciding in advance to concentrate on general aspect of a learning task. -Selective attention: deciding to pay attention to a specific part of the language input -Self-management: trying to arrange the appropriate conditions for learning. -Advanced preparation: planning the linguistic components of the language task. -Self-Monitoring: checking one's performance as one speaks.
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	<p>Self-Evaluation: checking how well one is doing.</p> <p>-Self-Reinforcement: giving oneself rewards for success.</p>
<p>Cognitive Strategies</p>	<p>-Resourcing: making use of language materials such as dictionaries.</p> <p>-Deduction: conscious application of rules to processing the L2.</p> <p>-Translation: using the first language as a basis for understanding and producing L2.</p> <p>-Note taking: writing down details of a text.</p> <p>-Key word: using key words memory techniques</p> <p>-Transfer: using previous knowledge to help language learning.</p> <p>-Inferencing: guessing meaning of a word from the context</p>
<p>Social Affective strategies</p>	<p>-Cooperation: working with fellow –students on language</p> <p>-question for clarification: asking a teacher or native for explanation, help, etc.</p>

Table 2: Maximal list of learning strategies. (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990: 44)

According to Oxford (1990) the choice of strategies used among students learning a second language differs according to certain factors such as: Motivation, age, Gender, etc. Learning style also, for example, global students used strategies to find meaning such as guessing, predicting , etc. Cultural background as well for example, in a culture that prizes individual competition and has organized its educational system around competitive tasks. Successful language learners may prefer strategies that allow them to work alone rather than social strategies that call for collaboration with other. In addition to the attitudes and beliefs, i.e, negative attitudes and beliefs often cause poor strategy use. The nature of the task also helps in determining the strategies to be employed.

3-4 Strategy Training for Learners

It has been said that teaching is nothing more than showing someone that something is possible, and learning is merely discovering that something is possible. In this process learners need learning how to learn or what is referred to as learner training. Dickinson (1995) adds that learner training should aim to help learners develop the ability to take more responsibility for their own learning. Thus, help learners become autonomous. So what is 'Learner Training'?

'Learner Training' is not a term which is accepted by everyone working in the field of autonomy in language learning. (Sinclair, 1989). Those who object to the term 'training' for being too narrowly and too functionally focused, tend to use other terms, such as 'learner development', 'learning to learn', 'learning learning' and 'SBA', that is to say "Strategy-Based Instruction". It is training learners to use

specific strategies in order to function successfully without a teacher. It is also referred to as strategy training. In this context Ellis and Sinclair (1989) define learner training as enabling learners of English to discover learning strategies that suit them best. So they can learn more effectively. Effective strategy training according to Ellis and Sinclair (1989) should be based on the followings:

- Learners' attitudes, beliefs and needs.
- It should fit learners' styles of learning.
- Affective issues such as: anxiety, motivation and interests all of which influences strategy choice should be directly addressed by strategy training.

To sum up, learner training is seen as a 'technical' approach for promoting learner autonomy. The focus is on how to learn not on what to learn. When strategy instruction is done successfully, students will be able to use some of the strategies independently. As example learners will be able to correct themselves, to evaluate their learning, and to apply the knowledge obtained in the class outside of it successfully. Strategy training is effective in promoting the establishment of learner autonomy.

3-5 How to be a Good Learner?

1. Why is it difficult to Describe a good Learner?:

There are so many researches which have described a good learner, but still they don't give us a satisfying answer. Many factors need to be taken into

account when considering the qualities of a good learner. Such as, what are their backgrounds, their past learning? Why are they in the classroom?, etc.

3-6 How Important is the students' motivation

One of the most successful language learning was after WW2 when the Americans military needed to train in languages of the countries they will deal with. The success of this learning was amazing. The teachers and learners here were highly motivated; they really wanted to learn and had powerful reasons.

The desire to learn can come from loving the subject or being interested to see what it is like. Or perhaps they have practical reasons for learning. Researches carried by Gardner and Lambert suggested that students who felt most warmly about the language and who wanted to integrate into culture of its speakers were most highly motivated.

Integrative motivation is more powerful than instrumental motivation. Learners with an instrumental motivation want to learn a language because of a practical reason such as getting a salary bonus or getting into college. Many college language learners have a clear instrumental motivation for language learning: They want to fulfill a college language requirement! Interactively motivated learners want to learn the language so that they can better understand and get to know the people who speak that language.

One of the main tasks of teachers is to motivate students, by choosing a topic or activity...etc. teachers are not, however, ultimately responsible for their students' motivation. They can only encourage them by words and deeds. Real motivation comes from within the individual

3-7 Who is responsible for learning?

In many modern language institutes, a sizeable percentage of time is given to “self-learning”. Students take responsibility for their own learning. The philosophy here is that students who are ready to take this responsibility are good learners. In other words, good learners don’t wait to be taught.

Not every school has self-access facilities where students learn by themselves. But we need to prompt the idea to our students that teachers can’t teach them everything unless they themselves are prepared to take some of the strain. Learning is a partnership between teachers and learners.

For some students from different cultures, if they have been led to believe that it is the teacher’s job to provide learning, it is difficult to convey the message of self-learning. Therefore, teachers should start gradually so that students start taking their own decisions about learning.

Getting students to do various kinds of home works is the best way to encourage student’s autonomy. What is important for teachers is to choose the right kind of tasks that students can grasp, and not take much of their time. In addition, teachers should follow up home works when they say they will, imposing the same deadlines upon themselves as they do on their students.

As teachers, it is up to us to promote self-learning and being available to discuss individual plans for study. The most important thing is to be sensitive to their expectations of learning and act accordingly

3-8. What Characteristics Do Good Classroom Learners Share?

- *The willingness to listen:* not only paying attention but really listen and soak the English that is being used.

- *The Willingness to experiment:* to have a go, and take risks. No all learners are extroverts but the urge to use the language (loudly or quietly) is important.

- *The willingness to ask questions:* Even though some teachers can become irritated when students ask hard questions or irrelevant ones. Good teachers invite learners to ask questions if they didn't understand something, and good learners do this.

- *The Willingness to think about how to learn:* Good learners bring or invent their own study skills, in class or when they learn by themselves.

- *The Willingness to accept correction:* Good learners are ready to be corrected. Teachers should always provide constructive feedback, by praising students for the things they have done well and offering them the ability to do things better where they were less successful.

If these are the qualities of a good learner, teachers should encourage and provide an atmosphere to show students that their experimentation and questions are welcome (within reason).

3-9 What is special about teaching adults?

Perhaps the great difference between teaching youngest and adult is that adults have long history of learning experiences. These experiences, both bad and good, will have helped them to form a strong opinion on how teaching and learning should be carried out. They also come with their own record of success and failure. Those

who have underachieved at schools before will assume that they will fail again and vice versa.

Young learners also have learning history. But it is more likely to be shorter and less fixed.

Losing face is greater in older learners. Even though, young learners also have anxiety of losing face but many factors may be involved.

One of the nightmares of teaching young learners is losing control. Due to students' unwillingness to learn, hating the subject or the teacher or just don't feel like it. On the other hand, in adult learners, teachers fail sometimes to control them, not the same way as young learners, but teachers of this age group will have experiences of students spending time talking to their neighbors where teachers want to focus their attention on vocabularies. They may arrive late to the class or fail to do the home work...etc.

Teaching adults is more recommended. They bring life experience into the classroom. They may have a view of the important of learning which will make them stick to the course of study. The attention span that cooperative adults can offer is almost certainly greater than that of children. Teachers of adults are less likely going to deal with daily discipline problems.

Teaching young learners takes place through play and knowledge, games and songs...etc. Adults don't need a camouflage for their learning. If they can see the point of learning and if we were able to explain the reason behind by asking them to do they will be more cooperative. It is, of course, possible for adults to suffer from boredom in class, especially if they have been learning the same way full-time

course, or in the same classroom for long. Such people may respond well to lessons that are entertaining and contain enjoyable activities. To facilitate language learning activities we don't want to treat them like children but some of them might respond well to a lighter style of learning which does include puzzles and quizzes...etc

3-10 What are the different levels?

- **Beginners** are those who don't understand anything in English.
 - **False Beginner**: they can't use any English but still know a lot about it and they can develop fast (can be activated)
 - **Elementary** are no longer beginners and able to communicate in a basic way. They can string some sentences together, construct simple stories or take part of predictable spoken interaction. However, they have not achieved intermediate competence which involves greater fluency and general comprehension of some authentic English and some areas for knowledge (tenses, noun phrases...etc)
 - **Upper Intermediate** have competency of intermediate students plus extended knowledge of grammatical construction and skill use.
 - **Advanced** are those whose level of English is competent. Allowing them to read un-simplified fact and fiction and communicate fluently with native speakers.
 - **Intermediate** suggests basic competence in speaking and writing and the ability to comprehend fairly straightforward listening and reading.
- Beginners: Success and failure is easy to see. Some adults may find learning a language stressful and may give up
 - Intermediate: Success is not easy to see. Learners have already achieved a lot and they may not be able to see their development. It is called plateau effect.

Teachers have to show their students that they still need to learn more without being discouraging. One of the ways to do this is to make the task more challenging and make them analyze language more thoroughly. We need to help them set clear goals so they can measure their achievement by.

- Advanced: Students know a lot of English but still the danger of plateau effect. We need to show students that they still need to learn but not by little-bit-by-little-bit and not focusing on grammatical accuracy, but more on the use of language and style; in addition to encouraging students to take more and more responsibility for their learning.

How should we teach the different levels?

Many activities can be used for all the levels but there are some that can be used for beginners such as the pronunciation or writing a small dialogue, and for advanced such as writing an essay. Other aspect is language; beginners should be exposed to simple language. Intermediates know most the simple forms of language such as “what’s your name?” etc. Therefore, we won’t ask them to concentrate on it.

The teacher behavior also is affected by the level of language. Rough-tune our speech is very great. We can exaggerate our voice tone and gestures. At higher level, such extreme behavior is not needed and it may be seen as patronizing.

The activities’ level also depends on the language level. For beginners, we won’t suggest abstract discussions. For advanced, a drill focusing on simple past tense question is almost certainly inappropriate.

Teachers react both overtly and subconsciously to different level. The materials they use reflect the unique needs of those students.

4- Teaching the Four Skills

In this lecture, we shall discuss the teaching of the four language skills in EFL classrooms. Although the sections below are placed in four different sections, it does not mean that the four language skills are isolated process. In reality, each language process enhances students' ability to use the others. Listening to other people use language enhances children's ability to speak. Reading helps students develop skills for communicating through writing. Through reading they have incidental contact with the rules of grammar. Reading also enables students to develop a sense for the structure of the language and grammar and increase their vocabulary. Writing helps in developing phonic knowledge and enhances reading fluency, because young children always associate written language with oral language they have mastered. Thus, the separation of the four language skills in the following sections is only for the sake of easiness for discussion.

4-1 Listening

Although speaking is the most common form of communication, due to several reasons, listening is the first skill to master in order to be proficient in a language. First, no one can say a word before listening to it. Thus, the teacher must take into account that the level of language input (listening) must be higher than the level of language production (speaking). Smith (1975, pp. 98- 99) emphasizes: "... good listeners often speak more exactly and more creatively than poor listeners; they have more words at their command." Second, in a conversation, one can respond accurately only after listening precisely. Our daily interactions prove that

poor listening can lead to unnecessary arguments and problems. Third, listening constitutes half of the communication process. Fourth, children get the majority information through listening. Finally, children spend more than half the time they are in the classrooms by listening (Smith, 1975, p. 65). Realizing these reasons, we can see how important it is for the learners

Despite its importance, listening to a foreign language sounds is possibly the skill which learners usually find the most difficult. This is quite natural since the sounds they hear, at least in initial stages, are unfamiliar. Thus, to get the message sent through an expression, they always feel under unnecessary pressure to understand every word. Another prominent cause that makes listening to a foreign language sounds difficult for children is the fact that children, whether in or out of the classrooms, are subjected to endless number of sounds. To a higher extent, these sounds do not belong to the foreign language they are learning. As a consequence, the learners cannot concentrate on comprehending the sounds of the foreign language they are learning.

