

# **TEACHING LANGUAGE SKILLS**

**Preparing Materials and Selecting Techniques**



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**Ag. Bambang Setiyadi  
Muhammad Sukirlan  
Mahpul**



**GRAHA ILMU**

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## PREFACE

**H**aving taught English as a foreign language for decades and given teacher trainings, we realized that English teachers and prospective English teachers need a book of teaching English as a foreign language, especially preparing teaching materials for different language skills and selecting techniques for different levels of students. This book may lead them to consider what they will do in different ways and take specific actions in their teaching.

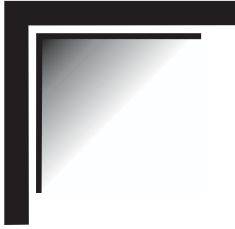
This book has grown out of the S1 course in English Teaching Method that we have taught at Lampung University. We need to thank our students for their inspiration with respect to teaching issues that make the writing of this book possible. A very special thank goes to our beloved friend and colleague, the late Stephanus Sukanto, who had prepared this book together. We are indebted to a number of individuals in our department who, through our daily contacts, gave inspirations to us to publish this book.

We are also indebted to the Open University of Indonesia, whose support enabled us to write the modul of TEFL2. The support has made us more aware of what we have done with our students and what we have to do with them for their professional future.

Finally, we have to express our deep appreciation to our families who have given us their support throughout this process of writing this book and thank them for understanding us when papers and books were scattered all over the house.








# CONTENTS

<b>PREFACE</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>CONTENTS</b>	<b>vii</b>
<b>CHAPTER 1 COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Communicative Competence	2
1.2 Theoretical Issues	3
1.3 Classroom Issues	7
1.4 Interpretation of Communicative Competence	12
1.5 A Classroom Model of Communicative Competence	14
1. Grammatical Competence	14
2. Sociolinguistic Competence	15
3. Discourse Competence	15
4. Strategic Competence	16
1.6 Competence-Based Curriculum	16
1.7 Assesment of Language Competence	21
1. Written test	21
2. Performance assessment	21
3. Attitude assessment	22
4. Project assessment	22
5. Portfolio	23

<b>CHAPTER 2</b>	<b>TEACHING LISTENING</b>	<b>27</b>
2.1	Selecting Right Materials in Teaching Listening	29
	1. Listening to a Live Conversation in Which One Takes No Part	30
	2. Listening to Announcement	30
	3. Listening to the News	30
	4. Watching the News on Television	30
	5. Listening to the Radio for Entertainment	30
	6. Watching Television for Entertainment	30
	7. Watching a Film in a Cinema	31
	8. Listening to Records	31
	9. Following a Lesson	31
	10. Attending a Lecture	31
	11. Listening on the Telephone	31
	12. Instruction	31
	13. Being Interviewed	32
	14. Getting Professional Advice	32
	15. Making Arrangement	32
2.2	Preparing Materials in Teaching Listening	32
	1. Sounds	32
	2. Stress and Intonation	33
	3. Organization of Speech	33
	4. Syntax and Vocabulary	33
	5. Pauses and Fillers	34
	6. Formal/Informal Language	34
2.3	Selecting Techniques in Teaching Listening	35
	1. Pre teaching	35
	2. While Listening	36
	3. Post Listening	37
2.4	Teaching Listening at Different Levels	38
	1. Blank Tape	38
	2. Recorded Material	40
	3. Use of Video in Listening Work	43



2.5	Evaluating Listening Skills	43
1.	Testing Phoneme Discrimination	44
2.	Testing Understanding Statement	44
3.	Testing Understanding of Short Dialogue	45
4.	Testing Understanding of Mini-talk and Language Dialogue	46
<b>CHAPTER 3</b>	<b>TEACHING SPEAKING</b>	<b>49</b>
3.1	Planning of Teaching Speaking	49
3.2	Preparing Materials of Speaking	54
3.3	Selecting Techniques in Teaching Speaking	56
3.4	Techniques in Teaching Speaking	61
1.	Ordering	62
2.	Remembering	63
3.	Miming	64
4.	Asking and Answering	64
5.	Describing and Drawing	65
6.	Discussion	66
7.	Role Play	67
8.	Completing a Questionnaire	67
9.	Fishbowl Technique	69
10.	The Great Debate	70
3.5	Teaching Speaking at Different Levels	71
3.6	Media in Teaching Speaking	73
<b>CHAPTER 4</b>	<b>TEACHING READING</b>	<b>77</b>
4.1	Selecting Right Materials in Teaching Reading	78
4.1.1	Interest	79
4.1.2	Exploitability	80
4.1.3	Readability	80
1.	Lexical Knowledge	81
2.	Background Knowledge	82
3.	Syntactic Appropriateness	83
4.	Organization	83
5.	Discourse Phenomena	84
6.	Length of Passage	84

4.2	Preparing Materials in Teaching Reading	88
4.2.1.	Intensive Reading	88
4.2.2.	Extensive Reading	89
4.3	Selecting Techniques in Teaching Reading	89
1.	Reading to Find the Main Idea	91
2.	Reading to Select Significant Details	92
3.	Reading to Follow Directions	93
4.	Reading to Answer Questions	94
5.	Reading to Make Summaries and Organize Materials	94
6.	Reading to Arrive at Generalizations and Conclusions	96
7.	Reading to Predict Outcomes	96
8.	Reading to Evaluate Critically	97
9.	Reading to Develop Skill in Acquiring Word Meaning	99
10.	Reading Longer Selections with Comprehension	102
4.4	Alternative Technique for Advanced Students	104
1.	Discussion Web	104
<b>CHAPTER 5 TEACHING WRITING</b>		<b>105</b>
5.1	Selecting Right Materials in Teaching Writing	106
1.	Structures	107
2.	 Directions	108
3.	Structure Words	108
5.2	Preparing Materials in Teaching Writing	109
5.3	Selecting Techniques for Teaching Writing	112
1.	Graphics	112
2.	Tracing Drills	112
3.	Drills	113
4.	Transcription Drills	113
5.	Spelling	113
6.	Completion	114
7.	Transliteration	114
8.	Dictation	114
9.	Composition	114
10.	Conversion	115
11.	Word Jumbles	116

12. Alteration	116
13. Matching	116
14. Sentence Composition	116
15. Caption Writing	117
16. Sentence Translation	117
17. Composition Tables	117
18. Paragraph Writing	117
5.4 Teaching Writing at Different Levels	118
1. Writing through a Postcard	119
2. Writing through Dictations	120
3. Writing through Newspaper Headlines/ Articles	121
5.5 Alternative Techniques for Advanced Students	123
1. Fast Write	123
2. Brain Write	124
5.6 Media in Teaching Writing	125
1. Contextual Media	125
2. Digital Media	125
<b>CHAPTER 9 TEACHING INTEGRATED SKILLS</b>	<b>129</b>
9.1 Preparing Right Materials in Teaching Integrated Skills	132
9.2 Types of language syllabus	132
1. A grammar or structural syllabus	132
2. A notional or functional syllabus	133
3. A situational or topical syllabus	134
4. A skill-based syllabus	135
5. A task-based syllabus	136
6. A content-based syllabus	137
9.3 Selecting Techniques for Teaching Integrated Skills	142
1. Dialogue	142
2. Role-Play	148
3. Full Immersion	150
4. Semi Immersion	150
5. Content-Based Syllabus	150

9.4 Alternative Techniques for Advanced Students	151
1. Gallery Walk	152
2. Jigsaw discussions	153
3. KWL: Know, Want to Know, Learned	154
4. Think-Pair-Share	155
<b>REFERENCES</b>	<b>157</b>

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# COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Competence may refer to different concepts. Noam Chomsky (cited in Hymes, 1983, p. 3) defines *competence* as the speaker and listener's knowledge of a language. The term *competence* is contrasted with *performance*. The first refers to the tacit knowledge of language structure while the latter is understood as the processes in encoding and decoding. The knowledge of the language is believed to be commonly not conscious or available for spontaneous report and it is believed that the knowledge of the language (competence) that makes one produces and understands an infinite set of utterances (performance). However, the knowledge of the language is not necessarily related to the ability in encoding and decoding utterances. It may be the case that one knows a lot about the language but he/she is not a good speaker and listener of the language.

Communication within the classroom is really important in language learning since through communication students learn to interact with others by using the target or learned language: English. Realizing that communication plays an important role in encouraging the students to use the target language, English teacher should design learning tasks and the competence of the language use through which the students can practice receiving information, processing it, and producing it in the target language. Widdowson (1983, p. 118) states that communication only takes place when we make use of sentences to perform a variety of different acts of an essentially

social nature and we use sentences to make statements of different kinds, to describe, to record, to classify and so on, or to ask questions, make requests, give orders. In learning a second language, it is important for teachers to provide students with an opportunity to use the target language. The classroom interaction can focus the language used in formal and informal conversations within a context that is meaningful and realistic (Hayes, 2004).

## **1.1 COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE**

“Communicative Competence’ has in recent years become a fashionable term in developing English syllabus and methodology of English teaching in Indonesia. Some experts have introduced different concepts and they sometimes claim that their concepts are superior to others. In this section, only some are discussed to provide us with concepts of communicative competence that are believed to be popular among others. Hymes (1983) defines communicative competence as a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be completely competent in a speech community. He lists four sectors of communicative competence. The first sector is whether and to what degree something is formally possible. The second sector is whether and to what degree something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation. The third sector is whether and to what degree something is appropriate in relation to a context in which it is used. Hymes’ final sector deals with the area that refers to something that is actually performed. The theory of communicative competence that Hymes suggests seems to show that communicative competence deals with possibility (grammatically right), feasibility (easily processed), appropriateness (contextual) and in fact done (not occur). A sentence may be possible, feasible but not appropriate and not in fact not done. Or a sentence may be possible, feasible, and appropriate but not occur. A sentence should meet the four sectors in order to be classified under utterance of communicative competence. Competence, as suggested by Hymes (1983), is the most general term for capabilities of a person and it is dependent upon knowledge of a language and ability in using the language.

Another concept of communicative competence is also introduced by Halliday (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 160). Even though He does not explicitly state communicative competence of language, he describes that learning a foreign language as communication is similarly viewed as

children learn their first language. He describes seven functions of learning a language. Learning a language is learning to use the language to get things, to control the behavior of others, to create interaction with others, to express personal feelings and meanings, to learn and to discover, to create a world of imagination, and to communicate information. This concept suggests that language is viewed from its functions and learning a foreign language focuses on the functions or uses of the language. To mention some, the functions of the language are to get things, to control others, to create interaction, to express feeling, to discover, to create imagination and to communicate information.

It seems that there are different traditions in linguistics that have placed emphasis on different things in viewing competence of a language. Some have placed emphasis on the knowledge of the language, some have placed it on the use of the language and some others may have placed it on other aspects of language. The way they conceptualize competence will underlies language teaching in the classroom.

## **1.2 THEORETICAL ISSUES**

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a language teaching tradition which has been developed in the United Kingdom in 1970's. This approach was said to be the product of educators and linguists who had grown dissatisfied with Grammar Translation Method and Audi-Lingual Method and it was also partly in response to Chomsky's criticism of structural theories of language. CLT is regarded more as an approach since the aims of CLT are a) to make the communicative competence the goal of language teaching and b) to develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication (Richards and Rodgers, 1986 and 2001). CLT deals more with assumptions about language and language learning and Larsen-Freeman (1986 and 2001) names it the Communicative Approach. The concept of CLT can be traced back by looking at the concept of communication itself. It implies that language teaching should be contextualized by presenting language items in situational settings in the classroom. In other words, in CLT language teachers should consider the formal structures in situational settings in the classroom. Even though it may be argued what type of contextualization

(signification or value) can be provided to the students in the classroom, Widdowson (1983, p. 119) suggests that whatever the contextualization the teacher provides will help the students learn the communicative function of the language. Another way of teaching a foreign language as a means of communication is what Allen and Widdowson suggest (1983, p. 125). They consider the language as a medium of teaching another subject. Language as communication no longer appears as a separate subject, but as an aspect of other subjects. The target language should be presented in such a way as to reveal its character as communication. Therefore, designing an English course, for students of science, should cover common topics in basic science and language items. The purpose of English teaching is to develop in the students an awareness of the ways in which the language system is used to express scientific facts and concepts. Their idea suggests that the target language is used in an immersion program, teaching subject matters in the target language, in order for the teaching of the target language to be communicative.

In Richards and Rodgers' s view (1986, p. 71), CLT has a rich theoretical base at the level of language theory. At least four basic assumptions about language are proposed.

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
2. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.
4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

The four basic assumptions of language suggest what aspects of the language should be taught, how language should be presented in language class and how language competence should be evaluated. The four assumptions mentioned above seem to derive from a single theory that emphasizes the use of language in daily life for practical reason: communication.

The assumptions about language discussed above also have impact on the language teaching (Brumfit, 1983, p. 183). Traditionally, language class



has followed the tradition of procedure that starts from the presentation of language items, followed by drills that are used to internalize patterns of language, and ends with the practice in context. Contrarily, in the communicative model language learners are expected to communicate as far as possible with all available resources, this step is followed by the presentation of language items shown to be necessary for effective communication, and then language learners are provided with drills if necessary.

The movement of communicative approach has also given impact on what aspect of language and how they should be measured. The design and construction of the test to measure communicative proficiency should be different from that of the traditional approach. Morrow (1983, p. 145) argues that the advocates of the behaviorist view of learning through habit formation tend to make language tests by posing questions to elicit responses which show whether or not correct habits have been established. In such language test correct responses are rewarded and negative ones punished in some way. The reward and punishment may be in the forms of scores given to language learners. As mentioned earlier that one of the characteristic features of communicative approach to language teaching is that it enables us to make assumptions about the types of communication that we will equip learners to handle. In language testing, consequently, there is unlikely to be a single overall test of language proficiency. However, Morrow suggests that there are three implications in this.

First, the concept of pass: fail loses much its force; every candidate can be assessed in terms of what he can do. Of course some will be able to do more than others, and it may be decided for administrative reasons that at certain level of proficiency is necessary for the awarding of a particular certificate. But because of the operational nature of the test, even low scores can be shown what they have achieved. Secondly, language performance can be differentially assessed in different communicative areas. The idea of "profile reporting" whereby a candidate is given different scores on, e.g. speaking, reading, writing and listening tests is not new, but it is particularly attractive in an operational context where scores can be related to specific communicative objectives.

The third implication is perhaps the most far-reaching. The importance of specifying the communicative criteria in terms of which assessment is being offered means that examining bodies will have to draw up, and

probably publish, specifications of the types of operation they intend to test, the content area to which they will relate and the criteria which will be adopted in assessment.

The system and the criteria used in TOEFL, to some extent, may be similar to the suggestions. Whatever the TOEFL score one has cannot be used to judge whether he/she fails or passes and he will receive a certificate that shows the level of his/her proficiency. And, we may decide whether we want to take Test of Written English (TWE) or TOEFL without a writing section. The suggestions mentioned above seem to have practical problems when implemented in the schooling system.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) argue that little has been written about learning theory of CLT. They state further that elements of an underlying learning theory may be discerned in some CLT practices. One of the elements of learning theory of CLT is that activities that involve real communication promote learning (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, 72). This implies that language learning will learn the target language optimally when they communicate in the language. They should use the language to carry out meaningful tasks, not just learn the language. Communication practice is believed to develop linguistic skills. It seems that the role of teacher is likely to be teaching communication via language, not teaching language via communication (Allwright, 1983, p. 167). Allwright (1983, p. 170) acknowledges that this strategy may be argued since absolute beginners cannot be expected to solve communication problems. Language beginners seem not to be able to use the target language for conveying meanings. They are in the process of learning to convey meanings by using the language. The problem that language learners are not yet able to use the language for communication need alternative techniques of CLT. The weak version of CLT discussed above could be the answer to this problem.

Another principle of CLT which is related to learning theory is the meaningful task principle, meaning that activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 72). However, language tasks performed in interaction are not necessarily meaningful. Pair work, which is often considered as the main element of CLT, does not always produce meaningful tasks. Pair work makes learners work together and help each other but in the interaction in

the pair work may not convey meanings. In meaningful communication there must be information gaps. Language teacher should create situations in which information gaps exist among learners. The attempt to create information gaps in the classroom, thereby, producing communication viewed as the bridging of the information gap, has characterized much recent communicative methodology (Johnson, 1983). These attempts may take many forms, for examples, identifying objects in a picture, providing uncompleted plans or diagrams, developing listening text and telling the content to others, and others.

A principle that may be regarded as another assumption about language learning in CLT is that the grammar and vocabulary the students learn from the function, situational context, and the roles of the interlocutors (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, p. 130). Larsen-Freeman provides an example of the assumption by observing a class taught through CLT that after the role-play is finished the students elicit relevant vocabulary. This seems in accordance with the first assumption that the emphasis of teaching a language is communication. After communication, as well as games and role-play, is finished the students may discuss the elements of the language: grammar and vocabulary. The elements of the language come later after the first priority of language teaching: communication is over.

### **1.3 CLASSROOM ISSUES**

Even though little has been written about theories of language learning underlying the principles of CLT, some writers suggest some techniques or procedures in the classroom that can support the goal of communicative teaching. The following principles are tips worth considering in communicative teaching suggested by Larsen-Freeman (1986, pp. 128-130). Whenever possible language as it is used in real context should be introduced.

- a. The target language is a vehicle for classroom communication, not just the object of study.
- b. Students should work with language at the discourse level.
- c. Games are important because they have in common with real communicative events.

- d. Students should be given an opportunity to express their ideas and opinions.
- e. One of the teacher's major responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication.
- f. The social context of the communicative event is essential in giving meaning to the utterances.
- g. Learning to use language forms appropriately is an important part of communicative competence.
- h. The teacher acts as an advisor during communicative activities.
- i. Students should be given opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting language as it is actually used by native speakers.

No fixed procedure has been claimed to be typical procedure of CLT. Different writers have suggested different set of procedures and different writers have emphasized different aspects and skills of language. The CLT classroom procedure below is the one suggested by Finocchiaro and Brumfit (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 81).

- a. Presentation of a brief dialog or several mini-dialogs, preceded by a motivation (relating the dialog situation (s) to the learners' probable community experiences) and a discussion of the function and situation-people, roles, setting, topic, and the informality or formality of the language which the function and situation demand. (at the beginning levels, where all the learners understand the same native language, the motivation can well be given in their native tongue).
- b. Oral practice of each utterance of the dialog segment to be presented that day (entire class repetition, half class, groups, and individuals) generally preceded by your model. If mini-dialogs are used, engage in similar practice.
- c. Questions and answers based on the dialog topics (s) and situation itself. (Inverted Wh or Yes/No questions).
- d. Questions and answers related to the students' personal experiences but centered around the dialog theme.
- e. Study one of the basic communicative expressions in the dialog or one of the structures which exemplify the function. You will wish to give several additional examples of the communicative use of the expression structure with familiar vocabulary in unambiguous utterances or mini-

- dialogs (using pictures, simple real objects, or dramatization) to clarify the meaning of the expression or structure...
- f. Learner discovery of generalizations or rules underlying the functional expression or structure. This should include at least four points, e.g. "How about + verb + ing?"); its position in the utterance; its formality or informality in the utterance; and in the case of a structure, its grammatical function and meaning...
  - g. Oral recognition, interpretative activities (two to five depending on the learning level, the language knowledge of the students, and related factors).
  - h. Oral production activities-proceeding from the guided to freer communication activities.
  - i. Copying of the dialog or mini-dialogs or modules if they are not in the class text.
  - j. Sampling of the written homework assignment, if given.
  - k. Evaluation of learning (oral only), e.g. "How would you ask your friend to \_\_\_\_? And how would you ask me to \_\_\_\_\_?"

The activities of the CLT procedure mentioned above seem not be exclusive to CLT classrooms. The procedure may be classified as the application of the weak version of CLT of teaching the oral language. The following is one of the basic procedures in teaching writing suggested by Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983, p. 151):

- a. Motivate the material by giving a brief summary or by asking preliminary questions relevant to the theme of the passage. Clarify any difficulty
- b. Review the procedure you will follow.
- c. Read the material through two times at normal speed.
- d. Ask a question two times. Give the students time to write the answer.
- e. Continue until you have given all the questions.
- f. Read the passage or conversation again at normal speed.
- g. Say the questions again.
- h. Give the students about two minutes to check their own work and to make necessary changes.
- j. Correct the material as in the dictation.

Another application of the weak version of CLT has also been developed in teaching grammar (Thompson, 1994, p. 11). Wherever possible,

learners are first exposed to new language in a comprehensible context, so that they are able to understand its function and meaning. Only then is their attention turned to examining the grammatical forms that have been used to convey meaning. The discussion of grammar is explicit, but it is the learners who are doing most of the discussing, working out - with the guidance from the teacher- as much of their new knowledge of the language as can easily and usefully be expressed. Behind this strategy lies the recognition that the learners may well have "understood" more about the language than they - or the teacher- can put into words. If the new language were introduced in the form of an apparently all- embracing (but actually pitifully incomplete) rule from the teacher, this would convey unspoken message that the learners had nothing further to understand about the language point and simply needed to practice it. If, on the other hand, talking about grammar is postponed until learners themselves can contribute by bringing to light what already in some sense 'know', the unspoken message is that the process of acquiring the new knowledge is one which takes place inside them and over which they have some control.

Some activities of the two procedures above may belong to the other methods that have been introduced earlier. As mentioned earlier that some writers regard CLT as an approach, not a method. As an approach, CLT is open for language teachers to develop their own activities based on the principles and the basic assumptions of CLT. It is not surprising that CLT and the other methods share similar activities or techniques; the activities or techniques may have been developed from the same assumptions about language or language learning. Each of the four skills may have different techniques even though they may come from the same assumptions.

Among the many activities which will promote our students' ability are the following activities (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983, pp. 138-154):

**Listening activities:**

- a. Listening to you as you present sound sequences or model sentences, read a passage, describe simple or situational pictures, etc.
- b. Listening to other people speaking, engaging in dialog dramatization, listening to recordings.

- c. Attending lectures, speaking clubs and other meetings conducted in the target language.
- d. Etc.

**Speaking activities:**

- a. Reply to directions or questions given by other people.
- b. Give directions for other people.
- c. Tell what objects appear in a picture or on a chart.
- d. Tell a story or retell an experience in their own words.
- e. Read a newspaper article in the native language and give a report on it in the target language.
- f. Etc.

**Writing activities:**

- a. Copy model sentences, dialogs, or anything that has been spoken or read.
- b. Write a summary of material which has been read.
- c. Complete an outline form of material they have read.
- d. Write a letter.
- e. Write a report on an article or book.
- f. Etc.

**Reading activities:**

- a. Ask the students to formulate questions on the passage.
- b. Have the communicative expressions, structures, and notions that were clarified before the reading used in original sentences.
- c. Engage in numerous word study exercises.
- d. Have students retell what happened in the passage from a list of key words you will place on the board.
- e. Have them look for the key words.
- f. Have them summarize the passage.
- g. Etc.

## **1.4 INTERPRETATION OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE**

To develop the procedures of teaching, language teachers may consider the underlying principles of CLT developed by different authors. These principles are worth considering not only for preparing what learning-teaching activities are expected but the whole processes that cover the preparation of language materials, the sequence of the materials, the presentation, and the evaluation of the output. However, different writers have different stresses of the principles of CLT. Howatt (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 66) states that there are a strong version and a weak version of CLT.

The weak version of CLT stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching. The strong version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication...If the former could be described as 'learning to use English, the latter entails 'using English to learn it'.

The two different versions need not be contrasted. CLT principles may be a continuum. One side of the interval of CLT is the weak version and the other side of the interval is the strong version. The procedure developed based on the principles of the weak version of CLT may be the starting point of teaching a foreign language communicatively. Then, the procedure of CLT ends with the activities developed based on the strong version of CLT. It seems impossible to teach English by using the target language to learn it in a setting where English is really a foreign language, such as Indonesia. Probably, the procedure of the strong version of CLT may be introduced without considering the weak version in countries where the target language is the second language, or where the target language is used in an immersion program.

CLT emphasizes on using a language instead of knowing the language. The goal of teaching a foreign language is the actual use of language in real situations. This is a response to traditional methods that are concerned with what so called linguistic competence. As mentioned earlier, linguistic competence is understood as concerned with the tacit knowledge of language structure, that is, knowledge that is commonly not conscious or



available for spontaneous report, but necessarily implicit in what the (ideal) speaker-listener can say (Hymes, 1983, p. 7). This concept is used to contrast it with linguistic performance, which is mostly concerned with the processes often termed encoding and decoding. This practical goal gives a direction to language teaching activities. The activities done to present language materials should be oriented to the ability to use the target language in communication. This principle is related to the first principle that CLT sees errors as a natural outcome. The main concern of teaching is communication with ease in the target language without being occupied with error correction. One of the characteristic features of communicative approach to language teaching is that it enables us to make assumptions about the types of communication that we will equip learners to handle (Morrow, 1983, p. 155).

As mentioned earlier that the activities developed for life skills related to English teaching seem to be taken from Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). If compared to the principles suggested in the Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL), the activities for CLT belong to those of the CLT. The newly introduced curriculum, the competence-based curriculum, will not surprise English teachers as long as the English teachers are the advocates of communicative approach. The English teachers should believe that the primary function of language is for interaction and communication. They should also believe that their students learn the target language optimally when they communicate in the language, their students should use the language to carry out meaningful tasks, not just learn the language. The teachers should believe that communication practice is believed to develop communicative competence. It seems that the role of the teachers is likely to be teaching communication via language, not teaching language via communication.

In teaching a foreign language there are two terms related to the linguistic skills that are often contrasted, namely linguistic competence and linguistic performance. Competence refers to the tacit knowledge of language structure which is believed to be commonly not conscious or available for spontaneous report. Performance is understood as the processes in encoding and decoding and this skill makes one produce and understand an infinite set of utterances. However, the distinction between the two does not bother some experts and they try to introduce different concepts of linguistic or

communicative competence. In consequence, they have placed emphasis on different things in viewing competence of a language. Some have placed emphasis on the knowledge of the language, some have placed it on the use of the language and some others may have placed it on other aspects of language. The way they conceptualize competence will underlies language teaching in the classroom.

The most common way of teaching English is Communicative Language Teaching or CLT. This approach was said to be the product of educators and linguists who had grown dissatisfied with Grammar Translation Method and Audi-Lingual. This approach is believed to make language learners to gain communicative competence of the target language. Since CLT is an approach, different people may develop different techniques of presenting language materials and there are two main versions of CLT, namely weak version and strong version of CLT. The weak version of CLT stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes while the strong version believes that language is acquired through communication. Its is often believed that the weak version is described as learning to use English and the strong version is defined as using English to learn the language.

## **1.5 A CLASSROOM MODEL OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE**

Communicative Competence can be classified under four main models, namely grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence. Considering the models of communicative competence, the classroom interaction and teaching approaches can also be classified under the models accordingly. The following section will discuss each model.

### **1. Grammatical Competence**

Grammatical competence is used to refer to the ability to recognize and produce the distinctive grammatical structures of a language and use them effectively in communication. The competence includes the ability to recognize and produce vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling and linguistic semantics. Even though some people may disagree that grammatical competence will help students to gain

communicative competence of the target language, there is still a trend of teaching a language communicatively through grammar mastery. This way of teaching may be understood as the implementation of the weak version of CLT, as mentioned earlier. It may be argued that without knowledge of grammatical basis of the target language learners are in possession of nothing more than a selection of communicative phrases. Consequently, the materials are arranged in a structural or grammatical syllabus. The structural syllabus does not necessarily mean that the language learning is grammar oriented but the syllabus only tells us how the learning materials are arranged and the final goal is communicative competence. The grammatical syllabus only emphasizes the accuracy of using English and then continuing the process of learning to the level of fluency.

## **2. Sociolinguistic Competence**

Sociolinguistic competence refers to the ability to produce utterances and understand them appropriately in different contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of interaction, and norms or conventions of interactions. The content of the language teaching is a collection of imaginary contexts where the language is used in the community. This arrangement of teaching materials is popularly as situational syllabus. Examples of the content of the syllabus are “at a restaurant”, “at school”, “meeting a new neighbor” and “seeing a doctor”. The communicative competence refers to what a speaker needs to know in order to be completely competent in a speech community. In language teaching, teachers should consider at least three factors, namely grammaticality, feasibility, and appropriateness with contexts, suggested by Hymes (1983).

## **3. Discourse Competence**

Discourse, which is also called textual competence, refers to the ability to understand and construct monologues or written genres, such as narratives, procedural texts, expository texts, persuasive texts, descriptions, and others. In other words, discourse competence deals with how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different genres. The teaching materials seem to be arranged in a combination between grammar syllabus and situational syllabus. This may

also imply that the teaching materials can be arranged in a content-based syllabus. A Content syllabus in language teaching is actually not a language syllabus. The primary purpose of instruction is to teach some subjects or information using the target language. The subject is primary and language learning occurs automatically while language learners are studying the subject. An example of a content-based syllabus is a science class that is taught in the target language.

#### **4. Strategic Competence**

Strategic competence is used to refer to the ability or mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies. Communication strategies relate to the process of communication between interlocutors (Tarone, 1988, p. 65). The interlocutors are involved in using a language which they are in the process of learning or may already have learnt. Communication has two types, namely strategies that relate to grammatical competence and those that relate to sociolinguistic competence (Canale and Swain, 1980). Consequently, teaching materials seem to be a combination between a grammatical syllabus and situational syllabus. The materials may also be arranged based on either a task-based syllabus. In a task-based syllabus the content of the language teaching includes a series of purposeful tasks that language learners need to perform. Examples of a task-based syllabus may include applying for a job, ordering food via the telephone and getting housing information over the telephone. If the materials are arranged based on a skilled-based syllabus, the content of the language teaching will be a collection of specific skills in using the target language. Examples of skills in using the target language may include reading for the main idea, writing good paragraphs, and listening for the main idea.

English teachers may develop their own ways of teaching based on the concepts of communicative competence and communicative teaching. The following modules will address different ways of teaching English based on the language skills and components.

### **1.6 COMPETENCE-BASED CURRICULUM**

Competence-based curriculum (CBC) or Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi (KBK) has been recently introduced throughout the country.

The new curriculum has been developed and introduced because the government has assumed that the educational system (or practice?) in this country has produced human resources who are not ready to face the future. The graduates have fulfilled the requirements of their schools but they are not provided with the skills that are needed by the community. The schools tend to teach school subjects in the level of theory and the students tend to learn the subjects cognitively. This condition seems to happen to all school subjects. Even, the English subject, which is expected to be mastered as a life skill, is also taught and learned as a science. Some students can perform very well in their school tests and the national test but they can hardly use English for practical purposes as expected. The competence-based curriculum is introduced to give a solution to this condition.

The term “competence” in the competence-based curriculum introduced in Indonesia seems to be defined in a different way. Competence in the curriculum refers to knowledge, skill and attitude that are reflected in a daily life (Pusat Kurikulum, 2002). It implies that our students’ learning outcomes should cover the three domains that have been popularly as Bloom’s taxonomy (1956). The learning taxonomy can be classified as cognitive, psychomotoric and affective domains. These three domains should be considered when the teacher wishes to evaluate the process of learning and teaching. The new tradition of evaluation may be relatively new for some teachers of other school subjects but for English teachers it is not new at all. It may call for a long discussion to determine how a test of other subjects, such as social sciences, can cover the three domains. Ideally, in learning English our students should be evaluated not only based on their mastery of language components such as vocabulary and grammar, but also their language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

*The Competence based curriculum* is a systematical and strategic plan for linguistic and discourse competence. It covers what competence the students should master, what learning outcomes they will produce, what learning teaching process is needed, how their competence will be evaluated, and how the school will manage the available human resources to develop school based curriculum (Pusat Kurikulum, 2002). The competence-based curriculum is more than competence-based syllabus, which consists of the arrangement of learning materials that students should master and

the indicators of the learning evaluation. The new curriculum consists of curriculum and learning outcomes, class-based evaluation, learning teaching activities, and school-based curriculum. Based on the Competence-Based Curriculum (Pusat Kurikulum, 2001), the competence from which the students are expected by learning English at school is as follows:

**Elementary school:**

With the mastery of a vocabulary at the level of 900 words and the suitable grammar, the students are able

- a. to understand short and simple oral texts in the forms of conversation, narration and description.
- b. to have a conversation to express their feeling
- c. to understand simple written texts in the forms of conversation, narration, and description.
- d. to present simple information and ideas in a written form of 100 words at length.

**Junior High school:**

With the mastery of a vocabulary at the level of 1500 words and the right grammar of the available themes, the students are able:

- a. to understand and interpret short and simple oral texts in the forms of conversation, narration and description.
- b. to have a conversation, express their feeling and share ideas fluently about certain topics.
- c. to understand and interpret simple written texts in the forms of conversation, narration, description, and other forms such as schedule, ticket, notice, brochure, and content of books.
- d. to present simple information, concepts and ideas in a written form of 200 words at length.
- e. to use English for pleasure and self-enrichment

**Senior High School:**

With the mastery of a vocabulary at the level of 4000 words and the right grammar of the available themes, the students are able:

- a. to understand and interpret short and simple oral texts in the forms of conversation, narration and description.
- b. to have a conversation, express their feeling and share ideas fluently and appropriately about certain topics.
- c. to understand and interpret written texts in the forms of conversation, narration, description, argumentation and other forms such as schedule, ticket, notice, manual guide, brochure, content of books, table, diary, and leaflet.
- d. to present information, concepts and ideas of various topics in a written form of 500 words at length.
- e. to use English for pleasure and self-enrichment.

If we compare the English skills of the three levels, which the students are expected to master, there is almost no difference. The difference is that there is a continuum of skills that are introduced from the elementary school to the senior high school. Starting from the elementary school, the students are already expected to have language skills that can be used for practical purposes. The skills, which can be regarded as life skill or communicative skill, are then improved when they continue their studies at higher levels. The continuum will range from *performative*, *functional*, *informational* and *epistemic* competence. Having performative competence, one can read and write in the target language. She/he will acquire functional competence when she/he is able to use the language for daily activities. Informational competence is acquired after one has the skill to use the language to get information, and epistemic competence is acquired when the language is already used to transform knowledge. The graduates of the Junior High School (SMP) are expected to master survival or functional competence of English and then they will develop it into informational competence at the Senior High School (SMA). The graduates of SMP are expected to use English for daily life while the graduates of SMA are expected to use it to get information.

In the competence-based curriculum recently introduced, learning-teaching interaction is meant to reach *the competence*, which is measured through *indicators of sub-competence*. Different from a traditional curriculum, the new curriculum does not focus on teaching materials. The *teaching materials* are only used to reach the *sub-competence*, which is usually called *indicators*. The materials provided in the curriculum refer to types of

discourse, which are often in the forms of conversational interaction. The example below illustrates their relationship (Kurikulum 2004: Mata Pelajaran Bahasa Inggris, 2003).

*Competence expected from the students:* to understand interpersonal discourse

*Sub-competence:* to response interpersonal discourse appropriately

*One of the indicators of the sub-competence:* to show attention, surprise and happiness

*Materials (spoken):* Really? Oh no. Oh not again! Wonderful! Unbelievable! Terrific!

To reach the objective stated in the sub-competence, a teacher should plan learning tasks in order for the students to experience communicative activities. The teacher should decide what materials and activities that are needed to make the students have learning experiences in order for them to reach the objective. The objective is his/her priority in teaching and he/she will no longer think what grammar or vocabulary she/he has to teach as many teachers used to. The learning-teaching interaction moves from *product of learning* to *process of learning*. The process of learning is monitored starting from the beginning of the course. The students are not only evaluated from their product of learning, namely English scores, but also the progress of their learning should be assessed, monitored and recorded. The assessment is not instantly conducted but the indicators of sub-competence that the students have acquired should be recorded in what so called portfolio: a filed record of individual achievement. The record can tell us how fast or slow our students acquire the sub-competence that is expected in the curriculum. The record will give us a better picture of the development of the students' progress. This type of assessment seems to be a new way to evaluate students' learning process. The portfolio helps a teacher to monitor and picture his/her students. Since the students are expected to learn the target language at their own speed, the teacher can guide the students properly. The implementation of the competence-based curriculum makes it possible for some students to reach a certain sub-competence before the others can do it; the teacher can provide the faster students with extra works or continue working on the next competence. Those who have problems with a certain sub-competence need to work more with remedial teaching. In implementing the competence-based curriculum, the teachers should develop continuous



authentic assessment that will guide the teachers to provide suitable learning experiences for individual students. The assessment of the students' progress becomes a part of instruction and no single assessment can be used to have valid authentic assessment; we have to assess students' progress through different ways so that we can have a holistic evaluation.

## **1.7 ASSESMENT OF LANGUAGE COMPETENCE**

As mentioned earlier, the competence-based curriculum introduced in Indonesia is meant to provide the graduates of schools with competence that cover cognitive, psychomotoric, and affective skills. The skills can be assessed or evaluated through different ways of assessment. Pusat Penilaian Pendidikan (2003) has suggested different ways of assessment. Some may be relevant in the context of learning English in Indonesia and some others may be not. The following are some of the ways that can be considered.

### **1. Written test**

A written test is a common test that is classified under the verbal test. A question and answers are provided in this test. In answering the question, students may give oral responses; they do not necessarily write their responses. Students' responses may be written in the forms of signs, diagrams, graphics, and others. This test may have some purposes. It can be used to diagnose students' competence and to see the strengths and weaknesses of the students, to select students, to monitor educational standards, and others. The test may be given in the forms of objective tests, such as multiple choices, Yes/No questions and matching. The test can also be designed in the forms of non-objective tests, such as short answers, essays, and completion. This type of test, which is often called a paper and pencil test, is suitable for measuring cognitive competence of the students.

### **2. Performance assessment**

Performance assessment is done by providing situations and contexts and asking students to demonstrate their knowledge and use their knowledge in responding to the situations and contexts. This type of assessment is often considered as an authentic assessment because the students are involved in more real situations. There are at least two methods of performance

assessment, namely the holistic method and the analytic method. In the holistic method a rater or teacher only gives a single score of a student's performance while in the analytic method the rater gives different scores for different aspects. For example, in speaking test a teacher may give different scores to some aspects, such as fluency, pronunciation, grammar and other aspects of speaking. Performance test is good for English teachers to assess students' psychometric competence of English.

### **3. Attitude assessment**

As mentioned earlier the skills that the competence-based curriculum expects are cognitive, psychometric and affective skills. The affective skill can be measured through attitude assessment. Attitude is considered important since students with positive attitudes towards the target language are believed to be more motivated to learn the language than those with more negative attitudes. In turn, attitude evokes motivation, and motivation is the key to success in second language learning. The teacher can assess students' attitude from both individual students and the class. By considering students' attitude an English teacher will revise the process of teaching since attitude is not an innate factor and it can be learned or changed. Related to English learning at schools, there can be some domains of attitude, namely attitude to English, attitude to English teachers, attitude to English learning and attitude to certain topics in the English lesson. Attitude assessment is often developed by using Likert - scales and the result of the assessment usually classifies the students' attitude under positive, neutral and negative.

### **4. Project assessment**

Project assessment is meant to assess students' competence by giving a project or task to the students and they have to finish the project in a certain time. In completing the project the students should do some investigation and then report the result of the investigation in a written form. By doing the project the students learn to collect data, organize the data and report the result. The result of assessment will tell us how deep our students understand certain topic, how far they use their understanding and how skillfully they can communicate their information.

## 5. Portfolio

Portfolio is a filed record of individual progress in learning. Portfolio is meant to get a more authentic picture of students' learning. This way of assessment is not meant to evaluate students' achievement but it functions more as information for teachers, parents and students themselves. The information about students' progress will tell us how students experience learning English and what problems they face in learning the language. Students can make portfolio individually or in-groups, depending on the aspect that the teacher will evaluate. In observing and evaluating portfolio, English teachers should keep in mind that the aspects to evaluate should be in accordance with the sub-competence or indicators of competence to measure. This test may be good for English teachers to evaluate the process of students' writing, which deals with grammar, vocabulary, diction, and other components of the writing skill.

In order for our students to have enough learning processes that are expected in the competence-based curriculum, *Contextual Teaching and Learning* (CTL) is suggested in learning teaching activities at school. CTL has been developed in USA and Department of education has sent some teachers from six provinces to learn this approach and then disseminated this approach throughout the country. CTL has the same "soul" as Student Active Learning or CBSA, Process Approach, Quantum Learning, Meaningful Learning, Problem -Based Learning, Cooperative Learning and Work-Based Learning (Direktorat Pendidikan Lanjutan Pertama, 2002).

Principally, CTL approach can be used to teach any subject and any curriculum. Teaching through CTL can be seen from at least its seven components. The seven components of CTL are Constructivism (process of acquiring knowledge is more important than the knowledge itself), Inquiry (students themselves do and find the knowledge), Questioning (questioning can be used to trigger the students to think and to evaluate students' learning process), Learning Community (working in groups helps learning), Modeling (the teacher can be the model and not the only one), Reflection (the students think about what they have learned), and Authentic Assessment (evaluation is not only the product but also the process of learning).

Teaching English through CTL is relatively the same as communicative teaching. The underlying principles of teaching English through CTL (DMAP Paket A, 2003) will be addressed below:

*Teacher's role:* The teacher functions as a facilitator and a motivator. Even, the teacher may be involved in learning interaction with students.

*Students' role* : The students should be actively involved in learning activities.

*Roles of mother tongue* : The mother tongue can be used as a medium to learn English.

*View of language* : The target language cannot be separated from the context.

*View of learning* : Learning should take place in-groups, tasks and sharing.

*Language skills focused* : Language skills must be integrated and related to life skills or authentic/ real experience.

*Language aspects focused* : Language is not only dealt with sentences but also discourse.

*The nature of teacher-student interaction:* The interaction between teacher and students is interactive and the teacher is not the only learning resource.

*Attitude towards errors* : Errors are considered as a process of learning.

The Competence-Based Curriculum, which is believed to be more effective in preparing students to have life skills for their future, may face potential problems in the level of implementation. The following problems may appear:

Whatever the English teacher teaches and no matter how she or he teaches the language based on the competence-based curriculum, the result will be far from expected if the national evaluation is not based on the curriculum itself. It is not questionable that any English teacher expects his/her students to have good scores in the test. If the test is more dominated with language aspects (grammar and vocabulary), the teacher will teach English accordingly. As a consequence, the students will not be provided with opportunities to learn to use the language and the competence-based curriculum will be left behind.

An English teacher will not teach maximally if his/her headmaster or supervisor keep asking him/her how far the materials of the curriculum have been taught and how he/she has put his/her teaching in a lesson plan, not how the students have learned the materials.

English through the Communicative Approach makes English learners more active in practicing English. This condition may be considered as a noisy class by other teachers of other subjects and it sometimes makes English teachers feel uncomfortable. Teaching English based on competence-based curriculum needs tolerance of the teachers of other subjects.

Communicative Language Teaching requires more preparation than others do. Teachers with more than 6 hours a day of English teaching may not have sufficient time to prepare each lesson. Teachers with a lot of teaching loads may not employ it all of the time. However, this is still much better than never do they employ it at all.

Communicative Competence can be classified under four main models, namely grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence. Grammatical competence, which refers to the ability to recognize and produce the distinctive grammatical structures of a language, and use them effectively in communication. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the ability to produce utterances and understand them appropriately in different contextual factors. And, discourse competence deals with how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different genres while strategic competence refers to the ability or mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies.

Competence in English teaching is also defined differently. Competence in the competence-based curriculum refers to knowledge, skill and attitude that are reflected in a daily life. It implies that learning outcomes should cover the three domains: cognitive, psychomotoric and affective domains. Consequently, the three domains should be considered when the teacher wishes to evaluate the process of learning and teaching, and this needs different types of evaluation. Some types of evaluation are suitable for measuring cognitive competence, some are good at measuring affective competence and some others are better used in evaluating psychomotoric competence.

In order for our students to have enough learning processes that are expected in the competence-based curriculum, the approach that is called *Contextual Teaching and Learning* (CTL) is believed to be effective teaching. Teaching English through CTL is relatively the same as communicative language, which emphasizes on interaction and communication using the target language.

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# 2

## TEACHING LISTENING

Listening is probably one of the most paramount skill a person should possess. This skill should be obtained first before other language skills are developed. Without having substantial skill of listening it might be hard for the person to engage in communication with others. Listening is an active process done by the listener in order to obtain message from spoken language as intended by the speaker. Listening is an active process in which the listener plays a very active role in constructing the overall message that is actually exchanged between the listener and the speaker

Listening may commonly be described as an activity done by someone in order to get the message from something he/she hears. In order to succeed in listening, one needs to understand the speakers' intention when he/she uses particular words on a particular occasion. When a speaker says 'It's raining', for instance, he/she may convey a range of meanings. It may express the fact that the street and the trees are wet because the water falls from the sky or he/she probably complains the rain prevents him/her from leaving. Or, this sentence might also be used to express his/her rejection of doing something because it is raining. What the speaker's intention can only be interpreted by the listener's ability in understanding the words the speaker uses and his/her ability to relate the words with a particular situation.

It is complicated to identify the exact factors of how people learn to listen and understand the spoken discourse. This skill seems to develop

easily for mother tongue listening, because listening in mother tongue is relatively effortless as the speaker has already been exposed with linguistic features for quite long times. Listening in a second or foreign language situation, however, requires considerable efforts as the listener might not have considerable amount of linguistic resources.

Listening in a mother tongue is effortless. Or at least, one can easily draw the gist of what the speaker is saying to him/her. This ability is assumed to happen because one has been exposed for many years with the number of different people working in different contexts and situations. Moreover, one has been accustomed to working out with a number of language such as accent, dialect and topic. However, one sometimes still gets difficulties when listening in the mother tongue. For example, a person of advanced accounting background may not be well understood by the speakers of other background of knowledge, other example is when one is engaged in a conversation in a very noisy place, he/she needs to make a great effort to figure out what the speakers is trying to say. In this situation one may simply hear what he/she says but not arriving on listening and understanding.

Someone who does listening may appear to be inactive, but actually he/she has to do many things such as identifying how the words are pronounced, paying great attention to intonation and stressed, and constructing a message from the sentence by relating them to particular context and situation. This may have been the evidence that listening always an active process.