It is even worsened by the tendency of presenting listening activities in EFL classes as simply opportunities for students to practice listening to English (Field 1998). The default method used in listening class usually begins with some kinds of pre-teaching of the context of the listening material combined with an introduction to some of the vocabulary included in the text. What comes next is often simply listening to the text, listening again, and finally answering some sort of comprehension questions. What is obvious in this default method, which is referred to by Field (1998) as focusing on product rather than process, is that the learners

merely practice to listen but do not learn to discriminate the phonological features of the speech they are hearing. Such procedure is of course not necessarily a bad activity. However, if it is employed as the only way for students to learn listening, we cannot expect the learners learn listening effectively. (Rost, 1990) explains that the teaching of listening needs to be focused on discriminating sounds in words, especially phonemic contrasts, in addition to deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words, predicting content, noting contradictions, inadequate information, ambiguities, and differentiating between fact and opinion.

To achieve the aims related to listening, the teacher plays an important role that is defined in the following steps:

1-Make sure the physical conditions are properly set up. All the distractions—unrelated materials, noise and movement—should be removed. The teacher must also be sure that chairs face the right direction so that the eye strain and uncomfortable sitting conditions are erased.

2-It is important to help pupils prepare for the listening task well before they hear the text itself. First of all the teacher must ensure that the children understand the language they need to complete the task and are fully aware of exactly what is expected of them. Mendelsohn (1994) asserts that learners should know what they are listening for and why.

3- Select, explain, and demonstrate the use of the phonological features (ellipsis, assimilation, prominence, etc.) used in the text you think important for the students to notice in order to decode the text they are going to listen. Don't forget that the

student's degree of comprehension largely depends on their ability to discriminate phonemes, to recognize stress and intonation pattern and to retain what they have heard.

4-Use materials based on a wide range of authentic texts, including both monologues and dialogues.

5-The teacher should speak in animated and interesting manner, so that the pupils have a deep interest in the activity.

6-The teacher should also be sure that her speaking speed does not exceed the pupils' listening speed.

7-The next important step the teacher should do is to encourage pupils to anticipate what they are going to hear. In everyday life, the speaker, the situation, and visual clues all help us to decode oral messages. The teacher can help the pupils by presenting the listening activity within the context of the topic of a teaching unit. (In relation to this, using videos in listening classes is also advantageous). This will help the young learners predict what the answers might be. The teacher can also help them further by asking questions and using the illustrations to encourage pupils to guess the answers even before they hear the text. Ask such question as, "Do you think Joko will agree with Tono?"; "Will Tina help her younger brother clean his bedroom?"

8-During the listening the pupils should be able to focus on understanding the message. So, it is imperative to make certain they are not trying to read or write at

the same time. It is also necessary to give a second chance to listen to the text to provide a new opportunity to those who were not able to do the task. Mendelsohn (1994) stresses that learners should be given opportunities to progressively structure their listening by listening to a text several times and by working through increasingly challenging listening tasks.

9-When the pupils have completed the activity, encourage the whole class to answer. Try not to put individual pupils under unnecessary pressure. Rather than validating whether an answer is correct or not, replay the cassette or video and let the pupils listen again for confirmation.

10-If the class gives you a variety of answers, list them all on the board and replay the cassette or video, so that the pupils can listen and choose the correct one. Even if they all appear to have completed the task successfully, always motivate them to listen to the text once more and check their answers for themselves.

11- The teacher needs to stimulate the pupils to appreciate good listening by praising their achievement. For instance, when someone could answer her questions, it is important for her to say, “Very good. You did such a good job! It proves that you listened very well.”

4-2-Speaking

First of all, as it has been stated in the previous section, in language learning the learners are expected to have higher level of language input (listening) than the level of language production (speaking). Thus, the majority of speaking activities

used in the first levels should be designed to enable pupils to participate with a minimal verbal response. However, in the last levels, e.g. grade six, pupils are encouraged to begin to manipulate language and express themselves in a much more personal way.

Based on my experience, there are three main types of speaking activities we can suitably use in primary schools. The first type is songs, chants, and poems—which are very effective to encourage young learners to mimic the model they hear on the cassette or video. This helps pupils to master the sounds, rhythms, and intonation of the English language through simple reproduction. Steiner (as cited in Jaffke, 2004) emphasizes the importance of using poetic language in the first three classes. Based on the experiences of teachers who have [been] teaching young learners for a long time, he explains that poetic language, based on rhythm and rhyme, is learned far more easily by children than is prose language. Along with songs, poetic language introduces the children to the flow of the new language and familiarizes them with its prosodic elements: emphasis, intonation, pitches, etc. In addition, a great number of songs or poems also contain certain grammatical points. Well selected songs or poems can be integrated into lessons for reinforcing grammar points.

The second type of speaking activities used in primary schools is the games and pair work activities. They are commonly based on a given model; they do encourage young learners to begin to manipulate the language by presenting them with a certain amount of choice, albeit within a fairly controlled situation. In addition, using games is also advantageous because by doing games and pair work

activities, the pupils (though they are totally unaware of this at the time) also develop a rich store of grammatical forms and structures. However, since games and pair work necessitate much energy, they are more suitable to use in the upper classes, i.e. in grade four to six.

The third type of speaking activities used in primary schools is oral report and discussions on books the students have finished reading. Children need to talk to each other about what they're reading and share their ideas and insights with others. In this way, the stories come to life, students gain insight and ideas from others, and language learning is enhanced. Zang (2009, p. 34) shows that integrating speaking and reading skills deepens students' understanding of the reading material, reveals any problem they have understanding a text, and, most importantly, lets them apply the information they have read into authentic speaking practice that improves their fluency. Kauchak & Eggen (1998) asserts that talking and social interaction enhances learning of any kind.

To succeed any speaking activity, children need to acknowledge that there is a real reason for asking a question or giving a piece of information. Therefore, the teacher should make sure the activities she presents to the pupils provide a reason for speaking, whether this is to play a game or to find out real information about friends in the class.

When the activity begins, make sure that the pupils are speaking as much English as possible without interfering to correct the mistakes that they will probably make. Try to treat errors casually by praising the utterance and simply

repeating it correctly without necessarily highlighting the errors. Finally, always offer praise for effort regardless of the accuracy of the English produced.

4-3- Reading and Writing

Reading is an essential language activity for the literate native speaker; it is even so for the non-native learner. Carell et al. (2) convincingly argue that written material, as a source of linguistic data, promotes the growth of general language competence ; increased language competence in turn enhances reading ability. Simply put, one learns how to read through the process of reading itself. Thus, our learners should be continually exposed to challenging amounts of reading material. Our task, as facilitators, is reflected in what we do in the process of selecting and grading the material as well as in preparing pre-reading activities.

In selecting the material, I believe that the content and quantity of texts are the most important elements in developing the reading skill. Content determines whether the topic is intellectually stimulating and of interest to the learner. Quantity, on the other hand, is a crucial factor in providing the learner with the opportunity to accumulate vocabulary and reinforce learned material.

Both are indispensable requirements of successful language acquisition. The materials presented should consist of both fiction and non-fiction works covering historical, political, economic and cultural topics. The reading materials should be topic-driven, i.e. revolving around a specific topic like health, women's status, or religion. The advantages of a topic-driven syllabus are

that it tends to make the content of the texts more accessible for the learners and indirectly enhances their repertoire of vocabulary. The more one reads about a certain topic, the wider one's background knowledge becomes and the greater the probability that one would encounter the same kind of vocabulary again.

Accordingly, the texts become more comprehensible and the cumulative effect of vocabulary learning can occur even though the learner's primary focus is not directed to vocabulary building. Besides, every assigned text should be accompanied by guiding questions and a list of vocabulary items including synonyms, definitions and sentences illustrating the use of idiomatic expressions.

In grading the reading material, we should take into consideration three elements: the linguistic complexity, the background knowledge included in the text and the tasks required from the learner. Thus, we start with linguistically accessible texts dealing with familiar topics and limit comprehension activities to answering the five wh-question (who, what, where and why).

As we proceed in the course and as the learners' reading experiences increase, they are expected to perform more sophisticated tasks, such as making informed evaluation, giving personal opinions, or making inferences.

In attempting to help the learner become a proficient reader, we should plan a series of pre-and post-reading activities. Pre-reading activities would include clarification and comments by the teacher on what s/he considers to be unfamiliar key concepts, expressions and vocabulary items. Pre-reading activities could also draw upon audio-visual stimuli such as video films, slides

and audio materials. For example, the films are shown to the learners to provide background knowledge necessary for the comprehension of a text, especially if this text happens to have unfamiliar cultural information or context.

Post-reading activities would have learners being encouraged to ask questions or comment on any difficulties they encountered. The content of the text is then discussed and the learners are encouraged to answer each other's questions in an attempt to enhance group activity and improve class dynamics. We could also have learners read aloud in class for pronunciation accuracy. This activity has been found most useful as the teacher can identify individual weak points (in grammar, Vocabulary or reading strategies) and thus can help the learners to overcome them.

Concerted efforts are exerted to integrate the writing and reading skills. So in addition to answering content questions in writing, learners are expected to write commentaries on certain articles or novels. There, the teacher could try to extract useful materials from the reading assignments for use as samples of the various writing styles such as descriptions, comparisons, etc. Eventually, learners can move on from this mode of controlled writing to creative written expressions.

5-Approaches to Language Teaching

5-1. Grammar-Translation Approach

With this method, the student learns primarily by translating to and from the target language. Instructors encourage the learner to memorize grammar rules and vocabulary lists. There is little or no focus on speaking and listening. Teachers conduct classes in the student's native language with this ESL teaching method.

This method's two primary goals are to progress the learner's reading ability to understand literature in the second language and promote the learner's overall intellectual development. Grammar drills are a common approach

Although the grammar-translation approach was one of the most popular language teaching methods in the past, it has significant drawbacks that have caused it to fall out of favour in modern schools. Principally, students often have trouble conversing in the second language because they receive no instruction in oral skills.

Grammar translation method is the classic way of teaching language. It began as a method to teach Latin and Greek and was generalized to teach any second language. The Grammar-translation Approach uses the students' native language to teach the target language.

This is the scene of GTM: A teacher stands in front of the class, telling her students to turn their textbooks to chapter four, "Verbs and Tenses." She writes on the board the different ways of forming the past tense of verbs. She lists the general

rules, and this list is promptly followed by—you've guessed it—the exceptions to the rules, those special cases that make grammar so exciting

If you're over 30, have ever learned language via the textbook or have spent many nights memorizing a list of 30 foreign words, you've experienced the Grammar-translation Approach. Grammar and vocabulary are memorized rote. Plenty of written examples and drills are given where grammar rules are elegantly observed:

The dog is black.

The cats are cute.

The approach has strong structural underpinnings and the emphasis is on the correct use of grammar, regardless of the substance or context. The Grammar-translation Approach is best when the goal is for the students to read/write the target language, as well as appreciate its literature.

5- 2. Direct Approach

The direct method is a response to the Grammar-translation school and, this time, rather than the written form, the emphasis is on the spoken language and the development of oral skills.

In the direct method, all teaching occurs in the target language, encouraging the learner to think in that language. The learner does not practice translation or use their native language in the classroom. Practitioners of this method believe that learners should experience a second language without any interference from their native tongue.

Instructors do not stress rigid grammar rules but teach it indirectly through induction. Grammar isn't taught explicitly but is learned inductively by the students through repeated exposure to the spoken language. This means that learners figure out grammar rules on their own by practicing the language. Activities like pantomiming, word-picture association, question-answer patterns, dialogues and role playing give the students the chance to figure out the rules for themselves. And good news for your students—there are no grammar drills or analyses of written sentences. The goal for students is to develop connections between experience and language. They do this by concentrating on good pronunciation and the development of oral skills.

This method improves understanding, fluency, reading, and listening skills in our students. Standard techniques are question and answer, conversation, reading aloud, writing, and student self-correction for this language learning method.

Using the direct method, only the target language is used in class. That's a biggie. As teacher, you won't use the students' mother tongue to teach concepts. Listening and comprehension thus become central to this approach. There are no vocabulary lists to memorize, but there are a lot of words and phrases to listen for and become more familiar with.

The following is a list of the main principles underlying a direct method-oriented language teaching: The use of everyday vocabulary and structure.

- Grammar is taught through meaningful situations.

- Introduction of many new items in the same lesson so that the language sounds
- natural and normal conversation is encouraged.
- Oral teaching of grammar and vocabulary.
- Concrete meanings through object lessons and abstract ones through the association of ideas.
- Grammar illustrated through visual presentation.
- Extensive listening and imitation until forms become established.
- Most of the work done in class.

(Adapted from Mackey, 1965, pp. 149-50)

All things considered, it wouldn't be hard to understand why the Direct Approach has also been called as "The Anti-grammatical Method" and "Reform Method."

5-3 Audiolingual Approach

This approach is also known as "The Army Method." At the height of the events in World War II, military personnel needed to learn the languages of allies and enemies alike as they swept through the fields of Europe and Asia.

The approach, which blossomed in the 50s and 60s, is all about structural patterns. Proponents believe that a language can be reduced to a basic set of sounds. Combine them and you have spoken words. Those words, when phonetically joined, become phrases and later become sentences.

The audio-lingual approach encourages students to develop habits that support language learning. Students learn primarily through pattern drills, particularly dialogues, which the teacher uses to help students practice and memorize the language. These dialogues follow standard configurations of communication.

The Audiolingual Approach gives higher priority to the spoken form than the written form. Classes are generally held using the target language. Activities like role playing are dialogues are drilled into students until they get the pronunciations and rhythm right.

There are four types of dialogues utilized in this method:

- Repetition, in which the student repeats the teacher's statement exactly
- Inflection, where one of the words appears in a different form from the previous sentence (for example, a word may change from the singular to the plural)
- Replacement, which involves one word being replaced with another while the sentence construction remains the same
- Restatement, where the learner rephrases the teacher's statement

This technique's name comes from the order it uses to teach language skills. It starts with listening and speaking, followed by reading and writing, meaning that it emphasizes hearing and speaking the language before experiencing its written form. Because of this, teachers use only the target language in the classroom.

Many of the current online language learning apps and programs closely follow the audio-lingual language teaching approach. It is a nice option for language learning remotely and/or alone, even though it's an older ESL teaching method.

5-4. Communicative Language Teaching Approach

This method stresses interaction and communication to teach a second language effectively. Students participate in everyday situations they are likely to encounter in the target language. For example, learners may practice introductory conversations, offering suggestions, making invitations, complaining, or expressing time or location.

Instructors also incorporate learning topics outside of conventional grammar so that students develop the ability to respond in diverse situations. CLT teachers focus on being facilitators rather than straightforward instructors. Doing so helps students achieve CLT's primary goal, learning to communicate in the target language instead of emphasizing the mastery of grammar. Role-play, interviews, group work, and opinion sharing are popular activities practiced in communicative language teaching, along with games like scavenger hunts and information gap exercises that promote student interaction

5-5 The Silent Way

The silent way is an interesting ESL teaching method that isn't that common but it does have some solid footing. After all, the goal in most language classes is to make them as student-centred as possible.

In the Silent Way, the teacher talks as little as possible, with the idea that students learn best when discovering things on their own. Learners are encouraged to be independent and to discover and figure out language on their own. It's argued that students learn best when they discover rather than simply repeat what the teacher said.

The Silent Way uses silence as a teaching tool. Instead of talking, the teacher uses gestures and facial expressions to communicate, as well as props, including the famous Cuisenaire Rods. These are rods of different colours and lengths. In an English class for example, you can pick up any rod and say, "rod." Pick another one, point at it and say "rod." Keep on repeating until students understand that "rod" refers to the objects in front of them. Then pick a green one and say, "green rod." With an economy of words, point to something else green and say, "green." Keep on repeating until students get that "green" refers to the color

Although it's not practical to teach an entire course using the silent way, it does certainly have some value as a language teaching approach to remind teachers to talk less and get students talking more!

5-6 Community Language Learning

Community Language Learning (CLL) is a language teaching method which involves psychological aspect and students work together to develop what skill of a language they would like to learn. Not listening to the same lecture, but interacting in the target language. The teacher's role is that of a counselor, a guide, an encourager.

Brown (1994:59), in commenting on this approach notes that "In order for any learning to take place... what is first needed is for the members to interact in an interpersonal relationship in which students and teacher join together to facilitate learning in a context of valuing and prizing each individual in the group."

Community Language Learning seeks to encourage teachers to see their students as "whole" persons, where their feelings, intellect, interpersonal relationships, protective reactions, and desire to learn are addressed and balanced. Students typically sit in a circle, with the teacher (as counselor) outside the ring. They use their first language to develop an interpersonal relationship based on trust with the other students. When a student wants to say something, they first say it in their native language, which the teacher then translates back to them using the target language. The student then attempts to repeat the English used by the teacher, and then a student can respond using the same process. This technique is used over a considerable period of time, until students are able to apply words in the new language without translation, gradually moving from a situation of dependence on the teacher-counselor to a state of independence.

5-7 Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response is an approach to language teaching where gestures, actions and movements play a vital role in language acquisition. Remember when you were a kid and adults would tell you to do all kinds of things, like "catch the ball," "pick up your doll" or "open your mouth"? Well, TPR is going back to those good old days.

TPR believes that when your students see movement and when they themselves move, their brains create more neural connections that make for more efficient language acquisition.

That's why, when you teach TPR, you'll be flailing your hands a lot, widening your eyes and moving your body. This isn't so you can catch up on your exercise. This is to teach your students basic language skills.

After demonstrating several times what "jump" looks like, for example, you'd then ask students to perform the action themselves. Guess what, this won't only invigorate them, but will also make the word "jump" so memorable they'll find it very hard to forget.

With TPR, it's like having an ice-breaker all the time. Your class would be so fun that word will get around.

5-8 Suggestopedia Language Learning Method

Suggestopedia is a method of teaching a foreign language in which students learn quickly by being made to feel relaxed, interested and positive. The method is developed because of the argument that students naturally face psychological barriers to learning.

This approach and method in language teaching was developed in the 1970s by psychotherapist Georgi Lozanov. It is sometimes also known as the positive suggestion method but it later became sometimes known as desuggestopedia.

Apart from using physical surroundings and a good classroom atmosphere to make students feel comfortable, here are some of the main tenants of this second language teaching method:

- Deciphering, where the teacher introduces new grammar and vocabulary.
- Concert sessions, where the teacher reads a text and the students follow along with music in the background. This can be both active and passive.
- Elaboration where students finish what they've learned with dramas, songs, or games.
- Introduction in which the teacher introduces new things in a playful manner.
- Production, where students speak and interact without correction or interruption.

6-Attitudes, Motivation and Learning

It is evident that people learn differently and at different paces because of their biological and psychological differences. Success of a learning activity is, to some extent, contingent upon learners' attitude towards the learning activity and their desire to learn. In other words, language learning has an affective component. Jhonson (1998) claims that meeting and interiorizing the grammar of a foreign language is not simply an intelligent, cognitive act. It is a highly affective one too. Affective variables can impact the process of learning either positively or negatively Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) define affective variables as the: “ emotionally relevant characteristics of the individual that influence how she/he will respond to any situation.” (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993:128). So it is necessary to shed some light on learners' attitudes and motivation,

6-1 Attitude

The Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching (2002, p.297) defines language attitudes as follows: “the attitudes which speakers of different languages or language varieties have towards each other’s languages or to their own language. Expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language may reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty of learning, degree of importance, elegance, social status, etc. Attitudes towards a language may also show what people feel about the speakers of that language. Language attitudes may have an effect on second language or foreign language learning. The measurement of language attitudes provides information which is useful in language teaching and language learning.”

Wenden defines attitudes as: “learned motivations, valued beliefs, evaluations, what one believes is acceptable, or responses oriented towards approaching or avoiding.” (Wenden, 1998: 52). For her, two kinds of attitudes are crucial: attitudes learners hold about their role in the learning process and their capability as learners. In a sense, attitudes are a form of metacognitive knowledge. At any rate: “learner beliefs about their role and capability as learners will be shaped and maintained by other beliefs they hold about themselves as learners.” (ibid, 54). For example, if learners believe that certain personality types cannot learn a foreign language such as English and they believe that they are that type of person (I am not good at language learning), then they will think that they are fighting a "losing battle" . Furthermore, if learners think learning is successful only within the context of the

traditional classroom, where the teacher knows best, they must follow in the teacher's footsteps. Therefore, they are likely to be resistant to learner-centered strategies which seem for most of them as unsecure steps, though these strategies are aiming at autonomy. In this situation success is likely to be undermined.

According to Brown (2000), second language learners benefit from positive attitudes, while negative attitudes may lead to decreased motivation. Nevertheless, he believes that negative attitudes can be changed, often by exposure to reality for example, by encounters with actual persons from other cultures. Positive attitudes on the part of language learners can cause the development of an integrative motivation and this can consequently facilitate second language progress.

Baker (1988) described attitudes as follows:

1. 1. Attitudes are cognitive (i.e. are capable of being thought about) and affective (i.e. have feelings and emotions attached to them)
2. Attitudes are dimensional rather than bipolar – they vary in degree of favorability/un-favorability.
3. Attitudes predispose a person to act in a certain way, but the relationship between attitudes and actions is not a strong one.
4. Attitudes are learnt, not inherited or genetically endowed.
5. Attitudes tend to persist but they can be modified by experience (Ellis, 1994, p. 199). Brown's (2007) ideas about attitudes are not very different from those of Baker's (1988). He believes that attitudes “develop in early childhood and are the result of parent's and peers' attitudes, of contact with people who are different in any

number of ways, and of interacting different factors in the human experience” (p. 193).

6-2 Motivation

It seems clear that positive attitudes are conducive to increased motivation, while negative attitudes have the opposite effect. Thus, motivation also is a basic condition for autonomous learning; it is one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second or foreign language. According to Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), motivation is comprised of three components: desire to achieve a goal, effort extended in this direction, and satisfaction with the task. As a second condition, motivation plays a key role in the learners’ readiness for autonomous learning. The more motivation they have, the more effort they tend to put into learning the language. So, it is very important to motivate learners to learn a foreign language. A strong link between motivation and autonomy is perceived by Dickinson (1995) who concludes that: Enhanced motivation is a conditional on learners taking responsibility for their own learning, noticing that their successes or failures are related to their own efforts rather than to the factors out of their control. (Dickinson, 1995:14)

Motivation is defined in Oxford dictionary as “the reason that caused somebody do something in certain way” learners learn easily certain materials whereas they find difficulties in learning others, so students usually learn what they want to learn and find difficulties in learning subjects that don’t interest them. In foreign language learning motivation is considered as a complex phenomenon in the

sense that is crucial force in learning, motivation has been investigated by different scholars notably Gardner and Lambert 1972 who consider motivation as setting an aim and doing efforts to reach such aim, according to them there are two basic kinds of motivation: Instrumental and integrative

6-2-1-Integrative motivation

When the learner has a genuine interest in the foreign language community, he wants to learn the language to communicate effectively and gain a closer contact to the culture the foreign language represents.