Therefore, listening, as an aural process, may also involve three distinct stages. Firstly, the sounds go into sensory store and organized into meaningful unit according to the existing knowledge of language of the listener. The second stage is the processing of the information by short-term memory. At this point, words or groups of words are checked and compared with information already held in long-term memory and the meaning is extracted from them. The actual words are usually forgotten once the listener has already got the meaning of the sentence or utterance. If the second information arrives in the short-term memory before the first information is processed, the listener may be confused since the system is overloaded. It is usually experienced by most new language learners.



Once the listeners have constructed a meaning from utterance, he/she might transfer the information to the long-term memory for later use. In this stage, usually a listener who wants to do this,, recodes the message and stores it in the long-term memory in a reduced form. The evidence for this is that when recalling something from the long-term memory, a person usually only remembers the gist of what has been heard rather than the exact words spoken.

It has been generally understood that listening places a greater proportion than the other three language skills. A person can listen something while he/she engaged in other activities such as speaking, or writing. This activity can even be successfully done even if when someone is about to sleep.

## **2.1 SELECTING RIGHT MATERIALS IN TEACHING LISTENING**

There has been a variety of situations where people will need or want to listen, and the reasons for listening will be many and varied, depending on what they need or wish to do. There are at least five main reasons for listening:

1. to engage in social rituals;
2. to exchange information;
3. to exert control;
4. to share feelings;
5. to enjoy yourself.

Most listening happens when someone is engaged in conversation with another person. In this particular situation, each participant changes the role automatically as a speaker and listener. The main aim of oral language teaching is therefore to enable the students to participate fully and comfortably in conversation. As many conversational situations do not always take place in an ideal situation, the teacher should train the students to get the message effectively when listening. The following are the listening situations that are best introduced to the students:

**1. Listening to a Live Conversation in Which One Takes No Part**

Sometimes, we find ourselves eaves drop other's conversation because probably they attract our attention by speaking loudly. In this particular situation, we may not have purpose to listen to but maybe we get some information from what we hear.

**2. Listening to Announcement**

This activity may occur at the airport, railway station, in the class, and in a bus station. In this situation the listener is interested in extracting the relevant message and probably just ignoring the rest of utterances.

**3. Listening to the News**

This can be done through radio and the objective is again to extract information. Different person might have different purpose, for those who want to listen to the news will listen equally attentively to the whole information, while for those who just want to listen to a particular topic they will just skip the rest.

**4. Watching the News on Television**

This process of listening is supported with visual aid. The listener may sees the speaker's body movement, gestures, facial expression, eyes direction and to some extend these will help him/her in understanding what is being said.

**5. Listening to the Radio for Entertainment**

In this process of listening, the listener generally has so limited knowledge of what is going to listen that makes him/her difficult to deal with the situation. A person who can successfully enjoy the entertainment on the radio program probably has reached an advanced skill of listening.

**6. Watching Television for Entertainment**

This activity might be much easier than listening for entertainment through radio program in the way that in this process the listener can take advantage of paralinguistic signals such as nod, smiles, frown and hand movements. It might also happen in the situation where the listener may obtain messages without making a greater effort on listening the language used by the speakers.

### **7. Watching a Film in a Cinema**

The listener in this process takes no part in conversation, but again the viewer can see the facial expressions, gestures, or hand movements.

### **8. Listening to Records**

Listening to the song is usually done by a person for pleasure and entertainment. In this activity the student can learn English through song. He/she learns how particular word is pronounced, how the two words are constructed in a rather more amusing way because student can enjoy the lyric, rhythm and melody.

### **9. Following a Lesson**

In the school where English is taught, the listener may need to grasp concept of what is said by the teacher. The student, then, is asked to respond to what they hear in a number of ways such answering the questions, taking a note or discussing the issue after listening.

### **10. Attending a Lecture**

In a collage where English has become a medium of instruction, the main objective of listening is mainly to understand the content of the lecture. In this situation, the listener will probably need to recognize signals used by the lecturer to indicate the stress of the important point, to move to another point, or to contrast.

### **11. Listening on the Telephone**

Engaging in conversation over the telephone may sometimes be disturbed with the poor quality of the equipment. It may be difficult for many people because the listener is unable to see the speaker.

### **12. Instruction**

In this activity, the listener usually responds to carry out the task. The speaker usually repeats the utterances, and asks the listener to repeat what has been said. This activity might be easier if the instruction is segmented by using some linguistic clues such as firstly, secondly, and the others.

**13. Being Interviewed**

This activity involved a person to listen to the interviewer's questions. Without paying attention to the detail the interviewee cannot answer the questions appropriately. In this situation the interviewee is required to have listening skills and strategies.

**14. Getting Professional Advice**

Almost everyone encounter this situation. When we have health problems we go to the doctor, and if our financial condition gets worse we consult to the accountant. Only by having good listening skills can we to understand what is said by the professionals.

**15. Making Arrangement**

When a person we arrange a party or a meeting, she needs to contact other person probably through telephone. She/he needs to engage in conversation with other people. Being able to understand what other people have said undoubtedly involves listening Strategies.

**2.2 PREPARING MATERIALS IN TEACHING LISTENING**

It is necessary for the English teachers to be aware of the characteristics of spoken English since it will effect on the content and the way the teachers teach in class. The teaching of listening will include; sounds, stress and intonation, the organization of speech, syntax and vocabulary, pauses and fillers, and formal/informal language. There are some types of materials that language teachers may consider in teaching listening.

**1. Sounds**

There are many English sounds that are difficult to be identified by the most beginners of the foreign language students. They have difficulty with the vowel sounds; for example, "seat/sit", "full/fool" or "sheep/ship". It is also in the case of consonant like "doubt/debt", where the /b/ is 'absent' when it is pronounced by the native speaker.

However, to be able to distinguish between words which have the similar sound does not always make the students understand the spoken language easily. The speech context will usually be able to help them identify which of the words is being spoken. The 'ship/sheep' is the most frequent

quoted example. When a person says “It is two hours by ship from Jakarta to Lampung”, it is easy for the students to realize that the speaker is not saying “It is two hours by sheep from Jakarta to Lampung”. Probably the teachers should spend more frequent times to always insert the materials that can make students aware of the sound that may lead to misunderstanding when they engaged in the activity of listening such as minimal pairs, or homophone.

## **2. Stress and Intonation**

Like in the others languages, the meaning of sentences in English spoken language is also determined by the rhythm of stressed syllables and intonation. The purpose of stress is to highlight the main message the speaker wishes to convey. For example “What are you doing?” is an open question, expecting factual response about whatever activity a person is engaged in, while “What ARE you doing?” is an exclamation of surprise or irritation on seeing a person doing whatever he/she is doing.

## **3. Organization of Speech**

There is no standard formulation of how the person says something since speaking or reading aloud is a creative process. The best what the listener can do only to understand the features which seem to occur in normal speech, for example, the speaker will probably stress the important words, or repeat the most important points in giving instruction. It is likely that the speaker uses discourse markers to alter to new points like in addition to, besides that, however, by the way, and the others.

## **4. Syntax and Vocabulary**

There is a number of differences between spoken discourse and written discourse which are important from the point of view of the students learning to listen. What they found from extracts of conversational English can be summarized as follows:

- a. Spoken English is syntactically very much simpler than written language. One thing they noticed is that speakers use few subordinate clauses. For example, speaker might say “The pant died. They’ve been away. Nobody watered it. They’d left in the sun, you see”. In written

language this sentence will be “The plant, which they’d left in the sun, died because nobody watered it while they were away”.

- b. Speakers often use incomplete sentence.
- c. The vocabulary in spoken discourse is usually much less specific than that of written discourse, in which the speakers frequently use words like *it*, *somebody*, *they*, *you* (meaning people in general), and ‘thing’, which can be only understood by relating to immediate context in which they are used.
- d. Interactive expressions like *well*, *oh*, *uhuh* feature in spoken language.
- e. Information is packed very much less densely in spoken language than in written language.

## 5. Pauses and Fillers

The pauses give listeners time to think about what has been said and to relate what has gone before. The length of the pauses depends on the speaker’s speech habit. The gaps in speech are often filled with expression such as ‘Er...’/‘Erm...’and er...’

## 6. Formal/Informal Language

Speaker’s choice of using formal and informal style depends on the conversational situation. Lecturer speaking in front of the students in the class is expected to use formal and relatively well-organized language. Chatting between friends most likely uses informal and causal style of language. In addition to introducing the formal expression, which is relatively easily found, it is worth considering that the English teachers introduce informal expressions which commonly used in casual conversational situations.

When we are engaged in conversation with other persons, we sometime deal with ‘unwritten rules’, the rules that we do not expect before, the situation that we do not commonly find in most cases. Take for example, if the scientist uses the expression such as “The sun simply has no business to be rotating as slowly as it does” (Duff, 1994), he is signaling that the listeners he has in mind is a non-scientist.

## 2.3 SELECTING TECHNIQUES IN TEACHING LISTENING

Students probably do not have any idea of what most good listeners do when they are engaged in the activity. It is the teachers' responsibility to share knowledge with them, to create environment, in the class, which can encourage the students to do listening. It is also important for the teachers to provide situations for the students to practice listening and become actively engaged in listening process. It has been commonly done by the English teachers to go through the three phases of listening process in the class; pre-listening, while listening, and post listening.

### 1. Pre teaching

In this phase, the teacher will need to realize that students have different experience in listening activity as well as bringing different background knowledge that seem to influence the process of getting meaning from the text. The students' belief, attitude toward the materials will also affect the understanding of the message.

Before the activity is done, the teachers should activate the students' ideas about the topic they are going to hear. The activities should be intended to explore what is already known about the topic, to establish necessary background knowledge (schemata), and to set a purpose.

There are several strategies that can be best considered by the teachers to "prepare" the students to be good listeners:

#### a. Activate Existing Knowledge

After describing about the topic, the teachers invite the students to ask some questions relevant to the topic. If this doesn't work, the teachers ask questions to the students. This situation can be used to determine what information in the text that the students really want to know

#### b. Build Prior Knowledge

Information about the speaker, the topic of the presentation, the purpose of the presentation will also be very helpful for the students to understand the listening materials. Probably a list of vocabulary that are relatively unfamiliar to the students and that are used in the listening materials need to be acquainted to the students. Potential problems in grammar such as tenses, subjunctive, will help them comprehend the text.

c. Rules in Listening

The teacher should explain what should be done during the listening process such as:

- 1) Students should be physically ready, they should have double pens or sharp pencils;
- 2) Students need to sit comfortably. They should be attentive as well. Students should only listen not do the other activities like reading or speaking with other students

d. Setting the Purpose

Students should know why they listen, what to look for and what to do. Do the students listen in order to comprehend the text or Do they listen to respond physically?

e. Use a Listening Guide

Some questions related to the text should be in the mind of the students. These questions are:

- 1) What is the main topic of the conversation, text?
- 2) What is the speaker's organization plan?
- 3) Who is the speaker?
- 4) What is the speaker's profession?
- 5) Where does the conversation take place?
- 6) What is the relationship between the speakers?
- 7) Whom is the speaker talking to?
- 8) When does the conversation take place?
- 9) What transitional markers does the speaker use (firstly, secondly, afterward, in contrast; however, on the other hand; therefore, consequently, as a result; and the other).

## 2. While Listening

In this activity, the students need to

- a. Be encouraged to understand the implication of rate in the listening process. Students have to be encouraged to use the rate gap to actively process the message;
- b. Have mental commentary on the text;
- c. Remember, or jot down the key words.



Moreover the students must be given some exercise to make inferences. The teacher should make the students aware of the meaning between the lines, the speaker's tone, and the body language. To some extent, note taking is possible in the most cases of listening process

### 3. Post Listening

There are many things the teachers can do to the students in this final stage in listening process. Students need to respond what they have heard in order to clarify the meaning and extend their thinking. Teachers should plan post listening activities for many reasons such as to recheck how far the students have attended the message in the text, to develop their other language skills (writing, speaking), and to check whether the students have problem in comprehending the text. This is important because the students lack of mastering the language elements (structure, vocabulary). There are some examples of post activity or follow up activity after listening has been done.

- a. The students may be given series of question in order to check their comprehension.
- b. Students may be asked to retell about what have been heard.
- c. Students are asked to discuss with their friends either in pairs or in groups
- d. Ask the students to summarize in writing or in an outline
- e. Students are asked to identify the picture/photo of certain person if what they listen is describing someone.
- f. Students are asked to 'arrive' on a certain place after listening to the direction
- g. Students may be asked to express their personal judgment or evaluation
- h. Towards the text they have heard. There is no criteria of right or wrong since this only explore the students' feeling, opinion or attitude.

Listening is more than merely hearing the spoken language. Rather, it is an active process involving listeners' integrated skill such as constructing meaning from the text they have heard, checking the information with the existing knowledge and responding the meaning either verbally or non-verbally.

Since listening is inseparable part of communication skills, the teachers should give listening a place in language teaching in the classroom. Therefore, the teachers should expose the students with varieties of conversational situation and increase the students' awareness of the features of spoken language.

## 2.4 TEACHING LISTENING DIFFERENT LEVELS

The listening materials most teachers usually use in the classroom still based on formal spoken prose. In fact, most real life situations the students encounter are spontaneous and colloquial in character.

The use of authentic materials has two main drawbacks. First, being authentic, the speech used in such recordings is un-graded and the language is often difficult, and usually suitable for the highest level. Second, most persons who has listened to authentic materials know how difficult they are to understand. The two disadvantages seem to indicate that using authentic conversation in the classroom brings a limited value as the bases for listening exercises without teachers' wise modification.

However, the teachers' negligence of using authentic conversation in the classroom means that they abandon the attempt to achieve spontaneity. We as English teachers, probably agree that the conversation we hold with persons mostly happen spontaneously. Probably the speaker asks something we do not expect before that we have to respond spontaneously.

On the other hand, as the classroom comprises of many factors such as the students' level of language proficiency, background, and size and arrangement, the activities should be carefully planned. The materials should be graded, prepared, and administered. Authentic recording may be used with modifications and approximations to authenticity in term of speed (slowing down a little to suit the students' level), providing the students with some vocabulary written on paper.

### 1. Blank Tape

The simplest source of the material that can be used to explore students' spoken language production is visual materials and it can inherently be used to practice students' listening skills. The function of the visual

information (graph, chart, map, direction) is only a trigger for the students to express information recorded into the tape.

In the communicative view of language described by Richards and Rodgers (1986), language is a system for the expression of meaning, its primary function being for interaction and communication, and its structure reflecting its functional and communicative uses. Language learning activities which support this view of language are aimed at providing whole task practice using all skills in a natural context; such activities include information gap, jigsaw, roleplay, discussion, and problem solving activities (Littlewood, 1989). In teaching listening, mostly occurs in language laboratory, teachers should design the activities that make possible for the students to listen at their own pace, resulting in decrease anxiety and a greater willingness to take risk. There must be opportunities given to the students to be able to express their ideas, opinions, problems, by recording and listening their own voice. The advantages of using blank tape are firstly, the students can monitor their own performance, secondly the students are able to recognize their own strengths and weakness (fluency, pronunciation, spontaneity), and thirdly they can evaluate their own progress. The following are the activities using blank tape (not without materials) which result in the students' productions and responses.

- a. Students record the problems (academic, personal, societal, environmental). Every student listen to his/her friend's problem and offers solutions recorded into the tape.
- b. Students are given secret objects (the students do not know the object she/he has each other) or they may use their possession. Ask them to describe the object they have. Every student listens to his/her friend's description and finally guesses what it is.
- c. Students record a schedule of their day/week/weekend, and the other students listen and complete chart.
- d. Students tell a chain story by starting with two or three sentences at one tape recorder, moving on the next tape recorder to listen on the beginning of another student's story and adding several more sentences. When the process is completed, students can listen to and comment on the complete stories.

- e. Students record directions for locating various objects/words/numbers in a grid. Other students then listen to the tape and complete the grid.
- f. Students record weather forecast for different times of the year. Other students listen and complete a weather chart.
- g. Students are asked to record the most touching experience (happiness, sadness) in their life. Other students listen and give a comment or a sympathy.
- h. Working in pairs, one student describes a picture of a room (bedroom, kitchen, living room). Another student listens and responds it by drawing objects put in the right place as described by the first student.
- i. Ask the students to read and record the written passage taken varieties of authentic texts (newspapers, magazines, etc.) followed with questions. Ask other students to listen and comprehend the passage so that they can answer the questions. However, the length of material should be wisely selected by the teacher.
- j. The teacher reads a selected short story that have been simplified in term of language aspects. After reading, the students are told to answer questions.

## **2. Recorded Material**

Many teachers have labeled that teaching listening should always be based on cassette recordings. The reasons might be that by using a cassette the listening passage can be prepared in advance, thus saving the teacher's work in the actual lesson. The fact that the teacher is not always a model of good pronunciation might be a factor to the choice of using recordings. Recording may provide the students with some valuable exposures to native accents; and their use also makes available a far greater range of language situations: different voice and accents, moods, registers, and background effects. The other reason may be driven by the fact that the teacher is the only person whose English proficiency is relatively advanced, in most cases of non-native English class. It is difficult to present dialogues for a single teacher. Cassette recording is the alternative to solve this problem. The students can listen to the dialogues focusing on the actual sound and aural practices. In the case of a non-native English class, recording may provide opportunities for the students to hear native speaker. Recording can also be replayed as frequent as the teacher thinks it is necessary. Finally, the advantage of using recording

as a source of material is that it contains variety of experiences. The students might listen to conversation, news broadcast from radio or television, or speeches.

Although using cassette recordings has advantages, the teacher should also consider factors that may take the students difficult to comprehend. In most real-life situations, the speaker is visible to the listeners (students). The presence of the speaker, the body movement and the facial expressions are aids to comprehension. Other factors that should be taken into account is dealing with the technical quality: even professionally made tapes are not always as good as what we expected (sound, even the machine that we have). If it is neglected, there will be a degree of inconvenience in the lass. Here are some tasks that can be addressed to the students in the class.

- a. At the very beginning stage, the students might be brought to the practice in hearing and saying the sound of isolated words as they are correctly pronounced by native speakers. This task is not intellectual activity in nature, rather it is a matter of acquiring habits. The teacher is just demonstrating the sound from recording and the students repeat expecting they can produce the sound with fair degree of accuracy. It is worth remembering that the purpose of this activity is training not testing.
- b. In many cases the students can repeat the sounds they have heard accurately but without understanding the idea what these mean. This type of activity should be based on short easily memorized phrases, expressions, and sentences for example "How are you?", "I am fine". Having to imitate the sounds themselves helps learners to hear them correctly; but it must be remembered that mispronunciation does not necessarily imply that they are hearing them wrongly (Ur, 1995)
- c. Probably, the oldest form of task is answering of multiple-choice questions or probably open questions based on spoken text. Many listening tests are still based on this format and it is important for the students who will take these tests to practice answering these questions.
- d. Identifying the object. The students listen to the conversation between the policeman and the woan who lost her bag. While listening the students are asked to identify the bag described by the woman.

- e. Completing personal details. The woman is telling to the officer who she is. While listening, the students complete the informations as given b the woman.
- f. The students are given news headlines on a piece of paper. While listening, the students tick the items which are mentioned by the newsreader. (Jakeman, 1996)
- g. The students are asked to listen to a dialogue of two persons. After the diaogue, the students are asked to repeat the sentence used in the dialogue (language function) followed by substitution drills (Richards, 2001) For example:

*Language function:* Asking about someone

Students listen to recording materials and repeat:

Do you know

Where he's from?  
 What country he's from?  
 What he does?

- h. Fill in the details. Students listen to telephone conversation between a man and a hotel receptionist who is making a reservation. Ask them to listen and fill in his booking (name, initials, type of room, price, date of arrival, date of departure, address).
- i. Ask the students to listen a passage "British and American English". After listening, the students are asked to fill in the table containing the characteristics of British and American English so that it can give complete information of differences between British and American English in terms of vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation (Rost, 1981).
- j. Listening to songs. The teachers' consideration of using songs may be that songs contain the vocabulary and structure. It is also used to get the students to produce oral English by singing for fun. While singing the song, the students are asked to fill in the missing words. The teacher can vary the activities to the students after singing the songs for example asking the students to discuss the cultural aspects, the content, and the purpose of the song.

### 3. Use of Video in Listening Work

Many English teachers are in favor of using video as the source of listening work in the class. This might be caused by the fact that video recordings enable the students to have visual clues to help them understand what they hear. The students will see the speaker's facial expressions, body movements, social surroundings, and situations. In some instances, the students will be able to see to whom the speaker is talking to. And for practice, video seems to combine many advantages; the speakers and the immediate contexts can be seen by the students. The following are the activities that can be offered for the teacher in the class.

- a. Information gap of series of story. The class are divided into two group A and B. Group A is asked to watch a part of story in the video. After watching and listening, group A retells what have been seen and listened to group B. And the next turn group B watches and listens to the next part and retell to group A. At the end of the session both groups watch the whole story and check the information that seem to be untold by the groups.
- b. After watching a video, the students are asked to retell the story or information they have found in a written form.
- c. After watching a video, the students are asked to retell the story or information they have found in a spoken form.
- d. After watching a video, the students are asked to discuss in pair about the information so they can complete each other.
- e. After watching a video, the students are asked to complete the summary by supplying the words or sentences.
- f. After watching a video, the students are asked to brainstorm by inviting the students to answer questions. At the end of the class, the teacher might have the students tell the whole story the video contains.
- g. After watching a video, the students are asked to answer questions. Probably, this is the most common activity many English teachers do in the class.

## 2.5 EVALUATING LISTENING SKILLS

As being skillful in listening involves varieties of language aspects and skills, as well, testing listening should be carefully planned. Aspect tested for the lowest level should be different from the aspects tested for

the intermediate or advanced level. It ranges from testing discriminating between the sounds (word) to comprehending mini lecture.

### 1. Testing Phoneme Discrimination

Sounds in a foreign language are relatively difficult to discriminate especially when this does not occur in the native language. There are several ways to test phoneme discrimination; that is the students' ability to tell the difference between different sounds. The words chosen should be closed to the correct word. However, there are limited numbers of words which have similar sounds. Study the following example.

- a. Students are asked to listen to the tape and they will hear a sentence which contains of the word in the choices.

Example 1: Students hear : **There was a sheep in the dock**

Students answer : (A) sheep (B) ship

Example 2: Students hear : **Would you believe it, she got married when she was eighty.**

Students answer : (a) 80 (b) 18

- b. The students are given two pictures and they are asked to choose which one matches the sentence they have heard.

### 2. Testing Understanding Statement

Students are instructed to choose one of four statements which is closely related to the sentence they have heard from the tape. This includes testing the students' ability in differentiating sentence intonation. Student may be given the statement "**Marry is a clever student in the class**" and asked to decide whether the speaker is making straightforward statement, a sarcastic statement or question. Since the context is neutral, it is sometimes very difficult to avoid ambiguity. In real communication, the listeners may make use of background knowledge, context or surrounding to get through the message. As testing listening involves many aspects of language, the test may cover such as *similar sounds, the number of discrimination, synonym, negations, contextual reference, cause and effect, conditional sentence, chronological order, and comparison* (Lougheed, 1995). This can be seen in the following example.



**For example**

Students hear : **He has a habit of going to bed early**

The students read:

- a. He goes to sleep early
- b. He is surly at bed time
- c. It is better that he has a hobby
- d. His rabbit is in the flower garden.