Students who are most successful when learning a target language are those who like the people that speak the language, admire the culture and have a desire to become familiar with or even integrate into the society in which the language is used.

When someone becomes a resident in a new community that uses the target language in its social interaction, integrative motivation is a key component in helping the learner to develop some level of proficiency in the language. It is also believed that integrative motivation helps learners to acquire a wide range of registers and a native-like pronunciation.

6-2-2-Instrumental Motivation

Learners are interested in how a foreign language can be a useful instrument towards reaching goals such as better scores in exams and employment. Instrumental motivation is generally characterized by the desire to obtain something

practical or concrete from the study of a second language. With instrumental motivation the purpose of language acquisition is more utilitarian, such as meeting the requirements for school or university graduation, applying for a job, requesting higher payment based on language ability, reading technical material, translation work or achieving higher social status

Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggested that students who felt most warmly about a language and who wanted to integrate into the culture of its speakers are more highly motivated (and learnt more successfully) than those who were only learning language as a means to an end (e.g. getting a better job). In other words, Integrative motivation was more powerful than Instrumental motivation. But whatever kind of motivation students have, it is clear that highly motivated students do better than ones without any motivation at all.

Teachers need to understand student's motivational features. Teachers need to know whether their motivation is mostly instrumental or integrative, and what kind of aspects that teachers should pay more attention to. All this has to be done in order to know the learners better and satisfy their needs

Others classified Motivation into **intrinsic** and **extrinsic** motivation. Psychologists have proposed some different ways of thinking about motivation, including one method that involves looking at whether motivation arises from outside (extrinsic) or inside (intrinsic) the individual. What exactly do we mean when we say extrinsic or intrinsic motivation?

6-2-3 Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation occurs when we are motivated to perform a behavior or engage in an activity to earn a reward or avoid punishment.

Examples of behaviors that are the result of extrinsic motivation include:

- Studying because you want to get a good grade
- Cleaning your room to avoid being reprimanded by your parents
- Participating in a sport to win awards
- Competing in a contest to win a scholarship

In each of these examples, the behavior is motivated by a desire to gain a reward or avoid an adverse outcome.

6-2-4 Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation involves engaging in a behavior because it is personally rewarding; essentially, performing an activity for its own sake rather than the desire for some external reward.

Examples of actions that are the result of intrinsic motivation include:

- Participating in a sport because you find the activity enjoyable
- Solving a word puzzle because you find the challenge fun and exciting
- Playing a game because you find it exciting

In each of these instances, the person's behavior is motivated by an internal desire to participate in an activity for its own sake.

Dörnyei (1994) developed a completely different classification of motivation. Dörnyei divided motivation into three factors: learner-related factors, subject-related factors, and classroom-related factors.

-The learner-related factors are about a learner's anxiety and self-efficacy, "his/her self-perception of his/her accent in the second [or foreign] language and causal attributions" (p. 9).

-He labels integrativeness, extrinsic, and intrinsic motives as subject-related factors.

-And the classroom-related factors refer to learners' opinions about class objectives, teaching styles, feedback, student roles and learning strategies.

7- Motivation and Language Learning

Motivation has been identified as the learner's orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language. Brown identifies three types of motivation: global motivation (goal of learning L2), situational motivation (situation in which learning takes place) and task motivation (performing particular learning tasks).⁴ If students are motivated, they will achieve their goals easier and faster, and enjoy the experience of learning a second language. Although motivation is a vast and complex subject, simply being aware of the kind of motivation a student has, is of great benefit for that student's acquisition of a second language.

Many have been challenged to investigate this area of study and well-known authorities such as Gardner and Lambert have done research in the field of second language learning. Teachers invest quite a bit of time trying to meet the needs and wants of their students the best they can, thus channeling motivation in directions that are satisfying to the students. In other words, the methods that teachers use in their classes must be primarily aimed at satisfying what Mallow defined as their hierarchy of needs: psychological, safety, security, stability and acceptance. "If our students are not learning a language as we would like them to, the reason may well be traceable to unsatisfied lower levels of Mallow's hierarchy needs., this might be one of the first reasons why a lack of motivation appears. When our needs are not being satisfied, we are not motivated to continue.

Up to this point, needs and wants as guiding points are what we should try to understand as to why motivation is sometimes not present when learning a second language. If we have a need, we think of a desired goal. When students have an attractive goal in mind, especially a long-term one, they get an internal drive and become motivated. But what is their goal exactly? How do they reach it? How can instructors make learning attractive enough for the students to want to achieve their academic goals? One way is to detect the students' type of motivation. The motivated student is one that finds it easier to be open to a teaching-learning situation. However, motivation is perceived to be composed of three elements. These include effort, desire and affect. Effort refers to the time spent studying the language and the drive of the learner. Desire indicates how much the learner wants

to become proficient in the language, and affect illustrates the learner's emotional reaction with regard to language study (Gardner, 1982)

8- Age and Aptitudes in the Process of Learning

8-1 Age

Age is an important variable in learning a language, psychologists have shown that the earlier language learning begins the more easily and lastingly it is acquired. Experiments have shown that infants learn better new languages since both hemispheres of the mind are responsible for learning, whereas in puberty only the left hemisphere is responsible for learning. Second language acquisition is influenced by the age of the learner. Children, who already have solid literacy skills in their own language, seem to be in the best position to acquire a new language efficiently. Motivated, older learners can be very successful too, but usually struggle to achieve native-speaker-equivalent pronunciation and intonation.

8-2 Aptitude

Aptitude is a permanent ability of learning a language, learners are not equal in their capacities of learning, we expect some learners to be better than others, aptitude is defined in oxford dictionary as a natural ability or a skill, so some learners are not good in language learning but good in other subjects and vice versa. With such weak aptitude those learners can never improve their level of proficiency in it whatever they do. Besides attitude, motivation, age, and aptitude, learner's personality also plays a role in the process of language learning. Introverted and

extroverted learners learn differently. Introverted or anxious learners usually make slower progress, particularly in the development of oral skills. They are less likely to take advantage of opportunities to speak, or to seek out such opportunities. More outgoing students (extroverted) will not worry about the inevitability of making mistakes. They will take risks, and thus will give themselves much more practice.

Conclusion

Learning a language is not only cognitive but psychological as well, psycholinguistics deals with the process of language teaching and learning from a psychological angle, its central concern is the learner, his age, aptitude, motivation, personality, and attitude. The language teacher has to take into consideration all the above mentioned factors in addition to others such as shyness, anxiety, and psychological handicaps. For successful language learning learners must have an ability and a desire to learn otherwise the objectives we set are doomed to failure.

9- Approaches to Motivation

Motivation is defined as: An internal state that arouses directs and maintains behavior Theories of motivation are:

9-1 Behavioral Approach to Motivation:

Behaviorists explain motivation with concepts such as reward and incentive. A reward is an attractive object or event supplied as a consequence of a particular behavior. An incentive is an object or event that encourages or discourages behavior.

9-2 Humanistic Approaches to Motivation

Humanistic approaches of motivation stress on the intrinsic sources of motivation as a person needs for self-actualization. From the humanistic perspective to motivate students means to encourage their inner resources.

Humanistic theory of motivation is primarily based on a sense that humans have strong cognitive reasons to carry out various actions. This approach to Motivation is a type of motivational theory that addresses the meaning of behavior, and the nature of healthy human development. Abraham Maslow, an American Psychologist, wanted to know what motivated humans. He suggested that humans were driven to fulfill certain needs. When a single need is fulfilled humans seek to satisfy the next need, and so forth (Maslow, 1943). He developed a five stage model that encompassed basic, physiological, safety, love, and esteem and self-actualization needs. This theory intrigues humans as the human element (depending upon the individual) seems never to have the needs of all levels fulfilled at once.

9-3 -Cognitive Approaches to Motivation

Cognitive theories believe that behavior determined by our thinking not simply by weather we have been rewarded or punished for the behavior in the past.

9-4-Social Learning Approaches to Motivation

Theories of motivation are integrations of behavioral and cognitive approaches. They take into account both of the behaviorists and cognativists. Social learning motivation can be characterized as expectancy value theory.

9-5- Psychoanalytic Theory of Motivation

Psychoanalytic theory of human behavior is perhaps the most comprehensive one devised and its core is a complicated theory of motivation

9- 6- Reinforcement Theory of Motivation

Reinforcement theory suggests that people's behavior is directly related to the consequence of their action. According to this law, people are likely to repeat behavior that results in enjoyable or positive consequences. But if the consequences are unpleasant, the person is likely to act differently the next time. There are three forms of reinforcement.

1. Positive
2. Avoidance
3. Punishment

10- Teachers and Teaching

10-1 Definition of Teaching

Broadly speaking, teaching is the process of attending to people's needs, experiences and feelings, and intervening so that they learn particular things, and go beyond the given. Interventions commonly take the form of questioning, listening, giving information, explaining some phenomenon, demonstrating a skill or process, testing understanding and capacity, and facilitating learning activities (such as note taking, discussion, assignment writing, simulations and practice).

Interestingly, the question, ‘What is teaching?’ hasn’t been a hotbed of activity in recent years in the UK and USA. However, as Hirst (1975) concluded, ‘being clear about what teaching is matters vitally because how teachers understand teaching very much affects what they actually do in the classroom’. Hirst (1975) makes two very important points. For him teaching should involve:

- Setting out with the intention of someone learning something.
- Considering people’s feelings, experiences and needs. Teaching is only teaching if people can take on what is taught.

To this we can add Bruner’s insights around the nature of education, and the process of learning and problem solving.

To instruct someone... is not a matter of getting him to commit results to mind. Rather, it is to teach him to participate in the process that makes possible the establishment of knowledge. We teach a subject not to produce little living libraries on that subject, but rather to get a student to think mathematically for himself, to consider matters as a historian does, to take part in the process of knowledge-getting. Knowing is a process not a product. (1966: 72)

Indeed, teaching involves creating an environment and engaging with others, so that they learn particular things.

10-2 Teaching, Learning, Acquisition

The term learning is a psychological concept. The process by which changes occurring in behaviour, knowledge, skills, etc over a period of time, come about through practice, instruction or experience and the result of such a process.

- Learning goes far beyond learning from a teacher or learning through study or practice. It involves the learning of skills, the acquisition of knowledge, learning to learn, learning to think, modification of attitudes, the acquisition of interests, social values, social roles, and even changes in personality.

- Teaching refers to the activities intended to bring about learning.

- teaching does not equal learning:

Learning and teaching are totally different activities ($T \neq L$). If one is taking place, this is by no means to say that the other is happening too. Learning is connected to the learner himself as it requires attention and effort to get understanding. A teacher can exert much effort without achieving the outcome of learning, while much learning can happen without anything being done on the part of the teacher.

10-2-1 Language Teaching

The activity of language teaching is meant to bring about the product of language learning. Language teaching is more generally interpreted than 'instructing a language class'. It includes the following elements:

- Formal instruction and methods of training

- Individualized instruction (teaching individuals) – Self-study – Computer assisted instruction
- The use of media (radio, television...)
- Supporting activities (preparation of teaching materials, teaching grammars (books), or dictionaries
- Training of teachers
- Making administrative provisions in the educational system.
- Informal methods of deschooling (out of class teaching in real contexts)

10-2-2 The Subject Matter of Language Teaching

Two essential elements constitute the core of language teaching: language systems and language skills. Specialists add other components, such as learning better ways of learning, exam techniques, working with people and learning about other people.

10-2-2-1 Language Systems

Language systems are the various levels of analysis and description of language.