**3. Testing Understanding of Short Dialogue**

This is probably little more complex than understanding statements since it involves understanding to sentences which are spoken by two persons followed by question. To some extent, the students face more challenges to get the meaning from the dialogue. The students may have no problem to understand the first sentence but getting difficulties understanding the second sentence. Or, it might be that the students have already understood with the second sentence but facing difficulty understanding the first sentence. There is also possibility that the students have no problem with understanding the dialogue but getting confused with the questions especially for questions using complex sentences. Like understanding the statements, understanding the dialogues, the students will also encounter the same listening problems such as *similar sound, number discrimination, synonym, negations, contextual references, cause and effect, conditional sentences, chronological order, and comparison* (Lougheed, 1995). Now study the following example.

**For example:**

Students hear :

Woman : Stop me if you've heard this one.

Man : Please, we can't take any more of your humor.

Question : What is the woman going to do?

The students read:

- A. Spread a rumor
- B. Miss someone
- C. Heard some cattle
- D. Tell a joke

#### 4. Testing Understanding of Mini-talk and Language Dialogue

The purpose of the test is measuring the students' understanding of the passage of 130 to 230 words that last for 40 to 70 minutes (Lougheed, 1995). In this section of the test, the students are asked to listen to the talk or dialogue and then answering the question by choosing the correct choices provided in the students' paper.

For most foreign language students, this part of the test is the most difficult to finish since it requires students to possess sufficient skills to process the message carried by the text. In addition, the students should have relatively adequate grammar and vocabulary related to the text. Having listening skills, adequate vocabulary and grammar mastery, and students' background knowledge seems to ease them to attend to the meaning of the text.

In this part of the test, the students usually will be given short talks and conversation. After each of them, they will be asked some questions. Here is an example:

Students will hear:

*Balloons have been used for about a hundred year. There are two kinds of sport balloons, gas and hot air. Hot air balloons are safer than gas balloons, which may catch fire. Hot-air balloons are preferred by most balloonists in the United States because of their safety. They are also cheaper and easier to manage than gas balloons. Despite the ease of operating a balloon, pilots must watch the weather carefully. Sport balloon flights are best early in the morning or late in the afternoon, when the wind is light.*

Then students will hear the question:

Why are gas balloons considered dangerous?

Students will read:

- A. They are impossible to guide
- B. They may go up in flam
- C. They tend to leak gas
- D. They are cheaply made

In teaching listening, the teachers should offer ranges of variety of materials to the students such as authentic, recorded, and video recording

materials. Exposing these materials in the class will provide the students with ranges of listening experience so that it will eventually develop students' listening skills.

Authentic material provides some language aspects; phonemes, vocabulary, and grammar that are used in real situations. By using this in the class facilitates the students to use the language in natural settings. On the other hand, recorded materials, which are designed for developing students' activities in the class, will be able to develop students' intended listening skills such as coping with similar sounds, making inferences, and note taking.

Video recordings offer a degree of entertainment in the class while the students are working with the language used by the speakers. It also shows the communication settings, speakers' facial expressions, context that can ease the students to attain comprehension. Apart from the material presented in the class, the teacher should also evaluate the students' progress properly so that it can diagnose the students' weaknesses and strengths.

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# 3

## TEACHING SPEAKING

This chapter is concerned with teaching speaking. It includes the important aspects of planning in teaching speaking the teacher needs to consider prior to going into the classroom. Other related factors of teaching speaking, i.e., preparing materials, selecting techniques in teaching speaking, teaching speaking for different levels, and media for teaching speaking, are also described in this chapter.

### 3.1 PLANNING OF TEACHING SPEAKING

Teachers considerably need to have good planning of teaching speaking before going into the classroom so that they have destinations they require their students to reach and how they are going to reach the goal. Planning helps teachers prepare activities they are going to do in the classroom, which in turn, leads them to have high self-confidence. Teachers will, therefore, have to make sure that they are well prepared in particular, with what and how they are going to do with their students so that the class may work well as planned.

According to Harmer (8:122), a good plan needs to have judicious blend of both coherence and varieties. Coherence means that students can see a logical pattern to the lesson. The various activities in learning process must have connection between them.

The statement suggests that teachers are required to provide students with a wide range of activities or tasks which are rich in varieties but have a logical connection to each other. In other words, students are exposed to a fairly similar theme or topic but are manipulated with various related activities. This is particularly intended for students not to get bored with the class so that they are stimulated to keep speaking. For example, when a teacher requires her/his students to practice speaking of a certain topic, e.g., "Daily activities", The coherent and various varieties with reference to the topic might take the forms as shown below.

### Activity 1

The teacher tells students his/her daily activities as shown in the example below. The students listen to and respond the teacher's activities.

At 6 a.m. every morning I am in the living room. I usually read newspaper and drink a cup of coffee. Then I go to the office at about 7 a.m. I go there by car.


It takes about fifteen minutes from my house to the office. I am in the office for 8 eight hours a day. I do a lot of works in the office such as: teaching, reading paper, correcting students' work, etc.

### Activity 2a

No	Time	Where	Activities
1	7 a.m.	in the dining room	have breakfast
2	8 a.m.	.....	.....
3	9 a.m.	.....	.....
4	10 a.m.	.....	.....
5	11 a.m.	.....	.....
6	1 p.m. Etc.	.....	.....

### Activity 2b

Please complete the table with your habits

No	What do you usually do when you are	What do you usually do when you	Reasons
1	Tired	Have no money	
2			.....
3		.....	.....
4		.....	.....
5		.....	.....
6	 m. Etc.	.....	.....

### Activity 3

Please discuss (in turn) your daily activities with a friend in pairs according to your daily activities you have provided in the table. You may follow the model of the dialogue below.

A : Where are you at 8 in the morning?

B : I'm in dining room.

A : what do you usually do in the dining room?

B : I have breakfast. Etc.

### Activity 4

Students discuss (in turns) their friend's daily activities they have discussed in Activity 3 with another pairs or dyads. They can follow the model of dialogue as below.

A : Could you please tell me B's daily activities?

C : Sure.

A : where is she or he at 8 in the morning?

C : She or he is in the dining room.

A : what does she or he (usually) do in the dining room?

C : She or he has breakfast, etc.

### Activity 5

Every single student reports (in turn) his or her daily activities in a group of three or four students. The rest of the students are required ask him or

her some questions after he/she has finished telling his/her daily activities. The student may start telling his or her daily activities, using the following models.

A : I would like to talk about my daily activities from morning to evening. I am (usually) in the dining room at 8 a.m. I have breakfast at the time, etc.

D : (Could you please) tell me what you (usually) have for breakfast?

A : I have fried rice and omelet.

E : With whom do you have breakfast?

A : .....

F : Who makes fried rice and omelet for you?

A : .....

### **Activity 6**

Students voluntarily tell their daily activities they have talked about to the whole class as shown in the example below.

Good morning my dear friends, I would like to tell you my daily activities. I am usually in the living room at 6 in the morning. I have breakfast at the time.

And at 7 a.m. I go to campus by motorcycle. It takes around 30 minutes from my house to campus, etc.

The planning of the speaking activities above clearly indicates various activities which are logically connected to each other where students are studying the same topic (Daily activities) but they are provided with such various activities that they do not get bored with the class.

Furthermore, Harmer point out that there are basically four aspects of planning: 1) who is going to be taught, 2) what they are going to learn or be taught, 3) how they are going to learn or be taught, and 4) with what.

The first aspect includes for example, "How many students are there in the class? What ages? What sexes? What are they like? Cooperative? Quite? Difficult to control?" It is so important for teachers to know their students so that this will lead them to the next steps they have to do with their students,



choosing the appropriate materials, technique, and media they are going to use in the classroom.

After the students are recognized, teachers will have to determine what they want to do with the students. This is related to the materials or topics the students have to study for example, "introducing yourself," "asking for directions," "daily activities," "describing people," "talking about hobbies." Choosing appropriate materials is based on the students' needs or backgrounds as will be discussed in more detail in the following part of this book..

Once the teacher has decided to choose the topic the students have to study, he will have to select appropriate techniques which can engage the students to practice what they are studying (materials). This is closely related to the tasks or activities the students have to do in the classroom. In this stage, the teacher has to design or provide sorts of activities or tasks that may allow the students to keep stimulated to study the topic. The selection of classroom activities may depend on the characteristic of the topic for study. The techniques of teaching speaking that may meet the feature are *Asking and Answering, Describing and Drawing, Discussion, Guessing, Remembering, Miming, Ordering, Completing a form of questionnaire, or Role Play*. The example of each technique is given in a separate part of this book.

The last aspect of the planning step the teacher needs to take into account is the classroom aids or media. A good plan necessarily include the classroom aids the teacher are going to use to support the classroom activities. Choosing the right media is necessary to help the teachers transfer the message to the students. Teachers need to select the media that fit the topic of speaking the students have to study. Pictures or photographs, maps, realia, and audio visuals are sorts of media which are commonly used in teaching speaking.

In short that the four aspects of the planning of teaching speaking (who is going to be taught, what they are going to learn or be taught, how they are going to learn or be taught, and with what) must be well planned, so that they are coherent. Each aspect of the planning is discussed in more detail in the following heading below.

### 3.2 PREPARING MATERIALS OF SPEAKING

As previously described that one of the planning aspects teachers have to do is what they are going to teach or what the students have to study. This is related to the topics or lessons the students have to study. Therefore, the materials meant in this book refer to the topics the students have to work on as the terms, materials and media or teaching aids, often overlap and this sometimes makes teachers confused.

Teachers need to prepare the materials they are going to do with their students before going into the classroom. This warns that they are required to select the right materials in that they will have to be relevant to the students' backgrounds or needs. In addition, the materials must be suited to the context with which the students are familiar so that they can easily get involved in teaching-learning activities. Harmer particularly suggests a number of things when the teacher wants to use the right materials, for example, whether the language used in the topic of discussions is at the right level, the topic or content is suitable for the students, there are right kinds of activities, and the sequencing of the lesson or activities is logical.

It is important for the teachers to take deeply into account the four criteria of choosing the materials so that the class may run well as planned before. Teachers need to select whether the language used in the topic is at the right level; otherwise, the students may find it difficult to express the ideas about the topic of discussion. For example, the students with elementary levels of proficiency have to discuss the topic, using the very simple language, for example, *where is the book?* The students with advanced levels may talk about the topic using more complex syntaxes.

The second aspect of selecting the materials is that the topic or content must be suitable for students. This suggests that teachers have to provide their students with a number of topics which are familiar and suitable with their backgrounds and levels. For example, the students who live in remote areas should be more relevant to talk about the topics such as, "Like and dislike about local foods," or talking about "Sunday's activities" or "Helping parents" rather than asking them to make a dialogue about pizza or burger while they have minimum backgrounds of it. Similarly, it would be irrelevant for young learners to discuss the topics beyond their levels or

background knowledge, e.g., “Applying for a job”. Or, asking the students of technical school to talk about “How a robot works” may be regarded as being more appropriate with their backgrounds rather than having them discuss “Procedures of cooking rice”.

The third step to select the materials for teachers to follow is that there must be right activities of speaking. This refers to the way the materials are presented in the classroom. The activities of speaking are necessarily made in such a way that they are able to extend the students’ engagement with the topic. They must be arranged in the right stages beginning from the stage what Hadfield and Harmer have in common: *Setting up* or *Engage*, *Practice speaking* or *Activate* and *Feedback* or *Study* as will be discussed in more detail in the different part of this book. Teachers are required to first design *Setting up* or *Engage* stage commonly called warming-up or pre-speaking activities. It is an attempt to keep the students stimulated to study the topic of discussions; it must be made interesting.

After the students are ready to study the topic, they must be provided with various activities which allow them to practice what they are learning. In other words, they must be given a lot of opportunities to practice the topic of discussions. And the last, the teachers have to be able to identify the problems the students have when they practice the topic and they may cope with their problems in the feedback or study stage.

The last aspect of choosing materials is that the material must be logically sequenced. This warns that teachers have to take deeply into account the sequence of the topic or the material students have to study. With reference to one of the features of communicative approaches, the sequencing of materials can be developed on the basis of any consideration of *content*, *function*, or *meaning* which maintain interest. In other words, teachers are free to determine the sequence of materials whether it is based on content, function, or meaning, provided that the students are engaged to learn the topic of speaking. For example, studying “introducing yourself” based on function may come first while talking about “daily activities” comes later.

The right materials should meet the four features for this may keep teaching learning activities run well. Providing the students with the materials which are irrelevant to the criteria may lead to great difficulty in

running the class for they may not be fully involved in teaching-learning activities. They might, as a result, become less motivated to keep studying or speaking.

### 3.3 SELECTING TECHNIQUES IN TEACHING SPEAKING

The aim of teaching speaking is basically similar to that of the other language skills: listening, reading, and writing in that the students are ultimately able to use the language accurately, fluently, and appropriately with the context of situation. Teaching speaking; however, gives emphases more on oral production as it is called a productive skill. The students in the class of speaking must be actively engaged to speak; they need to be provided with the various oral tasks or activities provoking them to practice speaking.

As previously mentioned in the planning stage that one of the stages the teacher has to do in teaching speaking is the way the materials or topics will be studied. This implies that the teacher considerably needs to provide students with the right technique so that they are optimally engaged in studying. One of the successes in the teaching and learning process may depend much on the techniques or the strategies the teacher employs in the classroom. The teaching and learning process is necessarily made so enjoyable that students are fully involved in studying. Atkinson et al. (1977:73) argues that “an individual will be encouraged to do a certain thing when he knows that the thing pleases him.”

The teacher is required to choose strategies or techniques that can stimulate students to speak in English. Nunan (1989: 51) summarized from a number of theories and research that learning to speak in a second language or foreign language will be facilitated when learners are actively engaged in attempting to communicate. Swain more specifically suggests that we learn to speak by speaking. This suggests that students must be simultaneously exposed to any kinds of oral activities or tasks, allowing them to practice speaking. Therefore, the teacher must be able to design the scenarios that can keep the students stimulated to practice the topic of discussion.

The materials might not be well studied unless the students are fully involved. Selection of the right techniques is necessarily taken into account;

otherwise, the teaching learning activities may not run well as planned before. The more appropriately the technique the teacher uses the better the materials will be studied. It is, however, not such an easy way for teachers to choose the right technique in teaching speaking that they often desperately deal with the class when the techniques they employ in the classroom lesson do not work well. A certain technique may work well with a certain level or a group of students but it may not work well with other or different levels. In such circumstances, teachers, as suggested by Harmer, are required to be flexible enough to cope with the situation. This indicates that teachers have to be creative to find the right solution so that the students are most likely to keep studying. They may try to find other activities or strategies, for example, asking students to work with a different group or pairs.

Indeed, the concept of the current approach to the teaching-learning process the so-called contextual teaching learning (CTL) claims that learning will be meaningful when teachers are able to relate the materials to be studied to the context of a real life and learners are actively involved to experience or act out what they are learning or studying. This is in line with the paradigm of the mastery learning that students or learners have to balance mastery of the topics or the materials they are studying not only cognitively but also psychomotorically. This seems to improve the current teaching practice which primarily focuses on cognitive aspects, disregarding both affective and psychomotoric factors. In other words, students are primarily exposed to study the language, instead of using it as a means of communication. As a result, they know the language but they are not able to speak even in a very simple way of communication.

A speaking lesson as Hadfield (1999) notices is a kind of bridge for learners between the classroom and the world outside. Therefore, there are three features of speaking activities to bridge the classroom and the real world (1) practice opportunities for (2) purposeful communication in (3) meaningful situations. The students in speaking activities need to be given a lot of oral opportunities to practice the language suited to the real life communication.

There are three stages to develop speaking skills that may meet the three features above. Hadfield proposes: *Setting up*, *Practice speaking* and *Feedback*, and Harmer introduces EAS standing for *Engage*, *Activate* and

*Study.* The stages to teaching speaking proposed by Hadfield and Harmer differ only in terms of names of the stages but they have three stages in common. The three stages need to be made coherent so that the teaching activities may run well as planned.

Setting up or Engage stage is to introduce the students to the topic so that they are motivated to study it. In other words, this aims to make the students ready with the topic they are studying. The topic may be demonstrated to the whole class, or the students may make materials to be used during speaking practice. Demonstration of the topic can be made in order that the students find it easy to do the task provided by the teacher.

Demonstration as suggested by Hadfield can be done in a number of different activities as below:

1. on your own in front of the class depending on the appropriate topic of speaking;
2. with a learner or learners, in front of the class;
3. with a whole class;
4. students are asked to prepare materials that will be used in conversation.

This stage is intended for the students to get ready with what they have to do. The example of each demonstration is presented in the part of technique in teaching speaking. According to Hadfield, the demonstration stages can be a good time for students to practice pronunciation of any words, phrases, or intonation that teachers know learners will find it difficult to pronounce. The teacher may train his/her students to practice pronouncing certain sounds or intonations of English which are not common to occur in Bahasa Indonesia.

The second stage of teaching speaking, the speaking practice or the activate stage, is deemed as the main stage of speaking activities where students are exposed to practice the topic introduced in the setting-up or in the engage stage. The activities are necessarily suited to the real-life situations. For example, when the topic of speaking Interviewing, not only are students exposed to language forms, i.e., yes/no questions and wh-questions, but they are provided with the activities which allow them for genuine communication. They can be manipulated using a mystery guest. One group as my story guest. The students are basically exposed to the form

of language but manipulated the activities reflecting real life situations or suited to the context of real communication.

In this stage the students are also provided with a number of different activities or tasks but in a fairly similar theme or topic of discussion. This is done in order that they are not suffered from boredom and are familiar with the topic so that they can fluently talk about it. For example, the topic of discussion is *Asking for direction*. The students first practice to ask his or her friend directions to some streets in the map provided. After the first task or activity is finished, they are asked to do similar activity to that of the first but asking directions to the places in the map provided, for instance, the library, the police station, and the movie theater. The next activity the students may ask for direction to the place surroundings. They may communicate each other in pairs or groups, or compete as teams.

The last stage of developing speaking skills is feedback or study. Teachers in this stage may ask students to report back what they have talked about. If the activity has involved, for example, a discussion or a questionnaire, ask a few students to report back to the rest of the class as shown in the following example.

Teacher : Ani, now you tell me how to ask for direction and Anto answers.  
Ani : Excuse me, how do I get to the post office?  
Anto : Sure, it is on Jln. Gajah Mada in your left next to the drugstore.

It is also important to give feedback on the students' errors regarding the language practiced during the activities of speaking. Teachers' notes while monitoring the activities can be used as the basis of the feedback. In the case of errors regarding grammar and vocabulary the students have made, the teacher might try to write them on the board so that the students can see what is wrong. If the majority of the students have made the same error, the teacher might need to spend time explaining or clarifying it. The teacher can also provide the students with similar activities which enable them to correct their language problems. S/he might also give students homework, taking the form of communicative exercises of forms to make sure they have understood and are able to cope with their language problems.

As speaking is oral production; it cannot be separated from producing sounds. This implies that pronunciation keeps a crucial part in the process of

teaching speaking. This is also a good stage in the lesson to focus on persistent pronunciation problems. In other words, pronunciation practice in speaking activities is needed, so that the students are able not only to speak English fluently but also to pronounce it correctly. Therefore, their pronunciation is easy to understand.

The topic for discussions can be selected on the basis of the students' problems while in the process of speaking practice. While it is impossible to address every single problem that teachers will encounter, an attempt can be made to cover points that many students will find troublesome. These troubles include stress pattern, intonation in different types of questions and statements, and some work on individual sounds, focusing on those that give troubles most often such as the basic sounds (long and short vowels or the consonants) particularly, those which are not common in Bahasa Indonesia.

While the students are working together in pairs or groups, the teacher as Hadfield (1999) suggests, has the opportunity to give them individual attention. There are several roles the teacher might adopt:

1. **Explainer**-if some learners have not understood what to do or have problems with the language, you will need to help them. If a large number of learners have the same problem, it is probably better to stop the activity, explain to everyone, and then start again;
2. **Controller**-if the activities get too noisy, the teacher will have to quieten things down. For example, raising your hands and learners to raise theirs. The teacher will also make sure that all learners are speaking English. This means that the teacher will be quick on his feet.
3. **Evaluator**-these activities give the teacher a valuable opportunity to listen to the learners and evaluate their progress, both as individuals and as a whole class. The teacher can get a lot of feedback from listening to them to help you decide whether they have understood, and the teacher can move on, or whether they need more teaching. The teacher (you) can also give them feedback on their problems. It is best not to interrupt the activity as this can impede fluency and undermine their confidence. Carry a piece of paper with you, note down errors and problems, and deals with them in the feedback stage.



The example of the three stage of each technique of teaching speaking is given in more detail in the part of Techniques in Teaching Speaking below.

### 3.4 TECHNIQUES IN TEACHING SPEAKING

There are various ranges of techniques in teaching speaking recommended for the teachers to follow. What they have in common is that the students are suggested to work in pair or in small group. It is understandable that pair or group work has been widely recommended for the teachers to use in teaching speaking. The results of the research have shown the advantages of small group work. Long, et al. (1976) claim that group work engaged learners to use considerably more language than teacher-fronted tasks in which all students proceed in a lock-step fashion. Bruton and Samuda (1980) found that learners in a small group were capable of correcting one another successfully. Porter (1986) states that learners produce more errors or 'learn each other's mistake' when working together in a small group. Therefore, working in pairs or in groups in speaking activities is highly recommended.

Hadfield (1999) provides a number of different techniques to create meaningful context for speaking practice in English.

- Ask and Answer** : Learners ask and answer the questions.
- Describe and Draw (information gap)**: Learners work in pair. Learner A has a picture which learner B cannot see. Learner A describes the picture and learner B draws it.
- Discussions** : Learners work in pairs or a group to find out each other's ideas or opinions on a topic.
- Guessing** : The teacher or some of the learners have information in which the others have to guess by asking the questions.
- Remembering** : Learners close their eyes and try to remember, for example, items from a picture or the location of objects in the classroom.
- Miming** : A learners mimes, for example, a feeling or action in which the others have to identify.
- Ordering** : Learners arrange themselves in a particular order (for example, alphabetical) by asking questions until they find their correct position.

**Completing a form or questionnaire:** Learners ask and answer questions, or provide information, in order to complete a form or a questionnaire.

**Role Play** : Learners act out an imaginary situation. The learners either use a dialogue or the teacher gives them instructions about a way to say.

Procedures of every single technique of teaching speaking in the classroom by Hadfield (1999) are described below:

### 1. Ordering

*Topic:* Number

*Procedures:* Setting up/Engage (pre teaching activities):

- a. Ask for five volunteers to come to in front of the class. Give each student a card with a number from one to five.
- b. Write the following example on the board:  
A : *What's your number?*  
B : It's... ..
- c. Tell the volunteers to find out each other's numbers using the dialogue on the board. They should then arrange themselves in order of the numbers on their card.

*Speaking Practice:*

- d. Collect the cards from the volunteers, add them to your other cards, and mix them up.
- e. Give each student in the class a card and ask them all to stand up. Tell everyone to arrange themselves in a line from the smallest number to the largest. Show them where the person with the smallest number should start the line. Remind them that they must use the dialogue and show their cards to anyone else.

*Feedback/Study:*

- f. Review any sequences of numbers the learners had problems with. Practice TH in three. Teach the students to make this sound by putting their tongue between their teeth and breathing out.