These include:

- Sounds (phonology)
- Word meaning (lexis or vocabulary),
- How words form phrases and sentences (grammar),
- How to use words and structures in particular situation,

- How the sentences relate to each other coherently in larger chunks such as conversation (discourse),

Consider how a teacher may use the sentence ‘Pass me the book’ in different ways by focusing on different systems:

Phonological	/pɑ:s mi: ðə 'bʊk/ or /pæs mi: ðə 'bʊk/ The stress is probably on <i>book</i> , but also possible (with different meanings) on <i>Pass</i> or <i>me</i> . The words <i>me</i> and <i>the</i> probably have a weak vowel sound.
Lexical	<i>Pass</i> = <i>give; hand over; present</i> <i>me</i> = reference to speaker <i>the book</i> = object made of paper, containing words and/or pictures and conveying information
Grammatical	Verb (imperative) + first person object pronoun + definite article + noun
Functional	A request or order
Discoursal	Assuming that the reply <i>Mary's gone home</i> is intended as a genuine reply to the request, it may suggest a reason why the book cannot be passed (e.g. I can't because Mary took the book with her). In order to fully understand the meaning, we would need to know more about the situational context (i.e. who is talking, where, etc.) and more about the surrounding conversation (i.e. what knowledge is assumed to be known or shared between the speakers).

Language systems are various ways of looking at the same thing. A teacher has to decide on which system(s) to give learners information about. One lesson may be devoted to one system or may contain parts about combined systems (e.g.: grammar + pronunciation + lexis).

10-2-2-2 Language Skills

As well as working with the language systems (which we can think of as what we know, i.e. 'up-in-the-head' knowledge), we also need to pay attention to what we do with language. These are the language skills. Teachers normally think of there being four important macro language skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing. Listening and reading are called 'receptive skills' (the reader or listener receives information but does not produce it); speaking and writing, on the other hand, are the 'productive skills'. Skills are commonly used interactively and in combination rather than in isolation, especially speaking and listening. It's arguable that other things (e.g. 'thinking', 'using memory' and 'mediating') are also language skills.

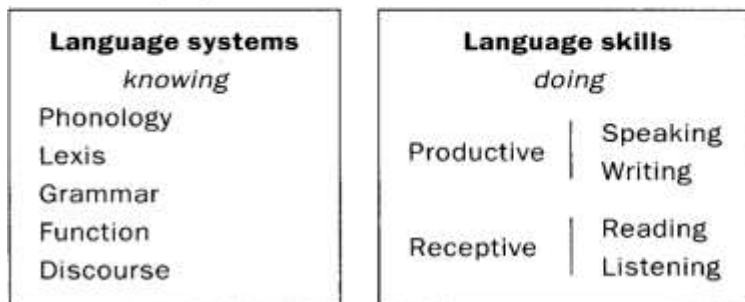


Figure 2.2 Language systems and skills

The main four skills are referred to as 'macro' because any one of them could be analysed down to smaller micro skills by defining more precisely what exactly is being done, how it is being done, the genre of material, etc.

Example

Macro skill	Listening
Some micro skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding the gist of what is heard, e.g. Who is talking? Where are they? What are they doing? What is their relationship? How do they feel? • Understanding precise information re. quantity, reference numbers, prices, etc. when listening to a business telephone call where a client wants to place an order. • Compensating for words and phrases not heard clearly in an informal pub conversation by hypothesising what they are, based on understanding of the content of the rest of a conversation and predictions of likely content.

10-2-3 Other Areas that are Part of Language Teaching

- Students may be learning new ways of learning: for example, specific study skills and techniques.
- They will also be learning about the other people in their class, and exploring ways of interacting and working with them.
- They may be learning about themselves and how they work, learn, get on with other people, cope with stress, etc.
- They may be learning a lot about the culture of the countries whose language they are studying.
- They may be learning how to achieve some specific goal, for example passing an exam, making a business presentation at an upcoming conference, etc.
- They may also be learning about almost anything else. The subject matter of ELT can encompass all topics and purposes that we use language to deal with.

10-2-4 Acronyms of Language Teaching

- TEFL: an acronym for Teaching English as a Foreign Language, used to describe the teaching of English in situations where it is a FOREIGN LANGUAGE.

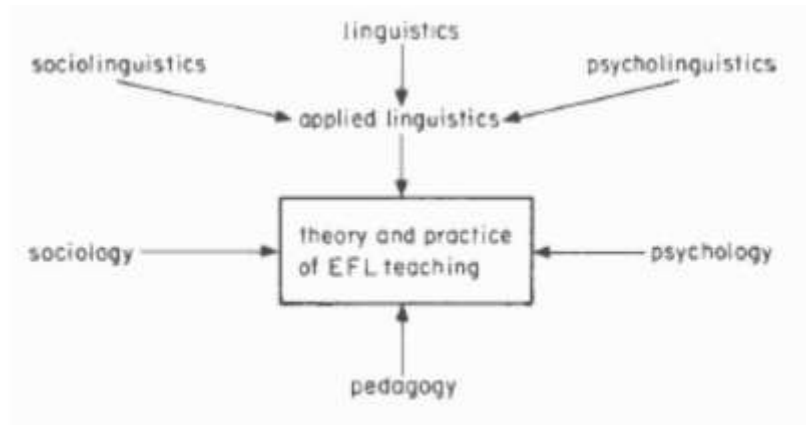
- TESL: an acronym for Teaching English as a Second Language, used either to describe the teaching of English in situations where it is a SECOND LANGUAGE or to refer to any situation where English is taught to speakers of other languages.

- TESOL: an acronym for Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, used to describe the teaching of English in situations where it is either a SECOND LANGUAGE or a FOREIGN LANGUAGE. In British usage this is also referred to as ELT, i.e. English Language Teaching.

10-2-5 Contributing Areas to Language Teaching

There are certain basic principles common to all good language teaching, principles derived from the interaction of aspects of those fields of study which

contribute to the theory and practice of EFL teaching. The contributory areas of knowledge may be represented in the following Figure



- **Linguistics**, the study of language as a system.⁷⁴

- **Sociology** establishes the place and role of language in the sociology of human behaviour, group interaction, the status of the teacher and the school in the local culture, the social role of education as a whole.

- **Psychology** investigates among other things how language is learned, facts about memory span, motivation, cognitive development.

- **Pedagogy** is concerned with the ways in which formal teaching and learning in institutional settings such as schools is planned and delivered (class management, questioning techniques, lesson planning and teaching strategies and the numerous daily tricks of the trade that separate the professional teacher from the amateur.

10-2-6 First Language, Second Language or Foreign Language.

A first language is (generally) a person's mother tongue or the language acquired first. In multilingual communities, however, where a child may gradually

shift from the main use of one language to the main use of another (e.g. because of the influence of a school language), first language may refer to the language the child feels most comfortable using. Often this term is used synonymously with native language. First language is also known as L1.

10-3 Acquisition and Learning

If, as we have said, children acquire language subconsciously, what does this tell us about how students should get a second language? Can we (indeed, should we) attempt to replicate the child's experience in the language classroom?

Some theorists, notably the American applied linguist Stephen Krashen in the 1980s, have suggested that we can make a distinction between acquisition and learning. Whereas the former is subconscious and anxiety free, learning is a conscious process where separate items from the language are studied and practised in turn. Krashen, among others, suggested that teachers should concentrate on acquisition rather than learning and that the role of the language teacher should be to provide the right kind of language exposure, namely comprehensible input (that is, language that the students understand more or less, even if it is a bit above their own level of production). Provided that students experience such language in an anxiety-free atmosphere, the argument goes, they will acquire it just as children do, and, more importantly, when they want to say something, they will be able to retrieve the language they need from their acquired-language store. Language which has been learnt, on the other hand, is not available for use in the same way, according to this argument, because the learner has to think much more consciously

about what they want to say. The principal function of learnt language is to monitor what is coming from our acquired store to check that it is OK. As a result, learnt language tends to 'get in the way' of acquired-language production and may inhibit spontaneous communication.

This apparently convoluted discussion becomes relevant when we consider what we should do with students in class. If we believe that acquisition is superior to learning, we will spend all our time providing comprehensible input. What we will not do is to ask the students to focus on how the language works. Yet there are problems with this approach. In the first place, the ability to acquire language easily tends to deteriorate with age. Secondly, teenagers and adults have perfectly good reasoning powers and may want to think consciously about how language works. To suggest that they should not think about language if they want to (that is, learn it consciously), would seem absurd. And we should remember that for many language learners, one of the biggest differences between them and children acquiring their first language is the amount of exposure they get (in terms of hours), and the situation in which this language is used. Learners in foreign language classrooms are in a very different situation from that of children of loving parents.

Perhaps, mere exposure to comprehensible input is not enough, therefore, for older children and adults. Perhaps, as some claim, they should have their attention drawn to aspects of language so that they can notice these aspects; as a result they will recognize them when they come across them again, and this recognition will be the first stage in their 'knowing' of the language which, once known in this way, will be available for them to use.

We can go further and say that a rich classroom environment would not only expose students to language (of course), but also give them opportunities to activate their language knowledge. Furthermore, we should offer them chances to study language and the way it works too, since for some learners this will be the key to their success, and for all others (apart from young children) it will be an added bonus to the other activities which we take into the classroom. In other words, both acquisition and learning have their part to play in language getting for students after childhood.

10-4 Characteristics of a Good Teacher

How to be a good teacher: In order to answer this question, we have asked a variety of people, students and teachers and the answers were:

- He makes his lessons interesting
- He Loves his job
- He shows his personality, to show that he is not only a teacher but a person as well. (Students tend to be interesting in their teachers. The ones who share their personalities often have better results)
- Has a lot of knowledge, not only his subject
- He is an entertainer in a positive way, balance between entertainments and teaching/learning

(Most people who answered were more interested in the teachers-learner relationship rather than the teachers themselves)

- Someone who you can talk to when you have problems

- Has an affinity with the students (a spontaneous or natural liking or sympathy)
- Should draw out the quiet ones and control the more talkative ones.
- Be able to correct people without offending them
- Someone who helps rather than shouts
- Someone who knows our names

11- Teaching Grammar and Vocabulary

Grammar and vocabulary are central to the teaching and learning of languages. They are also the more difficult aspects of language to teach well. Thus, its teaching procedures could be interesting enough. It is universally acknowledged that the more words a learner learns, the more expertise he will be, the more he will be able to use the language in diverse contexts. Thus, the teaching of grammar and vocabulary cannot be overlooked. But the style of teaching must be given foremost importance as most of the learner fail to learn grammar and vocabulary only because of monotonous and tedious resource less teaching styles;

As it is acknowledged that each language has its own uniqueness and creativity, the teaching style must be designed in such a way that it gives a resourceful pedagogic format providing a learner-friendly environment for adaptation, practice and revision. Grammar and vocabulary must be regarded not as fundamentals of speaking a language or writing it with accuracy but as the helpful tools that can be easily recall expressing views in spoken and written forms as well as for proficiency in reading and listening as well.

Vocab and grammar instruction must be purposeful and meaningful to students (within context) for them to retain the lesson. Adding fun to these grammar activities and lessons increases student engagement and retention.

11-1 Teaching Grammar

Grammar is the structural foundation of our ability to express ourselves. The more we are aware of how it works, the more we can monitor the meaning and effectiveness of the way we and others use language.

Language user's subconscious internal system. Linguists' attempt to codify or describe that system

- Sounds of language
- Structure and form of words
- Arrangement of words into larger units
- Meanings of language
- Functions of language & its use in context
- Phonology
- Morphology
- Syntax
- Semantics
- Pragmatics

Grammar is the system of a language. People sometimes describe grammar as the "rules" of a language; but in fact no language has rules. If we use the word "rules", we suggest that somebody created the rules first and then spoke the language, like a new game. But languages did not start like that. Languages started by people making sounds which evolved into words, phrases and sentences. No

commonly-spoken language is fixed. All languages change over time. What we call "grammar" is simply a reflection of a language at a particular time.