## 2. Remembering

*Topic of study:* Locating objects

*Procedures:* Setting up/ Engage (pre teaching activities):

- a. Close your eyes, then ask the class to tell you where something is, for example:  
Teacher : Where is my bag?  
Students : It is under the table?
- b. With your eyes still closed, get learners to ask you where one or two things in the classroom are, for example:  
Learner : Where are the flowers?  
Teacher : They are on the cupboard.

*Speaking Practice/ Activate stage:*

- c. Tell the students each to prepare a number of questions about the location of objects in the classroom. Write down model of questions and answers on the board particularly, for elementary level students if the teacher feels the students need a guide. Where is the/my ...?  
Where are the/my ...?  
It is on the ...  
    In front of ...  
    Behind ...
- d. Then get them to work in pairs. One in each pair should close his or her eyes and the other should ask the questions she or he has prepared. The student with closed eyes should try to reply from memory.
- e. Then the other learners should ask his or her questions.

*Feedback/ Study Stage:*

- f. The teacher may revise any prepositions the learner had problems with by asking individual learners about the location of objects in the classroom.
- g. Practice the stress patterns in the replies to the questions:  
It's under the table. They are on windowsill.

### 3. Miming

Setting up/Engage stage:

- a. Write on the board:  
For example, are you ...?
- b. Mime a feeling to the class, for example “tired” by yawning or happy by smiling. Get the learners to ask you how you feel, for example “Are you tired?” reply: “Yes, I am” or “No I am not” as appropriate.
- c. Choose a confident student and give him or her one of the pieces of paper with a ‘feeling’ word written on it. Tell the students to mime the adjective and get the rest of the class guess what the feeling is.

*Practice speaking/Activate stage:*

- d. Divide the class into two teams of equal size. Put the two sets of pieces of paper face down on your desk.
- e. Get a member of each team to come to the front of the class and take a piece of paper from their team’s pile. They should mime the feeling written on it until someone in their team guesses them correctly.
- f. Then another member of the team should come to the front, take the next piece of paper from the pile, and mime the feeling written on it for the rest of the team to guess, and so on.
- g. The first team that finishes the pieces of paper is the winner.

*Feedback:*

- h. Review any pronunciation problems the students had and make *yes no* questions.

### 4. Asking and Answering

*Setting up:*

- a. Give all the learners sheets of paper.
- b. Ask them to close their eyes and imagine a photograph of their whole family. Give a little time to do this, then ask them to draw their photo on their sheet of paper.

*Speaking practice/ Activate stage:*

- c. Ask for a volunteer to come to the front and copy his or her photo on he board. Ask him or her to describe the people in he picture, for example

“This is my father. He is 47 years old” help the student by asking questions, for example “Whose is this?”, “Is this your mother?”

- d. Then get the students to work in pairs or group telling each other about people in the photos they have drawn. Put model questions and answer on the board to help them for example:

Anto : *Who is this?*

Ani : *This is my...*

Is this your ...

Yes it is or no isn't.

*Feedback:*

- e. Ask the students to describe their photos to the rest of the class. Practice for example the [(-)] sounds. Like in **This** is my ...

## 5. Describing and Drawing

*Media* : two posters of the comic figures with contrasting features; sheets of paper for all the learners.

*Topic* : parts of the body

*Setting Up:*

- a. Divide the students in pairs. Ask one student in each pair to turn round so he/she is facing the back of the room. The other should stay facing the front. Put one poster up at each end of the room.

Speaking practice:

- b. Tell students facing the front of the room to describe to their partner (who is facing the other way), the poster they can see. Their partner should draw it on his or her paper. No peeping. If necessary, put up a poster of model sentences in speech bubbles as support, for example:

He/she has got a ...

He/she has got ...

His/her ... is/are ...

- c. Tell the students facing the back of the room to describe their poster in same way. This time the students facing the front of the room should draw.

- d. Tell the students facing the back to turn around. Take down the poster at the back of the room and put it up beside the other one. Get the students to make sentences comparing their drawings, for example, "He has got big feet; he has got small feet"

*Feedback:*

- e. Draw a comic figure on the board with different pictures to the ones on the two posters. Ask learners to describe it, if necessary using speech bubbles. Practice the stress pattern taken from the sentence used by the students.

## 6. Discussion

*Topic:* Talking about part of the body and adjectives.

*Setting up:*

- a. Ask a learner who has some things in common with you to come to the front of the class. Pre teach 'both' by standing beside him or her, gesturing, and talking about the things you have in common, for example:

We are both tall

We have both got dark hair.

- b. Write the following speech bubbles on the board:

We are both ...

We have both got ...

- c. Ask for the two volunteers to come to the front of the class and say what they have in common. Tell them to use the language in the speech bubbles.

*Speaking practice:*

- d. Get the learners to work in pairs. Tell them to make notes about the things they have in common. Give a limit of five minute.
- e. Ask pairs to stand up and tell the rest of the class the things they have in common, using the language in the speech bubbles.

*Feedback:*

- f. Ask a few students to make new sentences using, 'we are both' and 'we have both got ...' about themselves and other students in the class.

## 7. Role Play

Media: simple plan of your town centre, on a poster or on the board.

*Setting Up/engage:*

- Put up the poster, or draw a simple plan of your town center on the board.
- Write a list of the most important place in the centre on the board, for example: Church/mosque, Market, Cinema, Bank, Park, Restaurant, Bus station, etc,

*Speaking practice/activate:*

- Ask the students to imagine they are standing outside, for example, the post office. Pretend you are lost and ask them how to get to the place on the list, for example:

Teacher: excuse me. I 'm a stranger here. Can you help me? How do I get to the market?

*The students: Go down main street ... turn left. The market is on your right, opposite the café.*

- Repeat the procedure with the next place on the list.
- Divide the students in to pairs and tell them to take turns in directing each to the other places on the list.

*Feedback/study*

- Ask a few students to tell the rest of the class about showing the directions.

## 8. Completing a Questionnaire

*Topic:* Food and drink

*Setting up:*

- Write a questionnaire grid like this on the board. Use kinds of foods and drinks that the students are familiar with.

*Do you like ...?*

Kinds of food	Very much	Quite	Not very much	Not at all
Banana				
Chocolate				

Kinds of food	Very much	Quite	Not very much	Not at all
Tea				
Orange				
Etc				

- b. Check that the students know the difference between 'very much,' 'quite,' 'not very much,' and 'not at all.'
- c. Ask for a volunteer to come to the front of the class. Ask him or her the question: 'Do you like bananas?' he or she should reply 'I like it very much' or 'not at all', depending on the students' answer. Tick the appropriate answer. Continue with the other items of food or drink

*Speaking practice:*

- d. Rub out the first student's replies and ask for two more volunteers to come to the front. Get one of them to ask the other the questions, and to tick the appropriate choice.
- e. Rub out the replies again. Give the students sheets of paper and ask them to copy the questionnaire.
- f. Divide the students into group. Tell them to put their partner's name at the top of their copy of the questionnaire. They should ask their partners the questions and tick the appropriate food or drink.

*Feedback:*

- g. Ask individual students to report back to the whole class on their partners' likes and dislikes. The teacher may write down the sentence frames up on the board to help them, for example: ....likes.....very much

He/she quite likes ....

He/she doesn't like ... very much.

He/she doesn't like ..... at all.

The teacher may also practice **schwa** sound as this vowel sound is very common in unstressed syllables in English, like in 'banana', 'chocolate', etc.



The techniques of teaching speaking proposed by Hadfield seem to fit the students with elementary or low levels of proficiency for the students are completely guided with the model of conversation and the techniques are not cognitively high demanding.

suggests other techniques and procedures of teaching speaking that might be suited for the students with intermediate or advanced levels are introduced by Goldstein (2010) as described below.

## 9. Fishbowl Technique

The Fishbowl Technique can be used for many things. It can be used to model good discussions or other classroom instructional methods. It can also be used to help students think critically about a topic.

### Procedures:

#### Technique 1

1. The teacher identifies a small group of students (4-5 students). The teacher provides the students with a topic to discuss. This topic can come from the readings for the class, from class lecture, from students' experiences, etc.
2. If there is time, the students in this group can research an issue, topic, or problem.
3. The students in this group sit in the center of the room. These students are in the "fishbowl". The remaining students sit in a circle around them.
4. The students in the center discuss their topic.
5. While the students in the center are discussing, the audience (the other students) pay attention to the conversation. They can write down things like: what works well in a good discussion, what does not work well for a good discussion, interesting ideas that come up, questions, etc.
6. At some point, the teacher stops the students in the "fishbowl". Then, the teacher begins a discussion with the whole class. The discussion should be based on what occurred in the "fishbowl" discussion.

#### Technique 2

1. The teacher identifies a small group of students (4-5 students). The teacher provides the students with a topic to discuss. This topic can

come from the readings for the class, from class lecture, from students' experiences, etc.

2. If there is time, the students in this group can research an issue, topic, or problem.
3. The students in this group sit in the center of the room. These students are in the "fishbowl". The remaining students sit in a circle around them.
4. The students in the center discuss their topic.
5. The students in the audience should pay attention to what is happening in the discussion in the fishbowl. If a student in the audience thinks of something they want to add to the discussion, they can replace a fishbowl member. The new member taps the original member on the shoulder and sits in his place. The old fishbowl member joins the audience.
6. At some point, the teacher stops the students in the "fishbowl". Then, the teacher begins a discussion with the whole class. The discussion should be based on what occurred in the "fishbowl" discussion.

## **10. The Great Debate**

You can use these techniques when you want students to take a stand on an issue. These techniques can lead to long discussions. The discussions can involve intense debate. These techniques give students the opportunity to move out of their seats. Students also can hear many different opinions and beliefs.

Procedures:

1. The teacher should make a line on the floor (the line can be imaginary). Explain that the teacher will be reading statements. One side of the line is for students who agree with the statement. The other side of the line is for people who disagree with the statement.
2. The teacher reads statements that have been prepared ahead of time. These statements are opinions that people can agree or disagree with. They are best when they are on difficult or controversial topics.
3. After the teacher reads the statement, the students move. If the students agree with the statement, they move to the agree side of the line. If the students disagree with the statement, they move to the disagree side of the line.

4. After all students have chosen a side, they should turn to their neighbor and discuss why they agreed or disagreed with the statement.
5. Then, each pair turns to a pair across the line. With the opposite pair, they should discuss why they agreed or disagreed.
6. The teacher can then open the issue up to a general discussion.

### Adaptations

In either of these activities, you can choose whether or not students may choose “neutral” or “no opinion”. If you allow this option in Value Lines, students stand on the line, rather than on the Agree or Disagree side of the room. In any of these activities, you can change the activity. You can ask each side (Agree or Disagree) to choose a leader after the discussion. This leader then has to summarize the group’s discussion for the whole class.

## 3.5 TEACHING SPEAKING DIFFERENT LEVELS

Students in the classroom considerably differ in their levels of proficiency. They are commonly grouped into three: low, middle, and high levels. There seems no clear-cut definition between the different levels, but the teacher is usually able to recognize the levels to which the students belong based on the results of their achievement in English. The low level students often labeled *elementary* refer to those whose English is only getting started, and their main problems are language problems. In contrast with the first are those whose English is quite good, but they still have problems with the language. Some others are in the middle between the low and the high students whose English is better than those of the elementary levels, and they have some problems with the language.

The different levels may results in different ways or strategies the teacher has to treat them. In other words, the teacher is required to choose the right technique in accordance with the students’ level so that the goal of the teaching learning process is expected to run well. This needs deep consideration before the teacher selects the technique.

All techniques of teaching speaking may fit all levels of the students. However, a certain technique may be more appropriate with only a certain level of students or a certain technique might not fit a certain level, depending on the characteristic of the techniques. For example, miming

and remembering, and reordering fit only for the low level for these sorts of techniques do not require students to argue. A role play discussion may fit all levels.

The class where the students are from different levels can be grouped according to the levels. This is intended for the teacher to make the class easy to manage. However, Harmer (1985:52) suggests that whatever the level of the students, there are four things students need to do in a speaking class:

1. expose to language;
2. understand its meaning;
3. understand its form;
4. practice it.

Harmer suggests two strategies of teaching speaking to deal with the class with different levels of proficiency: i) using different materials and ii) using different tasks or activities with the same materials/topics.

Once the students have been grouped according to their level of proficiency for instance, those who belong to the low level are grouped into the same class, different materials for different level is required. The students in the low level class talk about the topics with simple speaking activities either in length or the language (controlled language activities are provided) and they are completely guided by the teacher in the sense that they are provided with the model of dialogue; for example, in the form of bubble speech. They should act out the model of the dialogue provided. They are mainly manipulated to practice the language aspects that do not require deep thinking. This means that the low level of students are mainly engaged in manipulative exercises in which focus of attention is on the manipulation of linguistic forms . For example, the students are talking about 'Describing people.'

A: *How does she/he look like?*

B: He is/looks rather thin.

Those who are in the middle levels discuss something different from those of the low level of students in both the length and the language. Since they also have problems with the language, the teacher may provide them with certain language forms but they are not completely guided in every

stage. They for example, discuss 'likes and dislikes' about kinds of foods, fruits, colors, TV programs etc., expressing preference

I like ... better than ... I prefer ... to ... or I had better VI ... than ...

Unlike the two levels, low and middle ones, the advanced are independent learners in that they have a bit problem with language. They may no longer be given a model dialogue like that of the low levels. The speaking activities will, therefore, no longer focus on the controlled language practice but rather activate task activities where the teacher just provides them the topic to discuss or argue or they are trained to debate or deliver speech.

### **Selecting Different Tasks or Activities with the Same Materials/topics**

When the students in one class come from different levels of proficiency (low, middle, and high), they need to be provided with the same material but in different sorts of activities. The students are exposed to the same topic but they will have to do different tasks depending on their level. This is intended for them to keep stimulated to study the topic. For example, the teachers want their students to study "past activities". Those who belong to the low level are asked to tell what they did in the past, such as, yesterday's activities. They in turn just supply a number of verbs of the past telling their partner or group about what they did yesterday based on the examples provided by the teacher. While those with the middle or intermediate levels also talk about past activities but they are neither provided with the example nor completely guided by the teacher in every stage. Unlike the two levels, the advanced students may talk about an interesting experience in the past, giving reasons or arguments. That is, the questions are not limited to such simple questions as yes and no questions but rather why or how.

## **3.6 MEDIA IN TEACHING SPEAKING**

Media or teaching aids play crucial role in the process of teaching and learning speaking for they can facilitate the message transferred from the teachers to the students. Media become a bridge between the classroom and the real life. They may enable students to easily associate the abstract with the real life. The teacher will, therefore, have to select the appropriate media in accordance with the condition, and the limitation of the class, and the objective the teacher wants their students to reach,

More specifically, there are four functions of media as follows:

1. making the message of the topic much clearer;
2. helping the teacher overcome the limitation of the room, time, and imagination;
3. making the teaching learning process more enjoyable so that the extrovert or passive students may become more active;
4. helping teacher make the students have similar perception, experience, stimulus or respond for they have different backgrounds of lives, while the content of curriculum is essentially similar.

There are various ranges of media the teacher can make use in teaching speaking. Like finding the right materials, the teacher has to make sure that media s/he selects or creates will have to meet the students' needs. This means that teachers are free to make use of any kinds of media provided that they fit the students' needs. They must be suited to the objective the teacher wants their students to reach, condition, and the limitation of the class.

Dick and Carey (1978) point out that there are four factors to consider in choosing the media i) the availability of the local resources, ii) cost, facility, and energy, iii) the practicality of the media in the sense that they can be used in places and in time, and iv) the cost of the media when the teacher himself has to create them.

Hadfield (1991) states that the one single most valuable teaching and learning sources is the human mind and imagination. This suggests that teachers needs to be creative in the sense that they may make use of various ranges of the media available as effectively as possible, provided that they can engage the students to learn. The selection of media or teaching aids may be done in accordance with the objective of the topic of discussion and appropriate with the students' backgrounds or schemata. When teachers, for example, want their students to talk about "Asking for Direction," picture in particular, map of the city with which the students have been familiar is most likely appropriate to make use.

In more specific Hadfield (1991) suggests a number of criteria when teachers want to select the media or teaching aids:

1. useable in large classes as well as in small ones;
2. suitable for adult learners as well as secondary learners, and if possible easily adaptable to a primary context;
3. centered on the universal of human experience;
4. cover the main language skills and have a useful base of grammar and topic vocabulary;
5. traditional enough to be recognizable by all teachers, and thus give them a sense of security while providing communicative activities for learners;
6. no threatening in the demands they make on learners;
7. teacher-based resource material rather than book for learners;
8. assume that no technical and reprographic resources are available and be based on the human resources rather than technical;
9. culturally neutral, not context bound, and thus be flexible easily adaptable by the teachers to their own culture and teaching context;
10. flexible enough to complement a standard syllabus or course books.

It is not easy for teachers to cover all the criteria but they are required to have capability of selecting the media that can facilitate students to keenly practice speaking.

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# 4

## TEACHING READING

One of the important conference for teachers of second/foreign language reading is how to make their reading classes interesting and relevant for their students. This is certainly not an easy concern to address since our students have such diverse interests and it seems to be impossible to choose materials that could satisfy everybody. Selecting a correct (proper) reading text, of course, depends on the goals of the reading course. As consequence, teachers of second/foreign language reading should focus on these goals when choosing materials.

Reading as pointed out by Anthony, Pearson, and Raphael (1993) is the process of constructing meaning through the dynamic interaction among the reader's existing knowledge, the information suggested by the written language, and the context of the reading situation. This seems to suggest that the meaning of the text is constructed by the reader by trying to make connections between the text and what he/she already knows about the world based on his/her cultural values, native language and discourse processes. This shows a process of comprehension. The level on which Dallmann, et al. (1974) can be classified in a takes place, according to variety of ways. One of the classifications suggests that comprehension may be on the factual level, interpretative level, and the evaluative level. Reading on the factual level refers to understanding what is actually written on the page. Words or vocabulary should be an important factor to consider

in the process of selecting materials. Reading on the interpretative level designates reading in which the reader comprehends the meaning that is expressed "in so many words," but can be implied or inferred. In evaluative reading the reader evaluates what he reads through mental activities such as judging the authenticity of the material, predicting outcomes, associating what he is reading own experiences, etc. All of the above should be among the considerations for the teachers of EFL reading in developing techniques and/or activities and in selecting the materials to be employed in their reading class.

#### **4.1 SELECTING RIGHT MATERIALS IN TEACHING READING**

It seems to be generally acknowledged that one of the more complex tasks confronting the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) reading teachers is selecting the materials or the what so-called appropriate reading passages to be used in the classroom. There have been a lot of discussions concerning this, and the idea of those discussions is to suggest or recommend insights and criteria that can be used by the teachers in selecting the reading materials to be employed in their class.

It should be admitted that it is important for reading teachers to take some time to reflect on the materials or texts their students are asked to read. This is because materials can be used to support and enhance techniques and strategies that teachers focus on within a reading lesson. Of course, in many cases the school may have already chosen the textbook. Reading teachers, however, can certainly adapt these materials. They can also use supplementary reading materials. This happens because the articles in an EFL reader vary in suitability, and teachers sometimes feel that those articles cannot be adapted to suit the needs of the students they are teaching and the purpose of the reading class itself. Since the focus of the EFL reading class should be on some aspects of reading, the selection of an appropriate reading passage is important. If the passage chosen is inappropriate for whatever reason, the chances of success for that particular lesson are substantially lessened.

There seems to be a lot of factors to be taken into account in an attempt to select reading materials to be used in the classroom. Day (1994) at least summarizes seven factors in an order that reflect their relative importance

in the process of making the reading selection. Those seven factors are as follows:

- a. interest;
- b. exploitability;
- c. readability.
  - 1) Lexical Knowledge.
  - 2) Background Knowledge.
  - 3) Syntactic Appropriateness.
  - 4) Organization.
  - 5) Discourse Phenomena.
  - 6) Length;
- d. topic;
- e. political appropriateness;
- f. cultural suitability,
- g. appearance
  - 1) Layout.
  - 2) Type Size and Font.

Now, let us discuss each factor in more detail in the following section.

#### **4.1.1 Interest**

Interest, according to Day (1994), constitutes the most important factor in the process of selecting a reading article. This is supported by William (1986) who claims that “in the absence of interesting texts, very little is possible. Camel (1984) also states that reading teachers should use materials the students are interested in, including materials self-selected by the student. Nuttall (1982), who refers to interest as *suitability of content*, claims that having texts that interest the learners is more critical than either the linguistic level of the text or its exploitability.

It seems to be generally accepted that interest is important because of its relation to motivation. When the students find that the topic of a passage is not interested to them, their motivation to read is substantially lessened. Without this motivation, it is exceedingly difficult to meet one of the generally accepted aims of a reading program: to help get the learners to read in English on their own, outside the reading classroom. As part of the

effort to find interesting reading passages, Nuttall (1982) recommends that the teacher attempts to discover if the passage will

- 1) tell the students things they don't already know;
- 2) introduce them to new and relevant ideas, make them think about things they haven't thought about before;
- 3) help them to understand the way other people feel or think (e.g., people with different backgrounds, problems, or attitudes from their own);
- 4) make them want to read for themselves (to continue a story, find out more about a subject, and so on).

In attempting to look for reading materials that will certainly interest their students, teachers should try to find those that have a reasonable amount of new information. Too much new information in a story makes it difficult to read, regardless of the interest level. A passage that contains relatively little new information can be boring.

### 4.1.2 Exploitability

It seems to be commonly understood that teachers of EFL reading can determine the exploitability of a passage (reading material) by doing exercises and activities in the reading lesson. If, for example, one of the objectives of the reading lesson is to have students discover the author's point of view, the teacher could do that activity to see if the reading passage allows the students to discover the author's point of view. An article that is basically descriptive might not be amenable to that type of activity.

### 4.1.3 Readability

The factor of readability ranks with interest and exploitability as one of the most important considerations in selecting a reading passage. Carrell (1987b) uses the term to refer to the following phenomena: syntactic appropriateness; logical/rhetorical ordering of ideas, textual phenomena at the discourse level, lexical appropriateness, and background knowledge of the reader. Nuttall (1982) reserves this term only for syntactic and lexical considerations. Readability is used here to include the phenomena mentioned by Carrell, plus the length of the reading passage.

## **1. Lexical Knowledge**

Lexical knowledge and background knowledge are the two most important elements that determine a text's readability. It is clear that as the number of unknown lexical items in a reading passage increase, the more difficult it is for students to read it with comprehension. However lexical knowledge is among the more controversial factors in selecting a reading passage. Its controversial nature stems from two issues involved with lexical knowledge. The first concerns with how to determine the degree of difficulty of the vocabulary of a reading passage. The second is the number of unknown words acceptable in a reading passage. One way of assessing students' vocabulary is through the use of scanning exercise in which the students are asked to identify some difficult or unknown words in a passage. Over time, this will help teachers determine the lexical knowledge of their learners.

The second issue is how much new vocabulary should be in a reading passage. This depends at least on the type of reading program, extensive or intensive, and also on the objectives of the reading lesson itself. Nuttall (1982, p.26) defines new lexical items as words and idioms or compound phrases and recommends that in an intensive reading lesson new lexical items should be less than three percent of the whole. Nuttall further cites Bright and McGregor's (1970, p.80) recommendation that a passage should contain no new words because learners cannot respond completely to unknown items. However, if one of the objectives of the lesson is to teach learners to guess the meaning of unknown lexical items from the context, the passage would have to include some words and phrases. In general it is recommended that the number of unknown lexical items be kept to a maximum of no more than one or two words per page. This recommendation is based on the premise that the purpose of the reading lesson is reading, not vocabulary development.

If the reading passage finally selected does contain new vocabulary items, the teacher should consider their importance. That is, what value might be attached to their being learned at the learners' stage in the acquisition of the target language? If the unknown lexical items are not important, it might be possible to substitute items the learners already know.

These recommendations must take into account the students' reading abilities. It can be argued that at the beginning stages, and perhaps at the intermediate levels, it may be advisable to maintain a minimum of new vocabulary items. For more efficient readers, a higher percentage of new lexical items could be included in the reading passage, since efficient readers, by definition, have learned either to guess the meaning of unknown words or to ignore them. Finally, it might be difficult to find authentic texts in which the quantity of unknown lexical items is very small. Thus, the number of unknown vocabulary items in a reading passage is affected by the students' reading abilities, the goals of the reading course, and the objectives of the particular lesson.

## **2. Background Knowledge**

Along with lexical knowledge, background (or world) knowledge is very important in the readability of text. The more the readers know about a particular topic, the more quickly and accurately they can read it. Research (e.g., Alderson and Urquhart 1988; Carrell 1987a; Johnson 1981) has demonstrated that background knowledge plays a key role in comprehension of a reading passage by intermediate and advanced ESL learners. Given its importance in these two stages, it might also be a critical factor in the beginning stages.

Since the background knowledge of EFL readers plays a critical role in their comprehension of the passage, teachers should make sure that the passage is on a topic that is known or familiar to their students. If the passage deals with an unfamiliar topic, there are two possibilities; either it can be rejected or students can be made familiar with the topic. The difficulty with the latter is that the more time we spend teaching our students about the topic of the passage, the less time there is to devote to the actual purpose of the reading class learning reading skills and strategies.

The factor of background knowledge in EFL reading texts may be seen as an issue of the course design. If one of the goals of the reading course or program is to broaden the students' knowledge of the English-speaking world, then having the students read passages about the societies and cultures of English-speaking countries would be appropriate. Time spent in the reading class expanding the students' knowledge on such topics would

be meeting one of the goals of the course. However, if increasing students' knowledge of the English-speaking world is not one of the goals of the reading course, the reading might not care to spend class time building up her students' background knowledge of the English-speaking world.

### 3. Syntactic Appropriateness

It seems to be generally accepted that syntactic constructions in a passage affect its readability. If a passage contains grammatical constructions that the learners do not know, they might have a hard time reading it. Readability formulas are used frequently in first-language reading, and less often in foreign- or second-language reading, as a way of determining the level of syntactic complexity of a reading. Carrell (1987b) provides an insightful summary of such formulas, and concludes that readability formulas fail for a variety of reasons, including a failure to take into account "the interactive nature of the reading process the interaction of the reader with the text" (p. 32).

Moreover, EFL reading teachers often do not have the time, resources, or appropriate information to utilize readability formulas, even if the formulas.

One way that EFL reading teachers can become better aware of the linguistic strengths and weaknesses of their learners is to ask them. This, for instance, could be done as part of a scanning exercise. Using an unfamiliar reading passage, the students are instructed to scan it and underline syntactic constructions that are new or difficult, or which they do not quickly recognize or understand. The teacher analyzes the results to determine the types of syntactic constructions likely to cause problems. The more often this is performed, the better the teacher's reading knowledge of students' linguistic capabilities is.

### 4. Organization

Organization refers to both the rhetorical organization of the text and the clarity of the organization. Research (e.g., Carrell, 1985) indicates that ESL readers who can recognize the rhetorical organization of a text have better comprehension than those who do not. While similar research has not been

conducted with EFL readers, we might expect parallel results. Therefore, the EFL reading teacher should carefully examine a text to see how it is organized. A passage that is not well organized might present problems for EFL students, especially at the beginning stages.

## **5. Discourse Phenomena**

Textual phenomena at the level of discourse include the arrangement of topics and comments in a reading passage, and considerations of cohesiveness and coherence. EFL reading teachers need to be aware of the manner in which the author makes use of these in the passage and the degree to which EFL readers are able to deal with such textual phenomena. EFL reading teachers need to know whether their learners can handle the presentation of ideas and arguments in the passage, whether the cohesion markers and transition devices are within the linguistic competence of the learners, and whether they can follow the line of reasoning utilized by the writer of the passage. The passage can be considered for use in a reading lesson to the extent that these factors are within the competence of the learners.

One way of determining students' knowledge of discourse phenomena is through simple identification exercises. For example, if an unfamiliar text contains samples of various cohesion markers and transition devices, students can be instructed to identify them. The next step would be for the students to recognize their functions in the passage. This could be done by a matching exercise in which the students have to match cohesion markers or transition devices that are either similar or different in function.

## **6. Length of Passage**

The final factor of readability is concerned with the length of the potential reading passage. The most common mistake of inexperienced teachers or teachers who are not able to judge the reading abilities of their students is to select a passage that is too long. If students are unable to finish the reading passage, the lesson is not successful. The learners would become frustrated and often blame themselves, feeling that they are poor readers.

One technique that helps to avoid this difficulty is for the reading teacher to time herself reading the passage she is considering for a reading



lesson. Then, if the passage is used in the reading class, the teacher can compare her time with the times of her learners. By repeating this process a number of times, the teacher should be able to make a fairly accurate prediction of how long it will take her learners to read a new passage.

In general, the objectives of the lesson are on length of the passage. For example, if the focus of the lesson is on skimming, one excellent way to teach skimming is to give the students a rather lengthy article and a time limit to get from start to finish. But if the focus is on reading for main ideas, a much shorter article would be appropriate.

### *Topic*

The topic of a reading article is an important factor to consider. Teacher may feel that wide variety of topics would be helpful to maintain student interest and motivation. However, we should consider the merits of what Krashen (1981) calls "narrow reading." He claims that narrow reading, by which he means reading more in depth on a subject, might facilitate second-language acquisition, as the vocabulary and structure are often recycled.

Dubin (1986, pp.143-145) makes essentially the same claim when she proposes a reading-in-depth approach to provide background knowledge. Certainly, having learners read more on a subject would facilitate comprehension, as they would become familiar with an author's (or authors) style, and the vocabulary, concepts, and background information important to the topic. It is recommended, therefore, that, whenever possible, reading teachers explore three or four themes or topics during the reading course as an aid in facilitating reading comprehension and building background knowledge. Dubin (1986, pp.143-145) offers three techniques for reading in depth to provide background knowledge: using an anthology built around a particular theme or themes; dividing longer texts into shorter selections, introducing the topic from different sources; and using "the running story," a series of stories on the same topic. This can be done by using current news stories. As the story progresses and the students read more and more about it, they become more familiar with it and with the details in it.

### **Political Appropriateness**

The political suitability of the reading passage must be taken into consideration. In some countries the political content of articles is a critical issue, while in others it is not. Expatriate teachers working in politically sensitive countries should pay close attention to this factor, particularly if it is not an issue in their home countries. Regardless of the teachers' status, whether expatriate or not, reading teachers should attempt to deal with their own political biases in selecting a reading passage. Teachers should not censor articles that do not reflect their political beliefs; nor should they attempt to use reading passages to put across their own political leanings.

### **Cultural Suitability**

Cultural suitability is another factor to be considered in selecting reading passages. Articles for expatriate teachers which would not raise an eyebrow in their home countries could be culturally explosive when used in other countries.

### ***Appearance***

The final factor is concerned with the appearance of the reading passage, which includes layout and print and type size.

#### 1. Layout

The reading teacher should examine the article to see whether the layout is beneficial or harmful. For example, the teacher can check to see if there are pictures or other non-textual information that might help students understand the article. Are the lines or paragraphs numbered? The teacher can also determine the legibility of the passage. This is important if it is to be reproduced. A barely legible article can spoil an otherwise excellent reading lesson. If the goal of the reading class is to help the learners become readers of the target language outside of the class, attractive, well-designed passages are more of an incentive than sloppy, hard-to-read texts.

#### 2. Type Size and Font

The type size and font (the style of type) are factors to consider for beginning readers. Type somewhat larger than normal is an aid in the initial stages of reading, as it helps in the decoding process. Larger type

is commonly used in beginning readers for first-language reading. Type that is too large, however, may be a detriment to developing rapid reading, for it can hinder the reader's ability to process chunks of print as the eyes move across the page. The font (the style of type) should be clear and attractive to aid beginning readers in the decoding process.

### 3. Reproduction of copyrighted article

Once an article is selected, it has to be reproduced in some fashion for use in the class. If an article is to be photocopied, teachers should be aware of and observe copyright. Although the legal reproduction of copyrighted works varies from country to country, most countries recognize a limitation on exclusive rights called "fair use". With respect to books and periodicals, fair use allows for single copying for teachers for scholarly research or use in teaching or preparation to teach a class.

In addition, fair use may allow for multiple copies (not to exceed more than one copy per student in a course) for classroom use provided that the following guidelines are met:

- a. The article is less than 2,500 words or is less, but a minimum of 500 words;
- b. Only one chart, graph, diagram, or other type of illustration is copied per book or periodical issue;
- c. The decision to use the article and the time of its use are so close in time as to make it difficult to expect a timely reply to a request for permission to copy;
- d. Not more than one article or two excerpts may be copied from the same author, nor more than three from the same collection or periodical during one class term;
- e. There are not more than nine instances for such multiple copying for one course during one class term.

It is also generally recognized that fair use copying is not to be used to create or to replace anthologies, nor to substitute for the purpose of the purchase of books. Finally, it is not to be repeated from term to term. In such cases, permission to copy should be obtained from the copyright holder.

## 4.2 PREPARING MATERIALS IN TEACHING READING

Given the wide variety of situations and circumstances in which English is taught throughout the world, it is not possible to have a reading text with readings appropriate for all learners in all contexts. Therefore, regardless of the textbook available for a reading class, teachers of EFL reading may use additional reading materials as supplements. The availability of modern technology and internet in particular makes it possible for teachers to utilize real and authentic materials in their reading class. This means that even textbooks that have been prescribed can be supplemented with more authentic materials; other authentic materials include regalia such as restaurant menus, travel catalogues, newspapers, etc. Teachers who want to employ supplementary reading materials should carefully consider other factors in order to get proper materials. The factors discussed here should be of some help to teachers who decide to select additional readings for their EFL reading classes. Teachers are encouraged themselves to develop their own lists of criteria for their own specific situations. There are at least two types of reading practice that may be considered in preparing reading materials. The following suggestions were taken from Mackey (1975, pp. 279-282). The materials can be considered in intensive reading and extensive reading.

### 4.2.1. Intensive Reading

In intensive reading the following materials may be considered.

#### *Textual Aids*

A difficult text may be explained by another text either in English or in the native language of the students. Explanation can be given in English by providing a limited vocabulary which is presumably mastered by the students. Another form of explanation is given in the native language of the students. The reading class may also add comprehension exercises to the reading passage by providing comprehension exercises or questions about the main text.

### *Pictorial Aids*

Pictures may also be used to help students comprehend a text. The pictures should simply illustrate the passage as a whole or some parts of the story which are believed to be interesting for the students.

### *Recorded Aids*

Similar to textual aids, the recordings may be given either in English or the native language. The recordings accompanying the text commonly include questions related to the reading passage. The recordings may be simply recorded readings. The recordings are exactly the same as the reading text. This way be combined with another skill such as listening skill.

## **4.2.2. Extensive Reading**

Basically extensive reading is silent reading but done outside of class. This often includes a series of questions to enable the students to test their understanding of the texts. The questions may be answered in writing or orally. Extensive reading may be guided by providing supplementary readers and these can be of two types: the progressive type and the plateau type.

### *Progressive Readers*

In progressive readers students are provided with new vocabulary. The new words used in the texts are generally explained in footnotes. The new words may be used in the text a number of times. By reading the text the students will increase their vocabulary.

### *Plateau Readers*

Different from progressive readers, the plateau readers do not bring new vocabulary. The plateau readers are meant to consolidate the vocabulary which the students have already learned. It is written throughout at a fixed vocabulary level.

## **4.3 SELECTING TECHNIQUES IN TEACHING READING**

It is generally accepted that there has always been much concern over the importance of reading and the teaching of reading (reading instruction). A great number of efforts have been made in order to cope with the reading

problems. Various discussions, investigations, and reports have been held and made in order to produce a complete agreement about methods of teaching reading. Indeed, the differences of opinion are often sharp and the debates are sometimes acrimonious. Nevertheless, there is a substantial body of agreement on many important issues. For instance, it seems clear from the research that no one method is best for all children under all circumstances, that children differ widely in the instruction they need. It seems clear also that a wide variety of approaches must be used in order to get the best results with most children. We have learned much about the psychology of reading, about the role of emotion, motivation, home background, and other factors in reading retardation. We have also learned most of all, perhaps, about the nature and extent of individual differences in reading, which possibly provide the greatest challenge to the teacher of reading.

Reading is a challenge to the teacher also because it is such a complex process. Reading is not a general ability but a composite of many specific abilities. It is therefore necessary to break down general comprehension to specific skills that constitute it. It is necessary to get to know how well the students are able to grasp the general meaning of a passage; how well they can differentiate between fact and opinion; how well they can follow directions; how well they can interpret maps, graphs, and tables; how well they can organize what they read and classify ideas; how well they can visualize what they read; and finally how well they can locate information.

A single reading skill, although a very important one, well illustrates the complexity of reading. Any teacher of reading who undertakes to cultivate, for instance, students' critical discrimination in reading finds that he is dealing with a whole cluster of abilities that often need special attention. Among these are clarifying ideas, distinguishing between fact and fancy, establishing cause and effect relationships, making generalizations, interpreting idiomatic and figurative language, making inferences, recognizing emotional reactions and motives, judging relevancy, and finally drawing general conclusions.

There seems to have been a controversy among experts in the teaching of reading as to whether or not reading is a general ability. Some claim that it is a general ability, while others think of reading as a combination of various specific skills, such as getting the main idea and predicting outcomes, which should be identified for the purpose of helping the learners improve in ability

to comprehend what they read. Those two believe that there are specific skills (abilities) that constitute the effective comprehension will probably want to pay attention to these skills in their instructional procedures. Others who do not share this view are likely not to place much, if any, emphasis on the acquisition of these various abilities. Following Dallmann, et al. (1974), it is important that help be given to the learners in acquiring such skills as nothing details that support the main idea of a selection, judging the authenticity of a report, and making generalizations on the basis of what is discussed below. As suggested by Dallmann, et al. (1974), the specific skills may be classified according to (1) the purpose of the reader and (2) the length and the nature of the selection read.

The following skills are classified according to the purpose of the reader.

1. reading to find the main idea;
2. reading to select significant details;
3. reading to follow direction;
4. reading to answer questions;
5. reading to make summaries and organize materials;
6. reading to arrive at generalizations and conclusions;
7. reading to predict outcomes;
8. reading to evaluate critically;
9. reading to develop skill in acquiring word meaning.

### **1. Reading to Find the Main Idea**

No one would deny that one of the most reasons for reading is to get the general idea of the passage. Not only reading of fiction which is usually done for this purpose but also other types of reading such as science have the goal of getting main idea. The ability to determine the main idea of a passage read is basic also too many other comprehension skills, such as the ability to summarize and organize. Skills in finding the main idea in a paragraph or a longer passage need to be developed by students not only through incidental means but very often also through practice exercises, as pointed out by Spache and Spache (1982) that good reading takes practice. The following are some activities adapted from Dallmann, et al. (1974) that might be used to help the students to find the main idea of a passage:

- a. matching a series of pictures with the paragraphs they illustrate;
- b. stating the main idea of the selection;
- c. selecting from a list of sentences one that best expresses the main idea of a paragraph;
- d. selecting the best title from a list;
- e. following direction, such as:
  - 1) find the sentence that gives the main idea of the article;
  - 2) draw a line under the words in the second paragraph that give the topic of the paragraph;
  - 3) draw a line under the words that best describe the character discussed in the selection;
- f. skimming a series or a group of trade books to decide which one to read, either for pleasure or some other purpose;
- g. matching a picture that illustrates a main idea with a paragraph that it illustrates;
- h. locating topic sentences in paragraphs that contain topic sentences.

## **2. Reading to Select Significant Details**

The ability to note important details is closely related to skill in finding the central thought or main idea of a selection. In order to be proficient in this respect, the readers (the students) need to do more than differentiate between main points and supporting details. They must also be able to decide what points are important for the purpose they have in mind. The reader who gives equal attention to all details that are presented might find himself so encumbered that he loses perspective. Practice may be needed to help him decide which details are worthy of special note and which should be ignored. Their relation to the main idea of the selection will often determine their value; the purpose of the reader will be another determinant. As the students work for the improvement in noting details, they should be helped to realize that details are of value as they support a main idea or assist in arriving at a conclusion. Activities or exercises must be designed in such a way that practice in noting details does not decrease the ability to find the main idea or to generalize.



Through the following activities, the students are supposed to be able to get practice in noting details and choosing those that are significant for their purposes, the activities are as follow:

- a. Telling which of a series of details support the main idea of a selection.
- b. Reading to note as many details as possible that support a main idea.
- c. Completing sentences, copied by the teacher from a reading selection, in which blanks were left for words that test the comprehension of details.
- d. Matching a series of details with a list of main ideas.
- e. Showing which word in a series of sentences or paragraphs does not belong in a paragraph.
- f. Studying the regulations for use of equipment for the playground, the reading table, or the playhouse.
- g. Looking at a picture and then describing it.
- h. Preparing chart based on the material that has been read; for example, a chart showing the growth in population in a state.
- i. Writing a main idea for a paragraph and then writing the details to support it.
- j. Writing a paragraph describing a given object, which other learners are to guess

### **3. Reading to Follow Directions**

The ability to follow direction is usually a combination of many reading skills. The ability to note details, to organize, and to note the sequence of events are among the learning essential to this type of reading skill.

These methods may be helpful for an individual who is trying to improve his skill in following directions.

- a. Repeating directions.
- b. Observing written directions, such as: "Make one ball yellow. Make other ball blue."
- c. Drawing a picture from directions given.
- d. Reading directions for a game and then following them.
- e. Reading direction for doing tricks and then performing them.
- f. Arranging in correct order the sentences for directions to do or make something.

- g. Reading directions for work-type activities in various subject fields and the following them.
- h. Finding directions for experiments and carrying them out in front of the class.

#### **4. Reading to Answer Questions**

Reading to find the answer to one or more questions seems to be one of the common goals for any reading class. Proficiency in finding the answer to a question can be useful in a variety of reading situations. Very often the questions are asked by the teacher. However, the students also need to develop in the ability to formulate significant questions for themselves as purposes of reading. Questions from the teacher should serve as steppingstones to questions that the reader decides for himself.

The questions that the reader intends to answer may be one of that requires merely the finding of a fact specifically stated in written material. Answers are relatively easy to find when the questions are partly couched in the exact words of the writer. It may call for a skill in finding the main idea, selecting a series of details of significance in relation to the question, following directions, summarizing, or organizing.

The following activities might be able to develop learners' skill in answering question. These are:

- a. Reading to answer questions stated by the teacher;
- b. Indicating which of a series of questions listed by the teacher are likely to be answered in a given selection and then checking the responses after reading the selection;
- c. Stating questions the reader would expect to find answered in a given selection and then checking the responses after reading the selection
- d. Indicating which of the series of questions that may possibly be answered in a given selection are formulated clearly, and rewording those that are not.

#### **5. Reading to Make Summaries and Organize Materials**

Actually both the ability to find the main idea and to select significant details is basic to another commonly sought after goal of reading, for example,

summarizing and organizing. However, to make an adequate summary or to organize what has been read is not enough for the reader to know what the main idea is and what the significant details are. He must be able to sense the relation between the main point and the details, as well as the relation among the details. Furthermore, he often needs to know either how to make these relations clear to others or how to record them for later reading.

Sometimes, the efficient reader makes summaries and organizes what he read without doing any writing. Someone who reads a passage and the asks himself what the main points are, what material constitutes significant details, and how these parts are combined together is making a summary and organizing what he reads. In fact, skill in organizing or summarizing is ordinarily put to use without the writing of summaries or outlines. Practice in summarizing and organizing may lead to such skill in these activities that frequently the reader almost unconsciously summarizes and organizes what he reads.

The activities such as the following might be able to be used to develop skills in summarizing and organizing what is read. These are:

- a. Telling which of several summaries best summarizes a paragraph or longer selection;
- b. Taking notes of words like *first*, *second*, and *third* as they occur in context;
- c. Telling what items belong in classifications like *food*, *clothing*, *shelter*;
- d. Arranging pictures in the order in which events illustrated by them occurred in a story;
- e. Filling in main topics and subtopics of a selection when suggestions are given as to the number of main topics and the number of subtopics under each main topic;
- f. Listing the topics of which information is needed to solve the problem of a unit, and then putting the list into outline form;
- g. Making an outline, either in a group or individuality, a parts of story that one of the learners will tell to another group of boys and girls;
- h. Writing headlines for a class paper;
- i. Studying in the table of contents to note the organization of a book;
- j. Checking a series of true-false statements such as the following, to indicate which gives good advices for making notes: (a) "Take your notes in your own words, not in those of the writer." (b) "If you do not

understand what something means, be sure to include the point in your notes”.

## 6. Reading to Arrive at Generalizations and Conclusions

In fact, formulating generalizations is in a sense a specialized form of summarizing. To arrive at generalizations the reader needs to note specific instances and then decide whether the data presented are sufficient to draw significant conclusions. One danger for the person who is not skillful in making generalizations is that he may generalize without sufficient evidence. Another is that he makes a too broad generalization. To avoid these, a teacher needs to give special guidance not only with material read but also with observations made in other situations.

In addition to the following suggestions for activities that can be valuable in developing the ability to arrive at generalizations and come to conclusion, some of those recommended under “Making Summaries and Organizing Material” can be used. Among other things are:

- a. Checking which ones of several conclusions are warranted by data given, and explaining why the unsound conclusions are invalid;
- b. Discussing questions after reading a story: a. “why do you think ..... made his decision to go west?” b. “under what conditions do you think.....would have been friendly to strangers?”;
- c. Telling which of a list of statements is general and which is specific;
- d. Discussing the effect that certain events in a story or in history had on individuals;
- e. Stating the generalization that is justified on the basis of given facts;
- f. Formulating titles that indicate the generalization brought out in a series of stories.

## 7. Reading to Predict Outcomes

Reading to predict outcomes is a skill that may manifest itself in a variety of ways. For instance, if the reader sees the sentence: “The farmers set no traps for any of the animals on the grounds for they like animals,” he can anticipate (unless a break of thought is indicated by the words like *but* or *however* or *nevertheless*) that the next sentence in the paragraph will not contradict the thought that the farmers were kind to animals. This skill is

an effect of an aspect of what we call “active” reading, in which the reader assumes an attitude of anticipation.

Skill in predicting outcomes is useful in helping the reader note when he has misread a word or a group of words or a sentence. This skill is also helpful in remembering what has been read for it enables the reader to take special note only of those points that renew for him or are different from what he would have expected.

Some of the suggestions given under “Reading to Arrive at Generalizations and Conclusions” may be added to the following list of activities for improving the ability to predict outcomes. These include the activities as in the following.