11-2 The Approaches for Teaching Grammar

There are actually two widely used approaches in teaching grammar namely deductive and inductive approaches;

11-2-1 Deductive approach

Deductive is known as a 'top down' approach. This is the standard teaching approach that has a teacher explaining rules to the students. The teacher explains the target structure then moves on to practice. As Harmer said, it is 'explain-practice procedure'. It follows the consequence of ESA (engage, study, activate) or what is known among us as PPP.

This approach is a teacher-centred and it is more effective to apply when teaching beginners who are new to the language targeted. The students are passive recipient whereas the teacher elicits the rules on the board.

✓ Advantages of a deductive approach:

- It gets straight to the point, and can therefore be time-saving. Many rules — especially rules of form — can be more simply and quickly explained than elicited from examples. This will allow more time for practice and application.

- It respects the intelligence and maturity of many - especially adult - students, and acknowledges the role of cognitive processes in language acquisition.

- It confirms many students' expectations about classroom learning, particularly for those learners who have an analytical learning style.

- It allows the teacher to deal with language points as they come up, rather than having to anticipate them and prepare for them in advance.

✓ **Disadvantages of a deductive approach:**

- Starting the lesson with a grammar presentation may be off-putting for some students, especially younger ones. They may not have sufficient metalanguage (i.e. language used to talk about language such as grammar terminology). Or they may not be able to understand the concepts involved.

- Grammar explanation encourages a teacher-fronted, transmission-style classroom; teacher explanation is often at the expense of student involvement and interaction.

- Explanation is seldom as memorable as other forms of presentation, such as demonstration.

- Such an approach encourages the belief that learning a language is simply a case of knowing the rules.

11-2-2 Inductive Approach

Inductive is known as a 'bottom up' approach. In other words, students discovering grammar rules while working through exercises.

Students are given for example a text and are required to work out the structure or the rule. It is 'practice-explain procedure'. It follows the consequence of EAS (engage, activate, study). It is a learner-centred and more effective with learners who have already seen the language. Learners are active as they are responsible for exploring the rules themselves with just the help of the teacher.

✓ **The Advantages of an Inductive Approach**

- Rules learners discover for themselves are more likely to fit their existing mental structures than rules they have been presented with. This in turn will make the rules more meaningful, memorable, and serviceable.
- The mental effort involved ensures a greater degree of cognitive depth which, again, ensures greater memorability.
- Students are more actively involved in the learning process, rather than being simply passive recipients: they are therefore likely to be more attentive and more motivated.
- It is an approach which favours pattern-recognition and problem-solving abilities which suggests that it is particularly suitable for learners who like this kind of challenge.
- If the problem-solving is done collaboratively, and in the target language, learners get the opportunity for extra language practice.
- Working things out for themselves prepares students for greater self-reliance and is therefore conducive to learner autonomy.

✓ **The disadvantages of an Inductive Approach**

- The time and energy spent in working out rules may mislead students into believing that rules are the objective of language learning, rather than a means.
- The time taken to work out a rule may be at the expense of time spent in putting the rule to some sort of productive practice.
- Students may hypothesise the wrong rule, or their version of the rule may be either too broad or too narrow in its application: this is especially a danger where there is no overt testing of their hypotheses, either through practice examples, or by eliciting an explicit statement of the rule.
- It can place heavy demands on teachers in planning a lesson. They need to select and organise the data carefully so as to guide learners to an accurate formulation of the rule, while also ensuring the data is intelligible.
- However carefully organised the data is, many language areas such as aspect and modality resist easy rule formulation.
- An inductive approach frustrates students who, by dint of their personal learning style or their past learning experience (or both), would prefer simply to be told the rule.

11-3 Goals and Techniques for Teaching Grammar

The goal of grammar instruction is to enable students to carry out their communication purposes. This goal has three implications

1. Students need overt instruction that connects grammar points with larger communication contexts.
2. Students do not need to master every aspect of each grammar point, only those that are relevant to the immediate communication task.
3. Error correction is not always the instructor's first responsibility.

11-4 Overt Grammar Instruction

- Limit the time you devote to grammar explanations to 10 minutes, especially for lower level students whose ability to sustain attention can be limited.
- Present grammar points in written and oral ways to address the needs of students with different learning styles.
- Be sure the examples are accurate and appropriate. They must present the language appropriately, be culturally appropriate for the setting in which they are used, and be to the point of the lesson.
- Use the examples as teaching tools. Focus examples on a particular theme or topic so that students have more contact with specific information and vocabulary.

11-5 Teaching Vocabulary

11-5-1 Why we Should Teach Vocabulary

Vocabulary of a language is just like bricks of a high building. Despite quite small pieces, they are vital to the great structure. Good vocabulary range increasing reading comprehension, ability in technical subjects and written ability.

11-5 -2 Teaching Tips:

- **Step One**: presenting new words
- **Step Two**: helping students remember new words
- **Step Three**: making sure students make the new words their own

11-5-3 Kind of Activities to Teach Vocabulary

1- Sparkle

- Before we do this activity have all members of the class stand up
- Choose a spelling word and have each student say one letter to spell out the word.
- After the last letter has been said the next student say sparkle and the next student in line is out of the game
- For example: Word = Cat, Student 1 - 'C', Student 2 - 'A', Student 3 'T', Student 4 - ' Sparkle', Student 5 is out!

2- Spelling Bulls-eye

- Divide the class into 2 groups
- Each member of the group try to spell the target word one by one
- The winner is the group which can spell the word correctly and fast.
- The winner use a soft ball (or scrunched up paper) and throw it a bulls-eye (circular target) and make points for their team

3- Word Ladder

- Write the target words on large cards and place them on the floor in a line to make the ladder.
- Divide the students into 2 groups and ask them to stand up at the opposite of the ladder
- One student from each team start (at the same time), before they can go forward one step on the ladder they must tell us the meaning of the word
- If they get it right the step forward
- Do it until each member of the group meet in the middle of the ladder
- Do rock, scissor, paper to decide who can stay on the ladder
- The winner continues, the loser has to go to the back of their teams line, and a new team member starts from the beginning of the ladder.
- First team to the end of the ladder get a point.

4- Guess the Word

- Let the students sit in their chairs.

- Give each one a list of words, student A gives a definition or sentence but does not say the target word.
- Student B has to guess what the word is

5- Vocabulary Puzzle

- Write some words on a large cards and put it random
- Teacher give the definition of one word
- Students should find a word with the definition that the teacher already given

12- Error Correction

When students are involved in a speaking activity such as a role-play or conversation, instant and intrusive correction is often not appropriate since it can interfere with the flow of the activity and inhibit students just at the moment when they should be trying hardest to activate their language knowledge. But during study sessions, we will probably use correction more as it helps to clarify the language in the students' minds.

Because correction involves pointing out people's mistakes, we have to tread carefully. If we do it in an insensitive way, we can upset our students and dent their confidence. Moreover, what is appropriate for one student may be quite wrong for another

In general, the teacher's job is to point out when something has gone wrong - and see if the students can correct themselves. Maybe what they said or wrote was just a slip and they are able to put it right straightaway.

Sometimes, however, students can't put mistakes right on their own (because they fall into the categories of errors or attempts), so we have to help them. We can do this by asking if one of their peers (fellow students) can help out, or by explaining the problem ourselves.

If we get other students in the class to help out, we have to make sure that the student who made the mistake in the first place isn't going to be humiliated by this ('How come they all know the answer? I must be stupid!'). Sometimes, students prefer correction directly from the teacher. On the other hand, in the right kind of atmosphere students enjoy helping each other - and being helped in return.

The following example shows students being corrected during a practice phase in which they are making sentences using the comparative form of adjectives (comparing trains and planes).

MONICA: Trains are safer planes.

teacher: Safer planes? (with surprised questioning intonation)

MONICA: Oh ... Trains are safer than planes.

teacher: Good, Monica. Now, 'comfortable' ... Sim on?

Simon : Trains more comfortable. Planes are.

teacher: Hmm. Can you help Sim on, Bruno?

Bruno: E r ... Trains are more comfortable than planes.

teacher: Thank you. Sim on?

simon : Trains are more comfortable than planes.

teacher: That's right, Sim on. Great. What about 'fast', Matilde?

matilde: Trains faster planes.

teacher: Trains are faster?

matilde: Trains faster planes? I don't know.

teacher: OK. Look. Trains go at a hundred miles an hour, planes go at 500 miles an hour, so planes are faster than trains. Yes?

matilde: Planes are faster than trains.

teacher: Well done, Matilde.

With Monica, all the teacher had to do was point out that something was wrong (by echoing what she said with a questioning intonation) and she immediately corrected herself. Simon was not able to do this, however, so the teacher got Bruno to help him. When Matilde made a mistake, however (and was not able to correct herself), the teacher judged that she would be unhappy to have correction from her peers so she helped her out herself.

When organising practice, then, teachers need to listen out for mistakes, identify the problem and put it right in the most efficient and tactful way.

Before leaving the subject of errors, it is worth remembering that correction is just one response that teachers can make to student language production. It is just as important - perhaps more so - to praise students for their success, as it is to correct them as they struggle towards accuracy. Teachers can show through the use of expression, encouraging words and noises ('good', 'well done', 'fantastic', 'm mm', etc) that students are doing really well. But praise should not be overused because when it is, it becomes devalued, and therefore meaningless. Praise is only effective if students know what they are being praised for - and when they themselves believe it is merited.

13-Classroom Management

If we want to manage classrooms effectively, we have to be able to handle a range of variables. These include how the classroom space is organised, whether the students are working on their own or in groups and how we organise classroom time. We also need to consider how we appear to the students, and how we use our most valuable asset - our voice. The way we talk to students - and who talks most in the lesson - is another key factor in classroom management. We also need to think about what role, if any, there may be for the use of the students' mother tongue in lessons. Successful classroom management also involves being able to deal with difficult situations

Class management is a fundamental skill. In a book written by *Sally Brown & Donald McIntyre "Making Sense of Teaching"* Teachers answered why they are

good teachers and how they do their job we found that the common feature among them was:

13-1 The Teacher in the Classroom

The teachers' physical presence can play a large part in our management of the classroom environment. The way we move and stand, and the degree to which we are physically demonstrative can have a clear effect on the management of the class. Most importantly, the way we are able to respond to what happens in class, the degree to which we are aware of what is going on, often marks the difference between successful teaching and less satisfactory lessons.

All teachers, like all people, have their own physical characteristics and habits, and they will take these into the classroom with them. But there are a number of issues to consider which are not just matters of personality or style and which have a direct bearing on the students' perception of us.

✓ Proximity

Teachers need to consider how close they should be to the students they are working with. Some students are uncomfortable if their teacher stands or sits close to them. For some, on the other hand, distance is a sign of coldness. Teachers should be conscious of how close they are to their students, should take this into account when assessing their students' reactions and should, if necessary, modify their behaviour.

✓ Appropriacy

Deciding how close to the students you should be when you work with them is a matter of appropriacy. So is the general way in which teachers sit or stand in classrooms. Many teachers create an extremely friendly atmosphere by crouching down when they work with students in pairs. In this way, they are at the same level as their seated students. However, some students find this informality worrying. Some teachers are even happy to sit on the floor, and in certain situations this may be appropriate. But in others it may well lead to a situation where students are put off concentrating.

All the positions teachers take - sitting on the edge of tables, standing behind a lectern, standing on a raised dais, etc - make strong statements about the kind of person the teacher is. It is important, therefore, to consider what kind of effect such physical behaviour has so that we can behave in a way which is appropriate to the students we are teaching and the relationship we wish to create with them. If we want to manage a class effectively, such a relationship is crucial.