- a. Telling what is likely to happen next in a story or article, with or without the help of multiple-choice questions.
- b. Discussing why things happened as they did in a story or other account.
- c. Making up endings for stories, orally or in writing.
- d. Comparing or present situation with a previous one in history and deciding what might happen as a result of the present conditions.
- e. Indicating what is likely to happen at the time when work on a science experiment is begun.
- f. Predicting, after reading a current news report, what will happen and then the following day checking to see if the prediction was correct.

## **8. Reading to Evaluate Critically**

Making critical evaluations of what is read seems to be one of the most significant comprehension skills. Critical discrimination in reading needs a wide background of knowledge concerning the subject being read. Critical reading involves the capacity for making comparisons and appraisals. It is an active, creative reading.

The ability to evaluate critically what is read may require any one of the following skills.

- a. Distinguishing between fact and opinion.
- b. Telling what is real and what is fanciful.
- c. Deciding whether propaganda is being spread.
- d. Examining critically the generalizations made.

**Facts or opinions**

To gain proficiency in distinguishing between facts and opinions, the students might do the following:

- 1) Analyze newspaper reports to determine whether they present facts or opinions.
- 2) Study news reports and editorials to determine the essential differences in the two types of writing.
- 3) Locate statements of opinion found in a given selection.
- 4) Indicate which of series of statements express facts only and then rewrite those that are not purely factual so that they do not express an opinion.
- 5) Rewrite statements of fact that mixed with statements of opinion in such a way that instead of showing sympathy toward a person or event they will show antipathy (and vice-versa).
- 6) Delete from paragraphs or longer selections statements that are not entirely factual.

**Real or Fanciful**

In order to become more adept at judging whether or not written material is of a fanciful nature, students might perform activities such as the following:

- 1) Find examples in stories of means the author intended that the story is fanciful
- 2) Draw up a list of expressions often used in stories to show that the stories are fanciful, for example: "One upon a time."
- 3) Decide whether a story is real or fanciful and indicate the reason for the decision.
- 4) Read a story that is fictional but based in part on fact and then determine which statements are more likely to be fictional.

**Additional Points**

The following are additional suggested activities for increasing the power to evaluate critically what is read:

- 1) Indicating which of a series of statements are relevant and which are irrelevant to a given purpose;

- 2) Choosing from a list of chapter titles those chapters that are most likely to be valuable in connection with a given purpose;
- 3) Giving book reviews in which emphasis is placed on the evaluation of the book rather than on the story itself;
- 4) Determining how to decide on the likely truth when two contradictory statements are found;
- 5) Bringing to class an editorial from a newspaper and a news item and then listing the differences in writing style, giving reasons why each type is written as it is.

## 9. Reading to Develop Skill in Acquiring Word Meaning

As widely acknowledged that while in the early stages of learning to read the words in the reading material should be some that are in the learner's understanding vocabulary. There comes a time when reading should serve as a means of developing growth in word power. To stimulate such development, a teacher of reading could provide the students with the following activities.

- a. Before reading selection, finding the meaning of words through class discussion, studying the words written in context on the chalkboard, looking up the words in the dictionary.
- b. Illustrating through pictures or models some of the words that lend themselves of this kind of activity, such as the word *portage*, *cataract*, *fall line*, etc.
- c. Constructing a bulletin board with illustrations of some of the terms used in connection with a unit of study. With the study of Switzerland, for example, words such as *glacier*, *chateau*, *alp* might be illustrated.
- d. Making class or individual word files in which cards are kept for the "new words" acquired that the class decides to include or that an individual (in case of personal file) wishes to include in his list. The type of information that the student will want to give on a file card will depend in part on his stage of development. For less advanced readers nothing more than the word, an explanation of it, and a sentence with the word illustrating a common meaning of it might be included on a card. For more adept readers the phonetic spelling, the plural form of nouns, various explanations of the word, and sentences containing the word showing different meanings could also be recorded.

- e. Deciphering the meaning of words in exercises constructed by the teacher illustrating some of the points which categorizes types of context clues that might be taught systematically, such as the following:
  - Synonym clues or appositives. A peccary, a wild pig native in both North and South America, is a blackish animal with whitish cheeks and an indistinct white collar.
  - Clues utilizing definition or description. His behavior was inexplicable. No one could explain why he was tardy.
  - Comparison or contrast clues. She was much more gregarious than her friend who preferred being alone much of the time.
- f. Giving illustrations of some of the types of context clues identified in point e.

So far, we have discussed about the skills that are classified according to the purpose of the reader followed by some suggested activities to develop those skills as summarized from Dallmann, et al (1974). As mentioned previously that the ability to comprehend what is read may also be classified according to the length and the nature of the selection read. The following are the skills that are classified according to the length and the nature of the selection.

1. Getting the Meaning of Phrases. We have learnt that a phrase can be said to be more than the total sum of the words comprising it. Therefore, skill in comprehension of phrases is not synonymous with skill in word meaning, particularly in the case of idiomatic expressions. Skill in the comprehension of phrases can be develop by means of the following activities:
  - Giving the meaning of expressions used in sentences.
  - Matching phrases in one column with words with similar meaning in another column.
  - Finding in a selection phrases that answer certain questions such as: “What group of words tells that Frank is happy?”
  - Discussing the meaning of commonly used idiomatic expressions.
  - Playing a game in which students read what is written on a phrase card.
  - Making up a phrase that express the meaning of a given phrase.



## 2. Comprehending Sentences

Just like a phrase, a sentence can also be said to be more than the sum total of words comprising it. The students who read on their proper level, the comprehension of many sentences is often automatic. However, other students may be not. Quite often, a reader can understand every word of a long sentence without getting the meaning of the sentence itself. Since sentence comprehension is more than word recognition, and because an understanding of sentences is essential to the comprehension of longer selections, the students should be trained to be skillful in reading sentences as a whole units. Some students may find the following activities of value in improving their comprehension of sentences. The activities are:

- a) Arranging in correct order the parts of scrambled sentences;
- b) Listing the sentences in a selection that help prove a given point;
- c) Indicating which sentence in a series mean almost the same as specified sentences;
- d) Finding in a book a sentence that suggests an appropriate title for story of picture;
- e) Making sentences that show variety in structure, such as (a) "quickly the boys ran home"; (b) "the boys ran home quickly";
- f) Studying the thought of sentences in which the subject and predicate are in inverted order, and constructing some of that type;
- g) Finding the sentences that answer given questions;
- h) Making up sentences that describe the same idea in different ways;
- i) Studying sentences in which many adjectives, adverb, phrases, or clause modify the subject and the predicate;
- j) In connection with a long sentence that present comprehension difficulties, making a sentence for every idea contained in it.

## 3. Comprehending Paragraphs

Skills such as finding the main idea, selecting important details, and arriving at generalizations, all apply to paragraph comprehension. Frequently, it is through reading a paragraph the outcome can be predicted. The paragraph may be one to be evaluated critically or to be summarized. Some problems of comprehension involve skills that are peculiar to the paragraph rather than to phrases or longer selections.

For instance, finding the topic sentence, and looking at the relation between the topic sentence and the other sentences. Many suggestions for improving comprehension of paragraphs have been given under various skills listed earlier, for instance, under "Reading to Find the Main Idea" and "Reading to Make Summaries and Organize Materials." The following are supposed to be additional activities that could be used to help students develop skill in comprehending paragraphs. These include:

- a) Finding the paragraph that answers a question or contains a specific thought.
- b) Finding the topic sentence of paragraphs that contain topic sentences.
- c) Studying the topic sentence of a paragraph to help get the main idea of the paragraph.
- d) Using the topic sentence of a paragraph as an aid when organizing, as well as when skimming.
- e) Writing paragraphs on specified topics.
- f) Arranging paragraphs that are not in the correct sequence into the correct ones.

## **10. Reading Longer Selections with Comprehension**

It is generally accepted that selections longer than paragraphs, such as articles, stories, chapters, or books, may present special problems. Among these are questions as to how to get the most value from the center headings, side headings, and traditional words or phrase, or how to study interrelationships between various types of paragraphs. We have learned so far that a number of suggestions seem to have been introduced under a variety of topics earlier in this section. Therefore, what I try to list here are more about some additional activities that some students could profitably perform to gain more skills in comprehending materials of this type. The activities are:

- a) Finding a place in a story or article of book where specified parts begin.
- b) Reading a story or article to decide where it can be divided into parts.
- c) Taking a pretest, before reading a selection, on questions based on the selection and then, after reading it, taking the test again.

## Media in Teaching Reading

As has been discussed previously, reading constitutes a combination of various specific skills, such as getting the main idea, selecting significant details, making summaries and organizing materials, and predicting outcomes. All of these should be identified for the purpose of helping the learners improve the ability to comprehend what they read. To help the learners master the skill well, teachers of reading should be able to find and select the appropriate media to be used in their teaching learning process. The question is “which media are appropriate to be used in the teaching of reading”? It seems to be quite certain that certain sub skills that demand certain techniques and/or activities require adequate media. Huebener (1965) pointed out that if properly used, pictures, charts, maps, slides, and records will certainly make the reading lesson more interesting, more colorful, and more effective. No one would deny that everyone likes to look at pictures. So, be careful guidance from the teacher, the picture (whether a drawing on the board, a mounted illustration, a slide or a photograph) can be employed to enrich the text, stimulate the learners’ thinking, and build up their vocabulary.

Huebener (1965) further indicated that place names mentioned in the text should be located on the map. Cultural references should be illustrated with pictures or photographs; musical references should be enriched with the playing of records. This, of course, should not be done haphazardly but after careful planning, so that its effectiveness can be increased.

The following are examples of activities that may employ pictures:

1. Matching a series of pictures with paragraphs they illustrate.
2. Matching a picture that illustrates a main idea with a paragraph that it illustrates
3. Arranging pictures in the order in which events illustrated by them occurred in a story.
4. Making up sentences that describe a picture.

## 4.4 ALTERNATIVE TECHNIQUE FOR ADVANCED STUDENTS

### 1. Discussion Web

Discussion Web and the procedure of teaching a foreign language through this technique was taken from Goldstein (2010). A Discussion Web helps small groups of students organize their thinking. Discussion Webs also help the groups make a decision together. You can use Discussion Webs to help students understand what they are reading for class. Or, you can use a Discussion Web to help students make a decision together as a group.

#### Procedure

1. Divide your class into groups of about 5-6 students.
2. Write a focus question on the board. The focus question should ask the groups to come to a conclusion together. Good questions might ask students to:
  - think about something they have read for class
  - think about experiences they have had
  - debate an important topic
  - make a group decision about how to act
3. Pass out copies of the Discussion Web worksheet. OR, draw the graphic organizer on the board for students to copy on their own pieces of paper.
4. Each group should discuss the focus question. The groups must come up with evidence to support a “yes” position and a “no” position. The groups should write down their responses on the Discussion Web graphic organizer. They do NOT need to write in full sentences. Instead, they should use key words or key phrases.
5. The groups should work together to make a decision. They should state their conclusion and the reasons for their conclusion.
6. Each group should choose a leader. This leader will tell the whole class about the group’s decision.

#### Adaptations

Instead of reporting orally, the groups can create their own poster with their decision. The rest of the class can walk around and look at the poster.

# 5

## TEACHING WRITING

As with the other skills, writing cannot be separated from vocabulary and grammar. In teaching writing, automatically we have to deal with words and expressions: vocabulary, and the rules that govern the syntax of its patterns: grammar. This section will discuss how we have to select vocabulary and grammar in teaching writing.

Before teaching writing, we have to identify which vocabulary and grammar to introduce or which vocabulary and grammar that our students need. We also have to identify how they want to express their ideas in a written form. It is obvious that we cannot present all of vocabulary and grammar in teaching writing at the same time and not all of them may be urgent to be introduced in writing to students of a certain level. We have to select and prepare a list of words and grammar so that our students will be able to use them in expressing their ideas in a written form.

There are items which we must necessarily exclude and items which we must necessarily include in our plan. Between these lie the problems of selection of the items. Mackey (1975, p. 164) states that the selectivity of any item is inversely proportional to its restrictability, that is, to the capacity of the language to do without it. A writing class for absolute beginners will probably not contain the same type of materials as a writing class for advanced students. Selecting materials is the first way that language teachers should do.

## **5.1 SELECTING RIGHT MATERIALS IN TEACHING WRITING**

Since writing can be separated from vocabulary and grammar, the selection of the two components of language plays an important role in selecting materials in writing class. We learn new language items as we need them, and the more we need them the more we learn them. This principle is also applied to the teaching of writing. Foreign language teachers may attempt to consider this principle if they teach new words or new grammatical units in writing. Because it is not possible to let our students to make their own selection in learning the target language, we can consider the characteristics of our students to decide what to be learned. The easiest way to select the vocabulary and grammar of the target language is the frequency of its occurrence. The frequency reflects the usefulness of an item. Selection by frequency will produce the sort of materials that our students are likely to read or hear or use in communication. Language teachers may make best selection by considering the level of our students so that we can provide our students with appropriate materials. Students' need based on their levels is considered in judging the materials that should be taught: vocabulary and grammar.

As discussed in Module Two, based on the new curriculum, vocabulary may be classified under 900 words for the Elementary School, 1500 words for the Junior High School and 400 words for the Senior High School. Words may also be classified under 1<sup>st</sup> 1000 words, 2<sup>nd</sup> 1000 words to 10<sup>th</sup> words by considering word frequency. Based on word frequency, vocabulary is divided into four major groups: high frequency words, academic words, technical words and low frequency words (Nation, 2002), and they will be learned in different ways: language focused learning, meaning focused input, meaning focused output, and fluency development. The high frequency words may be appropriately taught at lower levels while the other groups of words may be learned at more advanced students.

Even though there may be uncertainty and disagreement on how grammar should be classified, grammatical selection is still possible and grammar selection may not be so great as the selection of vocabulary. In addition to its frequency of occurrence, grammar may also be classified based on its degree of difficulty. The frequency of occurrence in communication

and the degree of difficulty may be used to determine and evaluate the specific items of grammar selected in teaching writing.

The grammar of a language is made up of (a) structures, (b) inflections, and (c) structure words (Mackey, 1975, p. 191). The selection of grammar for a writing class also includes the three aspects. The three aspects will be addressed in the following section.

## 1. Structures

Structures may include sentence structures, phrases, and collocations. Selection of the structures for writing class is determined by the levels of the students. In determining which sentence structure will be taught in writing class can be separated from the choice of vocabulary. The sentence structure should support all the words that have been selected. As mentioned earlier, the main criteria of the selection of grammar and vocabulary are frequency of occurrence and the level of difficulty. In selecting the sentence structure beginners need more simple sentence patterns. The pattern with *simple to be* as a predicate may be easier for beginners to learn. For example, a sentence "The book is here" seems to be easier to learn and more frequent to use than "Here the book is". The first sentence pattern is also more frequently in communication. The pattern with impersonal object, which uses the pronoun "it", may be more difficult to learn than impersonal subject. The sentence "I find it hard to remember names" is more difficult to learn. It may be easier for beginners to learn "It is hard for me to remember names".

Certain phrases in a clause may easily be replaced by a group of words and some others may not easily be replaced. The phrase "the book" in the sentence "The book is here" may be replaced by the following group of other words:

*The book* is here.

*It*

The man

John

Or, the phrase "here" may be replaced by the following words:

The book is *here*

*in the class*

on the box

The examples above show that such a phrase would be introduced first since the pattern is easier to learn and more frequent to use in English. Beginners may find it difficult to learn a phrase like “The book that I am looking for is here”.

## 2. *Inflections*

If the forms of a word are changed, their meanings will change. For example, go-went, has taken- was taken, woman- women, book- books, soon- sooner. The changes may indicate number, tense, mood, comparison, etc. The selection of inflections may be based on frequency of occurrence in communication and simplicity of the forms. Some inflections are excluded from the selection because of their low frequency of occurrence or complexity of their forms. Some inflections may be used frequently in communication but they may be difficult for beginners to learn. The changes from *man* to *men* or *woman* to *women* may be better to learn after they are introduced the plural form with “s”. The irregular verbs for simple past tense may be introduced after they learn simple past tense with regular verbs.

Frequency studies of a foreign language learning show that two tenses: present and perfect tense cover 90 per cent of all indicative tenses used (Mackey, 1975, p. 194). The use of present tense covers about 68 per cent, perfect tense only about 22 per cent and the rest cover only 10 per cent. Present tense may be better to be introduced first. Even though some tenses may dominate teaching materials, it is necessary to check the variations the inflections. When we select textbooks for beginners, for example, we have to check carefully which inflections should be taught. Are the inflections are limited to certain forms only? Are the inflections introduced commonly used and easily learned? Or, do they cover some tenses by considering their simplicity of their forms?

## 3. *Structure Words*

Structure words are included in vocabulary selection but they may be considered as a part of grammar. They may include prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, auxiliaries, negative particles, interrogative adverbs, and adverbs of degree. Examining the structure words, we may also look for them in the general vocabulary.



For beginners the selection of structure words may include common structure words as *a, an, the, she, in, to, does, from*. The higher level students may need to learn other structure words as *therefore, so, in addition to, while, as though*; more advanced students are ready to learn more difficult structure words. In addition to their frequency of occurrence, the simplicity of their forms is also considered in selecting the structure words, as we do with the other aspects of grammar that have been discussed earlier.

## 5.2 PREPARING MATERIALS IN TEACHING WRITING

Should elementary students learn verbs earlier than nouns? Or, should they learn simple present tense first and simple future tense later? After we have selected *what is taught* in writing, we will ask *in what order it is taught* in order for our students to improve their writing skill. Preparing the materials that have been selected is a process that takes place after the selection of vocabulary and grammar. Some materials should be included in the preparation and some others should be excluded; some should come first and some others should come later. Preparing the materials that we have to teach needs the gradation of the materials: *grouping* and *sequencing* them.

The following examples show how writing types are grouped to train more advanced students to improve their writing skill in the target language ((Interactions II: A Writing Process Book by Segal and Pavlik, 1985).

- Chapter 1 : Persuasion (supporting an opinion with reasons)
- Chapter 2 : Description (describing a place)
- Chapter 3 : Persuasion (giving facts and examples)
- Chapter 4 : Exposition (writing a personal essay)
- Chapter 5 : Narration (using anecdotes)
- Chapter 6 : Exposition (contrasting)
- Chapter 7 : Narration (narrating events)
- Chapter 8 : Exposition (comparison and contrasts)
- Chapter 9 : Description (describing scientific topics)
- Chapter 10 : Persuasion (writing about moral issues)
- Chapter 11 : Narration (writing a newspaper report)
- Chapter 12 : Persuasion (writing a three-point essay)

The materials above seem to have been grouped under *writing paragraph*, which may be appropriate for advanced students. The grouping of the materials is based on the types of writing but they may not be sequenced based on their types; we may not necessarily consider whether one type of writing should be taught earlier than another. We are not very concerned about which one should be taught first. Should *description* come first and *exposition* later, or the other way around? Though sequencing the types of writing may not be very important, we should sequence the vocabulary and grammar for each unit by considering frequency of occurrence and simplicity of their forms. The following examples show how the grammar and the vocabulary have been sequenced for each chapter.

Chapter 1: Persuasion (supporting an opinion with reasons)

- Giving reasons : *because, so, and therefore*
- Using transition words : *in addition, also*
- Using transition words : *first of all, finally*
- Moderating opinions : *adverbs of frequency and quantifiers*

Chapter 2: Description (describing a place)

- Giving reasons : *since*
- Varying word order
- Using non-count nouns

Chapter 3: Persuasion (giving facts and examples)

- Stating opinions : *ought to, should, doesn't have to, could*
- Adding information : *and, also, in addition*
- Adding information : *furthermore*
- Adding information : *not only ... but also*

The types of writing may also determine the sequence of the vocabulary or the grammar in teaching writing. From the examples above we learn that *because, so, and therefore* are introduced together with the type of writing persuasion by supporting an opinion with reasons since the structure words are commonly used in such a writing.

Even though writing in the target language may involve the ability to shape the letters of the alphabet and the knowledge of the right combinations of letters, the real writing is the skill in expressing ideas through the written word of the target language, which is called composition. From the beginning of the course beginners should be given opportunities to practice expressing their ideas in the written language. The examples below show how grammar units are sequenced in writing course for beginners (Interactions I: A Writing Process Book by Segal and Pavlik, 1985).

Chapter 1: Personal description

Grammatical and stylistic focus: simple present tense; combining sentences with conjunctions; using *also*

Chapter 2: Description of a scene

Grammatical and stylistic focus: present continuous tense; adding details with adjectives and prepositional phrases; articles, pronouns

Chapter 3: Description of an event

Grammatical and stylistic focus: count and non-count nouns; examples with *such as*; appositives

From the two sets of writing materials discussed above, it is obvious that teaching different levels of students may need different priorities in the writing skill. Teachers may prepare different sets of grammar and vocabulary to improve students' writing skill. Even though different levels may have similar types of the writing skill, for example, narration, exposition or description, the selection of the materials for different levels may be different in terms of the grammar and the vocabulary that are used in students' writing practice.

Teaching writing cannot be separated from teaching vocabulary and grammar. In teaching writing, vocabulary and grammar are automatically involved. The preparation of teaching writing involves the preparation of vocabulary and grammar that is needed to make the process of writing take place. Vocabulary can be selected and grouped based on its frequency of occurrence, meaning that the more frequent the words are used in communication, the sooner our students should learn the words. Similar to

the selection of vocabulary, grammar should also be selected. The selection of grammar is not only based on frequency of use but simplicity is also considered. Since it is almost impossible to teach all grammatical units and vocabulary at the same time, the two components of language should be sequenced. The more simple patterns should be introduced first and the more difficult patterns will be learned after the simple patterns are acquired.

### **5.3 SELECTING TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING WRITING**

Writing in the target language involves the ability to shape the letters of the alphabet (graphics), knowledge of the right combinations of letters (spelling), and the skill in expressing ideas through the written word of the target language (composition). Each of the three skills has different types and each type may function as a technique that can be used to teach writing. The following section will address the types of writing that can function as techniques in teaching writing (adapted from Mackey, 1975). Types of writing will function as techniques when they are used to improve students' writing.

#### **1. Graphics**

For non-alphabetic people like Japanese or Arabs, writing the letters of alphabet (graphics) may be essential but for people whose native language uses the same kind of script, there may be no need for them to learn the alphabet of English. Teaching English alphabet to non-alphabetic is similar to teaching English to illiterates. Since English and Indonesian language have the same alphabet, handwriting of the alphabet is not necessarily included as a part of the writing course. For Indonesians, the writing course may begin with tracing drills, copying drills, and transcription drills.

#### **2. Tracing Drills**

This writing skill is done by supplying lined workbooks, filled with separate and linked letters and words. Students are provided with dotted lines over which they can write. It may also be done by providing them with blank lines to fill in, continuing the same outline that they have just traced. The teacher may read the word that students can look at and then the students write the word that the teacher has just read. This writing may

be introduced to Indonesian beginners; they may have difficulty in writing English words since we are not accustomed to writing in the language that has little regularity in the relation between sound and letter.

### 3. Drills

Similar to tracing drills, copying drills may include lines of model letters, words, and sentences. Our students are to copy and imitate the models provided. It is suggested that there should be a number of blank lines included in their workbook after each model so that they have enough practice in writing the models.