✓ **Movement**

Some teachers tend to spend most of their class time in one place - at the front of the class, for example, or to the side, or in the middle. Others spend a great deal of time walking from side to side, or striding up and down the aisles between the chairs. Although this, again, is to some extent a matter of personal preference, it is worth remembering that motionless teachers can bore students, while teachers who are constantly in motion can turn their students into tennis spectators, their heads moving from side to side until they become exhausted.

Most successful teachers move around the classroom to some extent. That way they can retain their students' interest (if they are leading an activity) or work more closely with smaller groups (when they go to help a pair or group).

How much we move around in the classroom will depend on our personal style, where we feel most comfortable for the management of the class and whether or not we want to work with smaller groups.

✓ **Awareness**

In order to manage a class successfully, the teacher has to be aware of what students are doing and, where possible, how they are feeling. This means watching and listening just as carefully as teaching. This will be difficult if we keep too much distance or if we are perceived by the students to be cold and aloof because then we will find it difficult to establish the kind of rapport we mentioned earlier.

Awareness means assessing what students have said and responding appropriately. According to the writer Michael Lewis, a colleague of his, Peter Wilberg, put this perfectly when he said that 'the teacher's primary responsibility is response-ability'! This means being able to perceive the success or failure of what is taking place in the classroom, and being flexible enough to respond to what is going on. We need to be as conscious as possible of what is going on in the students' heads.

It is almost impossible to help students to learn a language in a classroom setting without making contact with them in this way. The exact nature of this contact will vary from teacher to teacher and from class to class.

Finally, it is not just awareness of the students that is important. We also need to be self-aware, in order to try to gauge the success (or otherwise) of our behaviour and to gain an understanding of how our students see us.

The teacher's physical approach and personality in the class is one aspect of class management to consider. Another is one of the teacher's chief tools: the voice.

13-2 Using the voice

Perhaps our most important instrument as teachers is our voice. How we speak and what our voice sounds like have a crucial impact on classes. When considering the use of the voice in the management of teaching, there are three issues to think about.

✓ Audibility

Clearly, teachers need to be audible. They must be sure that the students at the back of the class can hear them just as well as those at the front. But audibility cannot be divorced from voice quality: a rasping shout is always unpleasant. Teachers do not have to shout to be audible. Good voice projection is more important than volume (though the two are, of course, connected). Speaking too softly or unpleasantly loudly are both irritating and unhelpful for students.

✓ Variety

It is important for teachers to vary the quality of their voices - and the volume they speak at - according to the type of lesson and the type of activity. The kind of voice we use to give instructions or introduce a new activity will be different from the voice which is most appropriate for conversation or an informal exchange of views or information

In one particular situation, teachers often use very loud voices, and that is when they want students to be quiet or stop doing something (see the next section). But it is worth pointing out that speaking quietly is often just as effective a way of getting the students' attention since, when they realise that you are talking, they will want to stop and listen in case you are saying something important or interesting. However, for teachers who almost never raise their voices, the occasional shouted interjection may have an extremely dramatic effect, and this can sometimes be beneficial.

✓ **Conservation**

Just like opera singers, teachers have to take great care of their voices. It is important that they breathe correctly so that they don't strain their larynxes. Breathing properly means being relaxed (in the shoulders, for example, and not slumped backwards or forwards), and using the lower abdomen to help expand the rib cage, thus filling the lungs with air. It is important too that teachers vary their voices throughout the day, avoiding shouting wherever possible, so that they can conserve their vocal energy. Conserving the voice is one of the things teachers will want to take into account when planning a day's or a week's work.

13-3 Talking to Students

The way that teachers talk to students - the manner in which they interact with them - is one of the crucial teacher skills, but it does not demand technical expertise. It does, however, require teachers to empathise with the people they are talking to by establishing a good rapport with them.

One group of people who seem to find it fairly natural to adapt their language to their audience are parents when they talk to their young children. Studies show that they use more exaggerated tones of voice and speak with less complex grammatical structures than they would if they were talking to adults. Their vocabulary is generally more restricted, they make more frequent attempts to establish eye contact and they use other forms of physical contact. They generally do these things unconsciously.

Though the teacher-student relationship is not the same as that between a parent and child, this subconscious ability to rough-tune the language is a skill that teachers and parents have in common. Rough-tuning is the simplification of language which both parents and teachers make in order to increase the chances of their being understood. Neither group sets out to get the level of language exactly correct for their audience. They rely, instead, on a general perception of what is being understood and what is not. Because they are constantly aware of the effect that their words are having, they are able to adjust their language use - in terms of grammatical complexity, vocabulary use and voice tone - when their listener shows signs of incomprehension.

In order to rough-tune their language, teachers need to be aware of three things. Firstly, they should consider the kind of language that students are likely to understand. Secondly, they need to think about what they wish to say to the students and how best to do it. And thirdly, they need to consider the manner in which they will speak (in terms of intonation, tone of voice, etc). But these considerations need not be detailed. To be successful at roughtuning, all we have to do is speak at a level which is more or less appropriate.

Experienced teachers rough-tune the way they speak to students as a matter of course. Newer teachers need to pay attention to their students' comprehension and use it as the yardstick by which to measure their own speaking style in the classroom.

Apart from adapting their language, teachers also use physical movements and gestures (these are often quite exaggerated), such as shrugging the shoulders for 'who cares?' or scratching the head to show puzzlement. Many teachers also use gestures to demonstrate things like the past tense (pointing back over their shoulders). They use facial expressions to show emotions such as happiness and sadness, and mime to demonstrate actions such as opening a book or filling a glass and drinking. Gesture, expression and mime should become a natural adjunct to the language we use, especially with students at lower levels.

13-4 Giving Instructions

This issue of how to talk to students becomes crucial when we give them instructions. The best activity in the world is a waste of time if the students don't understand what it is they are supposed to do.

There are two general rules for giving instructions: they must be kept as simple as possible, and they must be logical. Before giving instructions, therefore, teachers must ask themselves the following questions: What is the important information I am trying to convey? What must the students know if they are to complete this activity successfully?

What information do they need first? Which should come next?

When teachers give instructions, it is important for them to check that the students have understood what they are being asked to do. This can be achieved either by asking a student to explain the activity after the teacher has given the instruction or by getting someone to show the other people in the class how the exercise works. Where students all share the same mother tongue (which the teacher also understands), a member of the class can be asked to translate the instructions into their mother tongue as a check that they have understood them.

13-5 Student Talk and Teacher Talk

There is a continuing debate about the amount of time teachers should spend talking in class. Classes are sometimes criticised because there is too much TTT (Teacher Talking Time) and not enough STT (Student Talking Time).

Overuse of TTT is inappropriate because the more a teacher talks, the less chance there is for the students to practise their own speaking - and it is the students who need the practice, not the teacher. If a teacher talks and talks, the students will

have less time for other things, too, such as reading and writing. For these reasons, a good teacher maximises STT and minimises TTT.

Good TTT may have beneficial qualities, however. If teachers know how to talk to students, if they know how to rough-tune their language to the students' level as discussed above, then the students get a chance to hear language which is certainly above their own productive level, but which they can more or less understand. Such comprehensible input - where students receive rough-tuned input in a relaxed and unthreatening way - is an important feature in language acquisition

Perhaps, therefore, we should not talk simply about the difference between STT and TTT, but also consider TTQ (Teacher Talking Quality). In other words, teachers who just go on and on, using language which is not especially useful or appropriate, are not offering students the right kind of talking, whereas teachers who engage students with their stories and interaction, using appropriate comprehensible input will be helping them to understand and acquire the language.

The best lessons, therefore, are ones where STT is maximised, but where at appropriate moments during the lesson the teacher is not afraid to summarise what is happening, tell a story or enter into discussion, etc. Good teachers use their common sense and experience to get the balance right.

13-6 Using the L1

All learners of English, whatever their situation, come to the classroom with at least one other language, their mother tongue (often called their L1). We need to

ask ourselves, therefore, whether it is appropriate for them to use the LI in class when their main object is, after all to learn an L2 (in our case English)

The first thing to remember is that, especially at beginner levels, students are going to translate what is happening into their LI whether teachers want them to or not. It is a natural process of learning a foreign language. On the other hand, an English-language classroom should have English in it, and as far as possible, there should be an English environment in the room, where English is heard and used as much of the time as possible. For that reason, it is advisable for teachers to use English as often as possible, and not to spend a long time talking in the students' LI.

However, where teacher and students share the same LI it would be foolish to deny its existence and potential value. Once we have given instructions for an activity, for example, we can ask students to repeat the instructions back to us in the LI - and this will tell us whether they have understood what they have to do. When we have complicated instructions to explain, we may want to do this in the LI, and where students need individual help or encouragement, the use of the LI may have very beneficial effects

Since students translate in their heads anyway, it makes sense to use this translation process in an active way. For example, we can ask students to translate words, phrases or sentences into their LI, and then, perhaps, back into English without looking at the original. This helps them to think carefully about meaning and construction. Teachers may translate particular words, especially those for concepts and abstractions, when other ways of explaining their meaning are

ineffective. At a more advanced level, we can have students read a text, say, in their LI, but get them to ask and answer questions about it, or summarise it, in English.

When teaching pronunciation, it is often useful if students can find an equivalent sound in the LI for the English one they are trying to produce. We may want to explain to them how English has two different sounds where the LI does not make such a distinction (e.g. /b/ and /v/ for Spanish speakers, /l/ and /r/ for Japanese speakers).

Some teachers like to use films in the LI with English subtitles; judging whether the subtitles offer an adequate version of the original can offer considerable insight for higherlevel students. Alternatively, with switch-on/off subtitles, students can be asked to write their own English subtitles for a scene before watching how the filmmakers have done it.

However, using the translation process in the ways described above does not mean a return to a traditional Grammar-translation method (see page 48), but rather that, from time to time, using the students' LI may help them to see connections and differences between the LI and the L2, and that, occasionally, the teacher's use of the LI may help them to understand things that they are finding difficult to grasp

However, in many classrooms around the world there are students with a variety of different Lis and, as a result, the use of LI becomes more problematic. In such situations, it is still useful to get students to think of similarities and differences between their LI and the L2, but they will have to explain these differences in English.

Making use of the students' LI (where possible) does not mean we should abandon the commitment (mentioned above) to creating an English environment. Although we have seen that the LI can be used as an enabling tool, English should predominate in an English lesson, especially where the teacher is concerned since, as we have seen, he or she is the best provider of comprehensible input that the students have got. Not only that, but English is the language they are learning, not their LI. However, despite our best efforts, some students find it difficult to use English in the classroom,

13-7 Creating Lesson Stages

When we arrive in the classroom, we need to start the lesson off in such a way that the students' interest is aroused so that they become engaged. Where possible and appropriate, we will tell the students what they will be doing or, in a different kind of lesson, discuss with them what they can achieve as a result of what they are going to do.

We do not always need to explain exactly what we are going to do, however, particularly if we want to maintain an element of surprise. But even in such cases, a clear start to the lesson is necessary, just as a good play starts with the rise of a curtain, or a visit to the doctor starts when he or she asks you, 'Now then, what seems to be the problem?' or 'How can I help you?'

When an activity has finished and/or another one is about to start, it helps if teachers make this clear through the way they behave and the things they say. It helps students if they are made clearly aware of the end of something and the

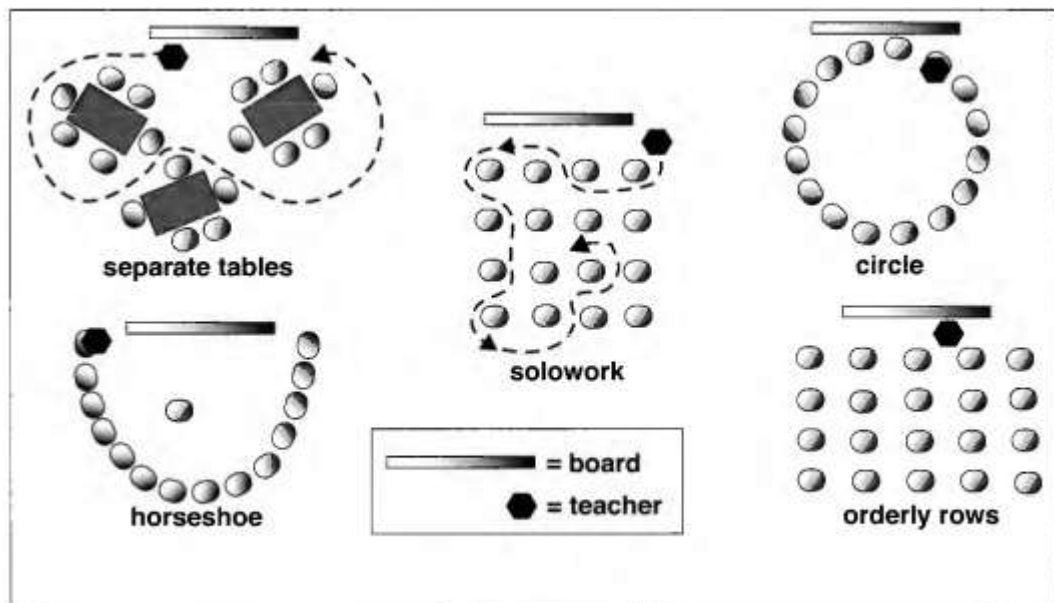
beginning of what is coming next. Frequently, teachers need to re-focus the students' attention, or point it in some new direction.

In order for such changes of direction to be effective, the teacher first needs to get the students' attention. This can sometimes be difficult, especially when teachers try to draw a speaking activity to a conclusion, or when students are working in groups. Some teachers clap their hands to get the students' attention. Some speak loudly, saying things like, 'Thank you ... now can I have your attention, please?' or 'OK ... thanks ... let's all face the front, shall we?'. Sometimes when teachers speak loudly, the students just speak louder in order not to be bothered by the interruption. To counter this, some teachers speak quietly in order to force the students to listen to them. Another method is for the teacher to raise his or her hand. When individual students see this, they raise their hands briefly in reply to indicate that they are now going to be quiet and wait for the next stage.

When we have brought an activity or a lesson to a finish, it helps if we provide some kind of closure: a summary of what has happened, perhaps, or a prediction of what will take place in the next lesson. Sometimes, teachers find themselves in the middle of something when the bell goes. This is unfortunate because it leaves unfinished business behind and a sense of incompleteness. It is much better to round the lesson off successfully. Ideally, too, we will be able to give the students some idea of what they will be doing next, and create enthusiasm for it so that they come to their next lesson with a positive attitude

13-8 Different Seating Arrangements

In many classrooms around the world students sit in orderly rows. Sometimes, their chairs have little wooden palettes on one of the arms to provide a surface to write on. Sometimes, the students will have desks in front of them. At the front of such classrooms, often on a raised platform (so that all the students can see them), stands the teacher. In contrast, there are other institutions where you can find students sitting in a large circle around the walls of the classroom. Or you may see small groups of them working in different parts of the room. Sometimes, they are arranged in a horseshoe shape around the teacher. Sometimes, in a class of adults, it is not immediately obvious who the teacher is.



Different seating arrangements in class

Clearly, the different arrangements of chairs and tables indicate a number of different approaches and this raises a number of questions. Are schools which use a variety of seating plans progressive or merely modish, for example? Is there

something intrinsically superior about rigid seating arrangements - or are such classrooms the product of a particular methodological orthodoxy? Is one kind of seating arrangement better than another? What are the advantages of each? We will look at the advantages and disadvantages of various seating arrangements.

13-8-1 Orderly Rows

Having the students sit in rows can appear somewhat restrictive, but there are advantages to this arrangement. The teacher has a clear view of all the students and the students can all see the teacher - in whose direction they are facing. It makes lecturing easier, enabling the teacher to maintain eye contact with the people he or she is talking to. If there are aisles in the classroom, the teacher can easily walk up and down making more personal contact with individual students and watching what they are doing.

Orderly rows imply teachers working with the whole class. Some activities are especially suited to this kind of organisation such as explaining a grammar point, watching a video/ DVD or a PowerPoint (or other computer-based) presentation, using the board (whether or not it is interactive) or showing student work on an overhead transparency (see Appendix A on page 252 for descriptions of these and other classroom technologies). It is also useful when students are involved in certain kinds of language practice (as we shall see in Chapter 6). If all the students are focused on a task at the same time, the whole class gets the same messages.

When we are teaching a whole class of students who are sitting in orderly rows, it is vitally important to make sure that we keep everyone involved in what we are doing. So, if we are asking the class questions, we must remember to ask the students at the back – the quiet ones, perhaps - rather than just the ones nearest us. We must move round so that we can see all the students and gauge their reactions to what's going on.

One trick that many teachers use is to keep their students guessing. Especially where teachers need to ask individual students questions, it is important that they do not do so in a predictable sequence, student after student, line by line. That way, the procedure becomes very tedious and each student knows when they are going to be asked and, once this has happened, that they are not going to be asked again. It is much better to talk to students from all parts of the room in random order. It keeps everyone on their toes!

In many classrooms around the world, teachers are faced with classes of anywhere between 40 and 200 students at a time. In such circumstances, orderly rows may well be the best or only solution.

Pairwork and groupwork (see page 43) are possible even when the class is seated in orderly rows; students can work with people next to them or in front of them or behind them

13-8-2 Circles and Horseshoes

In smaller classes, many teachers and students prefer circles or horseshoes. In a horseshoe, the teacher will probably be at the open end of the arrangement since that may well be where the board, overhead projector and/or computer are situated. In a circle, the teacher's position - where the board is situated - is less dominating.

Classes which are arranged in a circle make quite a strong statement about what the teacher and the students believe in. The Round Table in the British and French legends about King Arthur was specially designed so that there would not be arguments about who was more important than who - and that included the king himself when they were in a meeting. So it is in classrooms. With all the people in the room sitting in a circle, there is a far greater feeling of equality than when the teacher stays out at the front. This may not be quite so true of the horseshoe shape where the teacher is often located in a commanding position but, even here, the rigidity that comes with orderly rows, for example, is lessened.

If, therefore, teachers believe in lowering the barriers between themselves and their students, this kind of seating arrangement will help. There are other advantages too, chief among which is the fact that all the students can see each other. In an 'orderly row' classroom, you have to turn round - that is, away from the teacher - if you want to make eye contact with someone behind you. In a circle or a horseshoe, no such disruption is necessary. The classroom is thus a more intimate place and the potential for students to share feelings and information through

talking, eye contact or expressive body movements (eyebrow-raising, shoulder-shrugging, etc) is far greater.

13-8-3 Separate Tables

Even circles and horseshoes seem rather formal compared to classes where students are seated in small groups at individual tables. In such classrooms, you might see the teacher walking around checking the students' work and helping out if they are having difficulties - prompting the students at this table, or explaining something to the students at that table in the corner;

When students sit in small groups at individual tables, it is much easier for the teacher to work at one table while the others get on with their own work. This is especially useful in mixed-ability classes where different groups of students can benefit from concentrating on different tasks (designed for different ability levels). Separate table seating is also appropriate if students are working around a computer screen, for example where students are engaged in collaborative writing (see Chapter 8) or where they are listening to different audio tracks in a jigsaw listening exercise;

However, this arrangement is not without its own problems. In the first place, students may not always want to be with the same colleagues; indeed, their preferences may change over time. Secondly, it makes 'whole-class' teaching more difficult, since the students are more diffuse and separated.

13-9 Different Student Groupings

Whatever the seating arrangements in a classroom, students can be organised in different ways: they can work as a whole class, in groups, in pairs or individually.

13-9-1 Whole Class

There are many occasions when the best type of classroom organisation is a teacher working with the class as a whole group. However, this does not always mean the class sitting in orderly rows; whatever the seating arrangement, we can have the students focus on us and the task in hand. This is useful for presenting information and for controlled practice (such as repetition and drilling) which is often used, especially at lower levels (see Chapter 6, pages 85-87). Whole-class teaching can be dynamic and motivating and, by treating everyone as part of the same group, we can build a great sense of belonging - of being part of a team. However, when a class is working as a whole group, it is necessarily the case that individual students get fewer individual opportunities either to speak or to reflect.

Whole-class teaching is less effective if we want to encourage individual contributions and discussion, since speaking out in front of a whole class is often more demanding - and therefore more inhibiting - than speaking in smaller groups.

13-9-2 Groupwork and Pairwork

Groupwork and pairwork have been popular in language teaching for many years and have many advantages. They both foster cooperative activity in that the students involved work together to complete a task. They may be discussing a topic,

doing a role-play or working at a computer in order to find information from a website for a webquest (see page 105) or they may be writing up a report. In pairs and groups, students tend to participate more actively, and they also have more chance to experiment with the language than is possible in a whole-class arrangement

The moment students get into pairs or groups and start working on a problem or talking about something, many more of them will be doing the activity than if the teacher was working with the whole class, where, in most cases, only one student can talk at a time.

Both pairwork and groupwork give the students chances for greater independence. Because the students are working together without the teacher controlling every move, they take some of their own learning decisions (see page 21), they decide what language to use to complete a certain task and they can work without the pressure of the whole class listening to what they are doing.

Another great advantage of groupwork and pairwork (but especially of groupwork) is that they give the teacher more opportunity to focus attention on particular students. While groups A and C are doing one task, the teacher can spend some time with group B who need special help.

Neither groupwork or pairwork are without their problems. As with 'separate table' seating, students may not like the people they are grouped or paired with. Some students are ill-at-ease with the idea of working without constant teacher supervision, and may be unconvinced by the student-centred nature of these

groupings. In such situations we may want to discuss the advantages of pair- and groupwork with the class, but we should not insist on endless pairwork where students are seriously opposed to it.

In any one group or pair, one student may dominate while the others stay silent or engage, in William Littlewood's wonderful phrase, in 'social loafing'. But we can counteract this by structuring the task so that everyone's participation is mandatory or we can employ tricks such as Littlewood's numbered heads. Here the teacher asks the groups to number themselves from 1 to 5 (if there are five-student groups). They don't tell the teacher who has which number. At the end of the activity the teacher can then say, 'OK, let's hear from number 3 in group C', and because the teacher doesn't know who that student is, and the students don't know who the teacher may call (but do know that the call will, in some senses, be random) they are all more motivated to take part and don't leave it all up to the others.

In difficult classes, groupwork can sometimes encourage students to be more disruptive than they would be in a whole-class setting, and, especially in a class where students share the same first language, they may revert to that language, rather than English, when the teacher is not working with them.

Apart from groupwork and pairwork, the other alternative to whole-class teaching is solo (or individual) work.

13-9-3Class-to-class

One last grouping should be mentioned, and that is when we are able to join two classes so that they can interact with each other. Where different-level classes are concerned, higherlevel students often feel positive about being able to help students from other classes, just as lower-level students can feel motivated by being able to engage with people whose language is better than theirs.

Class-to-class interactions are good for surveys (where students can work with students they do not normally interact with in the English lesson), discussions and lectures and presentations. They can be time-consuming to organise, but, at their best, can often give students a huge sense of satisfaction.

How much use we make of groupwork, pairwork or solowork depends to a large extent on our style and on the preferences of our students. But it also depends to a large extent on what kind of learning task is involved. Good teachers are able to be flexible, using different class groupings for different activities. As they do this, they can assess which ones are the most successful for which types of activity, so that they can always seek to use the most effective grouping for the task in hand.

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