### 4. Transcription Drills

Actually, this writing is similar to copying drills. The difference is that the transcription drills have longer texts. This writing may also be combined with grammar practice. When combined with grammar, substitution drill and matching tables may be considered.

Example of substitution drills

*John is cold.*

*Hungry (John is hungry)*

*In the class (John is in the class)*

*John and Marry (John and Marry are in the class)*

*Etc.*

Example of matching drills

*Houses*

*doors*

*Cars*

*have*

*wheels*

*Buffaloes*

*have no*

*tails*

*Bicycles*

*heads*

### 5. Spelling

Since the English sounds and letters have little regularity, students should learn which letters to use for a sound or word. The spelling drills may include written exercises in completion, transliteration, and dictation.

## 6. Completion

The purpose of this exercise is to train students in observing the shape of words that they have learned in listening or speaking. In completion exercise one or two letters are omitted and students should fill in the blanks to form a correctly spelled word.

Example

The teacher spells the word *school*

Sch\_ \_l

The teacher spells the word *chicken*

\_ \_icken

The teacher spells the word *horse*

Hor\_ \_

## 7. Transliteration

This writing skill is introduced when the spoken language is learned first. When our students learn the language from what they listen, they may be provided with phonetic transcription and the phonetic transcription represents what they hear. The exercise of this writing is done by providing texts in the phonetic transcription to be rewritten in the conventional orthography. This exercise may also develop their pronunciation by reading phonetic symbols when they use a dictionary.

## 8. Dictation

Dictation may be a good exercise for our students to develop their writing skill from what they hear. Different from transliteration exercise, in dictation exercise our students write what they hear in the conventional orthography. In this exercise our students learn to associate the spoken and the written words; we may read the spoken texts at dictation speed or the texts may be recorded on tape.

## 9. Composition

Written work should start with the vocabulary and structure that our students have either learned orally or simply learned to read. Composition

may range from the easiest exercise to more difficult one; they may be grouped under *sentence modification*, *sentence composition*, and *paragraph writing*. The three types of techniques will be discussed in the following section.

a. Sentence Modification

Sentence modification may have five types: *multiple choice*, *conversion*, *word jumbles*, *matching*, and *alteration*. The five types will be discussed in the following section.

b. Multiple Choice

This exercise may be used to give practice in grammatical elements or vocabulary use. It includes supplying missing word and giving a correct answer.

Example of supplying the missing word exercise:

Put the preposition in their right places: in, on, at.

- *We proclaimed our independence ... 1945.*
- *We get up ... 5 o'clock in the morning.*
- *Many people go to beach ... Sunday.*

Or

Put the preposition in their right places: in, on, at.

- *The capital of the country is located ... Jakarta.*
- *People sell many kinds of fruit ... Sudirman Street.*
- *My parents live.... Kartini Street no 25 Bandar Lampung.*

Example of giving a correct answer exercise

Choose the right answer

- *Dogs have ... (tails, snails, nails).*
- *Clocks have ... (legs, hands, eyes).*

## 10. Conversion

Students are given practice in a new form in place of a known one: from positive to interrogative or from simple present tense to simple past tense, depending on the instruction from the teacher.

Text : *The book is new.*

Students : *Is the book new?*

Text : *We are in the class.*

Students : *Are we in the class?*

Students may be asked to convert one tense to another:

*I go to school every day*      —————→ *I went to school yesterday*

*We drink milk every day*      —————→ *we will drink milk tomorrow*

*The students were here*      —————→ *the students have been here*

### 11. Word Jumbles

In this exercise words are mixed in a random order and our students are required to make a sentence out of them. For example:

MAY-BOOKS-BORROW-LIBRARY-AT-STUDENTS

### 12. Alteration

The text gives a series of sentences with certain words underlined. Our students re-write the sentences using the opposites of the words underlined. The exercise may also require our students to change all the nouns or the tenses, or make similar changes in the text. For example:

Text            : I borrowed a book from the library.

Students      : I will return it tomorrow.

### 13. Matching

Our students are provided with two lists of words or word-groups. By matching them, our students compose sentences which make sense. For example:

He is	in the garden
My money is	a student
The hens are	in a bag

### 14. Sentence Composition

Composing original sentences may be presented through *caption writing*, *sentence writing*, *sentence translation* and *composition tables*. The three techniques will be discussed below.



## 15. Caption Writing

Caption writing may include a series of pictures under each of which students should write their own sentences. In this exercise students are expected to write sentences that describe the picture.

## 16. Sentence Translation

Translating from the native language to the target language can be a form of writing exercise. In this exercise students translate sentences written in their first language into English. The sentences may be presented disconnected or connected in the form of a story.

## 17. Composition Tables

Composition tables may be a type of controlled composition. Students are provided with tables and write out full sentences from the tables. Since the purpose of writing is to drill students in the use of English, not in the use of imagination, they may be provided with enough ideas before they write.

## 18. Paragraph Writing

Writing paragraph may include *paraphrase writing, narration, description, free composition and translation.*

### a. Paraphrase

Writing exercise may take a form of paraphrasing selected passages or to summarize in their own words. Paraphrasing may take a form of altering sentences, which is simpler than paraphrasing passages.

### b. Narration

Narration may be written from a sequence of pictures and students write the story they tell. It may also require students to write in full sentences the activities which they perform during the day, from the time they get up to the time they go to bed.

### c. Description

In writing paragraph teachers may provide students with a series of pictures. The pictures may lead our students into writing a description of each picture of the whole pictures.

d. Exposition

In exposition students are required to tell how they do an action with which they are likely to be familiar. For example, how they start or ride a motorcycle.

e. Free Composition

Free composition is regarded as the culminating point of writing exercise. Composition may be required on topics with which our students are familiar. In this exercise students may be given a detailed outline of the composition so that they will not spend much time for imagination when they will start to write.

f. Paragraph Translation

Paragraph writing is given to advanced students since in this exercise they are not only expected to have a good knowledge of the structure and the vocabulary of the target language but of its culture and certain expressions in the target language as well.

Even though we define the techniques of writing in isolated contexts, we often combine them in actual teaching settings. No single technique may be appropriate for all teaching settings. We may combine them in more or less integrated ways. One technique that is suitable for a certain level may be considered for the other levels. For some reasons, techniques that are suggested for elementary students may also be needed for intermediate students. The table above may be useful to be considered.

## 5.4 TEACHING WRITING DIFFERENT LEVELS


Since teaching different levels may use different techniques, our next problem, therefore, is to determine which techniques discussed above may be considered when we teach writing at different levels. A certain level of students may need to know how to shape the letters of the alphabet, another level may need the skill of combining words, and advanced students need the skill in expressing ideas through the written word of the target language. Like many aspects of the other language skills, the type of writing we get our students to do in writing will depend on their individual aspects. The most common factors that affect the choice of the type of writing are age and second language level. We can get beginners to do tracing drills; the teacher may read the word that students can look at and then the students

write the word that the teacher has just read. We probably will not give them paragraph writing by paraphrasing selected passages or to summarize in their own words or writing in full sentences the activities which they perform during the day, from the time they get up to the time they go to bed.

The following examples of writing shown below show a range of level and complexity (Harmer, 1998, pp. 80-83). The first example is a combination of several types of writing discussed earlier. The first procedure is meant for elementary students but in an Indonesian context it may be appropriate for intermediate students. The second procedure is meant for intermediate students and the third procedure may be appropriate for advanced students. The procedures have been taken from Harmer (1998).

### 1. Writing through a Postcard

This technique may be appropriate for elementary students.

<p>We' re staying at a lovely hotel near the beach. We get up late every day and have a large breakfast. Then, we lie around all morning, swimming and reading. After lunch- siesta! Then it's more swimming and a late supper. Paradise! Tomorrow we 're going to Isla Mujeres (Island of the Women).</p> <p>See you soon,</p> <p>Love Mary</p>	<div style="text-align: right; margin-bottom: 10px;">  </div> <p>Judy Saunders          6 Turtas Road  <hr/>         Cambridge CT5 3YR  <hr/>         INGLATERRA  <hr/> <hr/></p>
--	--

- The teacher starts by having students look at a postcard.
- The teacher checks that the students understand the information in the card.

- The teacher asks the students to identify four different patterns in it: the present continuous (We're staying at a hotel...), the present simple (We get up late every day), verbless sentences, and postcard style (After lunch, siesta!) and present continuous tense for future (Tomorrow, we're going ...).
- The students should also discuss the fact that in postcards greetings (Dear Judy) are not necessary and signings-off are informal (Love Mary).
- After the students examine the structure and the language used in the postcards, the teacher asks them to imagine that they are too on holiday.
- The students must decide where they are on holiday and whom they will send their postcards.
- The teacher tells the students to send their postcards to an English-speaking friend.
- The students should say where they are, what they do every day, what they are doing tomorrow/ next week, etc., they should also sign off informally.
- When the students have completed the task, the teacher can collect the postcards and correct them later. Or, the students can read them out, or they can show their cards to other people and the other people read the cards.

This postcard activity is an example for elementary level students and the teacher may teach writing by using other models; certain kinds of letters, announcements and invitations may be used to get our students to practice writing.

## 2. Writing through Dictations

This technique may be appropriate for elementary and intermediate students. This technique starts from listening; the teacher dictates statements and the students should continue the statements or alter to suit their own preferences.

- The teacher tells the students that he/she is going to dictate a number of sentences and they should write the sentences and continue the sentences with their own ideas. As an example the teacher reads this sentence:

*Nowadays students are lazy.*

- The students alter the statement to suit their own preferences. Some examples that the students might write:

*Some people think that nowadays students are lazy but do not think this is true.*

- The students may write the statement and continue it. As an example the students may write:

*Nowadays students are lazy because parents are very busy.*

- The students then compare what they have written in pairs or groups.
- The students may discuss their sentences and come up with the sentences that they have corrected together.
- The students read the sentences out to the class.
- The teacher may correct their sentences if the errors are really important for the whole class.

This activity then leads into a reading or listening activity and the students may form the start of a discussion activity. Alternatively, the teacher writes the statements on the blackboard and the students alter the statements in their writing books individually.

### 3. Writing through Newspaper Headlines/Articles

This technique may be appropriate for intermediate and advanced students. The teacher introduces students to the way newspaper headlines are constructed.

- The teacher gets students to match newspaper headlines with the stories they came from, as in the following example.

Headline	Story
a. Neighbor slams rock party	1. At the monthly meeting of the housing committee of Barkingside district council, chairman Geoffrey Caspar resigned dramatically when his opposite Glenda Beckett ...
b. Housing chief quits at stormy meeting	2. When his neighbor played loud music until three in the morning Philip Mitchell (82) went mad. "I couldn't stand it anymore," he said. "I'm an old man and I need ...

- The teacher elicits the facts that, for example, headlines frequently use the present simple tense and invariably leave out articles and auxiliaries.
- Students are then asked to choose one of the topics the teacher provides, examples: natural disaster, a scandal involving an artist, a sports triumph, political conflict.
- The teacher gets them to write their own newspaper headlines.
- The students then write articles to go with the headlines.
- While students are writing articles, the teacher goes around the class offering help when they need it.
- The teacher may have students read their stories out of the rest of the class.
- The teacher may stick the articles up on the class noticeboard.

Even though in this procedure writing is the main concern, to integrate with another skill reading is introduced here. Reading comes before and after writing. Students start reading newspapers and then they learn to write, and the result of their writing process leads into reading activity. For more advanced students, the following writing suggestions may be considered (Harmer, 1998).

1. Students write letters to a newspaper in response to a controversial article.
2. Students expand a variety of headlines into newspaper articles.
3. Students write their own menus.
4. Students design posters for a party.
5. Students write a radio news bulletin.
6. Students write a letter of application for a job.
7. Students send e-mail messages to other English speakers.
8. Students write invitations of various kinds.

Teaching one language skill can be separated from the other skills. The skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing reinforce one another. Consequently, language teacher has to consider these four skills in dealing with the techniques in teaching writing.

## 5.5 ALTERNATIVE TECHNIQUES FOR ADVANCED STUDENTS

The following techniques and the procedure of teaching writing may be considered for advanced students (Goldstein, 2010).

### 1. Fast Write

“Fast Write” helps students get “warmed up” or prepared for a class discussion. They also can be used to see if students are doing their homework before coming to class. Fast Writes help students remember what they read before class, or they help students think about experiences they have had. Doing a Fast Write helps students get ready to talk about their thinking. Fast Writes help your classes have better discussions.

Procedures:

1. Ask students to take out a piece of paper and a pencil (or a pen) to write with.
2. The teacher writes a prompt on the board. The prompt should:
  - ask students to think about what they have read OR think about an experience they have had
  - ask students to think critically or think deeply about that reading/experience
  - require students to respond in writing
3. The teacher should give students about 5-7 minutes to respond to the prompt. The students should spend this time writing their responses to the prompt.
4. The focus of a Fast Write should be on the students’ thinking and their ideas. Students and teachers should not worry about spelling, punctuation, or other writing errors, because their ideas are the most important thing.
5. Give students a warning when they have only 1 or 2 minutes left to write.
6. When the time is up, ask students to put their pens down. Allow students to keep their Fast Writes to use during the discussion.
7. The teacher should start a discussion with the students about the Fast Write topic. The discussion can be a whole-class discussion, or it can be

done in small groups. Students can look back at what they wrote during the discussion.

8. After the discussion is over, collect the Fast Writes from students.

The teacher may continue the process by identifying the errors that their students make and then consider the errors when the teacher will teach the class in the following meetings.

## 2. Brain Write

In a Brain Write, students “brainstorm” or think about something. They quickly write their ideas down. Then, they pass their ideas to another student. The second student looks at what the first person wrote, and then he or she adds to what was written.

Procedures:

1. Ask students to take out a piece of paper and a pencil (or a pen) to write with.
2. The teacher writes a prompt on the board. The prompt can:
  - ask students to think about what they have read
  - ask students to think about an experience they have had
  - ask students to create a list
  - ask students to think about questions they haveThe prompt should require students to write quickly
3. The teacher should give students about 5 minutes to respond to the prompt. The students should spend this time writing their responses to the prompt.
4. Like a Fast Write, the focus of a Brain Write should be on the students’ thinking and their ideas. Students should not worry about spelling, punctuation, or other writing errors, because their ideas are the most important thing.
5. Give students a warning when they have only 1 or 2 minutes left to write.
6. When the time is up, ask students to put their pens down.
7. Each student should give their paper to a different student. Students then look over the new papers. They look at the ideas on the paper, think



about those ideas, and add their own ideas to what the first student wrote.

8. If there is enough time, the students can switch papers with a new person. They repeat the process in step #7.
9. After the students have switched papers and shared ideas, the teacher can begin a discussion about the topic. The discussion can be a whole-class discussion, or it can be in smaller groups.

Adaptations:

You can have students switch papers as many times as you want. If students are already working in groups, they can share their papers with other group members. Or, one group can brainstorm together and then share their paper with another group.

## 5.6 MEDIA IN TEACHING WRITING

Which types of writing are taught? Is writing based on speaking, on reading texts, on neither, or on both? The answers to all of the questions will permit us to decide which media we will use in teaching writing. In general, media in language teaching may be contextual or formal.

### 1. Contextual Media

Writing may be practiced in the contexts of pictures, of actions, or of words. In pictorial contexts pictures and situations can be used to provide students with ideas in writing. Wall-pictures, films can provide students with good ideas when they are not ready to have free composition. These media may be appropriate for writing description. Actions may also be used to teach writing exposition. Writing may also be practiced through the medium of verbal context in the form of stories, songs, anecdotes and various types of verbal drills. Paraphrasing may be practiced through this way.

### 2. Formal Media

Any of the contextual media may be used with the form of spoken language. In teaching the target language the spoken language may take precedence over the written language. Therefore, writing activity may start from listening; students try to understand the ideas of listening texts and

then they alter to suit the ideas for their writing. The spoken form of language may be presented in recorded exercises on tape or on discs. This media may be appropriate to teach dictation to beginners.

Since writing can be classified under three types: graphics, spelling, and composition, techniques of writing can be developed from the three writing types accordingly. In writing graphics the suggested techniques are tracing drills, copying drills and transcription drills. These techniques may be appropriate for beginners when they are still learning the target language: English. Teaching spelling may be done after the students have no problem with the letters of English; then, three techniques: completion, transliteration, and dictation may be used. These techniques are meant to train students to use letters to produce words since English sounds and letters have little regularity. To develop the writing skill of the students who have acquired some vocabulary and grammatical competence, composition may be introduced. Composition may range from the easiest exercise to more difficult one; they may be grouped under sentence modification, sentence composition, and paragraph writing. Some of the techniques classified under these three types of writing may be used to make our students to their grammar and vocabulary in sentences and some may be used to express ideas in a written form. The techniques that may be used to teach writing to advanced students, with which the students have more freedom to express their ideas, are classified under writing paragraph, namely narration, description, free composition and translation. All of the techniques introduced here are discussed in isolated contexts. In real teaching we may have procedures of teaching writing by combining some techniques in order for us to have a more integrated way of teaching English. Some examples have been shown how different techniques are combined to teach writing to students of different levels.

Since writing may be integrated with the other skills, media is often needed in teaching writing. They may be grouped under contextual and formal media. The contextual media may vary from contexts of pictures, actions, and words. Contextual media may be used to provide students with ideas in writing when they are not ready to have free composition.

Any of the contextual media may be used together the spoken language. In teaching the target language the spoken language may take precedence over the written language. The spoken form of language may be presented in recorded exercises on tape or on discs.

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# 6

## TEACHING INTEGRATED SKILLS

**H**ow should English be learned? Different people may have different perceptions towards the way English should be learned. Some people may argue that the language should be learned by mastering its grammatical rules first while some others believe that mastering grammar will not help students to acquire communicative competence of the language. Some believe that English should be acquired by learning the four language skills in an integrative way. Still, some others may support the idea that English should be learned through a segregated-skill instruction, the mastery of discrete language skills.

People who agree that grammar should be taught first because they may think that language learners are encouraged to learn to communicate in the target language and at the same time they also acquire a sound and accurate basis in the grammar of the target language. In order to emphasize the accuracy and then continue on the fluency of using English, English learners still need the mastery of the English grammar in order for them to feel secure in using English for communication. The fluency building can be emphasized after the students have been provided with enough practice of mastering the English grammar for the purpose of accuracy; the process can be continued with activities that emphasize the use of English in a communicative way.

Millions people are believed to have successfully learnt foreign languages to a high degree of proficiency and, in numerous cases, without

contact with native speakers of the target language. This success might have been the role of teaching grammar. The grammar teaching can give learners a basic foundation upon which language learners can then build their communicative skills through the communicative activities.

The way of teaching the target language discussed above seems to stress the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and attempt such activities arranged in a grammar-based syllabus. The grammar-based syllabus does not necessarily mean that the language learning is grammar oriented but the syllabus only tells us how the learning materials are arranged. The grammar-based syllabus above seems to be combined with another type of syllabus, such as skill-based syllabus or others. In other words, English grammar should be learned in the integration with the skills of the language.

Teaching English in an integrative way discussed above involves the integration of components of language with language skills. Integrative teaching may also refer to how to relate language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing in learning process. The skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing should reinforce one another. Consequently, language teacher has to consider these four skills in dealing with the language materials. He/she may not leave one skill behind the others. Language teacher is supposed to deal with all of the four skills when working on each linguistic objective.

However, Canale and Swain (1980) do not consider this way of teaching mentioned above to be integrative in that the concepts do not address how individual utterances are linked at the level of discourse. In their view, integration refers to a combination of knowledge of grammar, knowledge of how utterances are used in social contexts, knowledge of how utterances and communicative functions can be combined to the principles of discourse. They suggest that some combination of emphasis on grammar accuracy and emphasis on meaningful communication from the very start of second or foreign language study. It implies that grammatical competence should be taught in the context of meaningful communication. This language instruction is known as task-based instruction, in which its teaching syllabus has been arranged in such a way that stresses doing tasks which require communicative language use (Oxford, 2001).

In addition to the task-based instruction, Oxford also suggests another way of teaching integrated skills that is called content-based instruction. In content-based instruction, students are expected to practice all the language skills in highly integrated, communicative activities while they learn content such as mathematics, science and social studies. Content-based instruction is popularly known as an Immersion Program. The program offers students a unique and exciting opportunity to learn to read, read and communicate naturally in English while they focus on content learning. The term “Immersion” is popularly used in Canada. It is used to express the system that uses a second language (English) as the medium of instruction at schools in Canada. The program focuses on learning the target language (English) through content teaching rather than on teaching the language. Students at all points receive a curriculum parallel to non-immersion students. Teachers are highly skilled bilinguals with a strong commitment to bilinguals. Teachers serve as linguistic role models. Teachers are trained to provide comprehensible input through the target language (Mora, 2004). The program has been used successfully and much research shows that an impressive development of both a second language proficiency and academic achievement by participating students.

The term “integrative” seems to need a long discussion since different people may have different concepts of “integrative”. You may agree or disagree with one concept of “integrated” in language teaching as long as you realize that the final goal of teaching the target language is communicative competence of the language. Some people agree that the way the materials are arranged does not bother them very much; they are more concerned with the final goal of the language learning: communicative competence.

The theory of the nature of language and learning theories will play an important role in determining the goal of students’ learning. In turn, teaching goals will finally determine choices of syllabus types. If the goal is only concerned with a single aspect of a language, the choice of syllabus for the purpose is easily decided. If students’ learning objectives involve the integration of components of language, language skills and other aspects of language, the choices can range from simpler types of syllabus to more complex ones. The following section will address the types of language syllabus in order for us to have a clearer picture of how teaching materials

may be presented and how the arrangement of the materials suggests students' learning objectives.

## **9.1 PREPARING RIGHT MATERIALS IN TEACHING INTEGRATED SKILLS**

Since it is impossible to teach the whole of a target language, selection of teaching materials is necessary. The teaching materials will be selected based on the objectives of the instruction, which are stated in the syllabus we have chosen. Our syllabus will tell us the objectives of our teaching either explicitly or implicitly. Since the objectives of our teaching can hardly be separated from our syllabus, types of language syllabus need to be discussed. The following section will address the types of language syllabus.

## **9.2 TYPES OF LANGUAGE SYLLABUS**

There has been much confusion as to what types of syllabus are possible in communicative language teaching and to how different they are in the level of implementation. Knowing the syllabus types will help us to decide and choose the one(s) that is appropriate with our teaching goals and our situations and conditions. The following are some types of language teaching syllabus that will be distinctively discussed (Lingualinks Library, 1999).

### **1. A grammar or structural syllabus**

The content of the language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures of the language being taught.

Steps:

- a. We decide on a set of forms and structures that the students have to learn and arrange them in increasing complexity, meaning from simple to complex forms and discourses.
- b. We decide a set of vocabulary to be learned together with forms and structures.
- c. We sequence the vocabulary, considering that concrete nouns and more common forms should be taught.



- d. We fit the vocabulary, forms and the structures together into a set of learning tasks.

Below are language materials that have been developed based on grammar syllabus (taken from *SIDE BY SIDE: English through Guided Conversation* by Molinsky and Bliss, 1983). Book 2A

Simple Present Tense  
Present Continuous Tense  
Pronouns  
Subject and Object  
Possessive Adjectives

Simple Past Tense (Regular and Irregular verbs)  
Past Continuous Tense

The benefit of a grammar syllabus is that students move from simpler to more complex structures and they may learn the structures more easily. Even though the materials seem to consider grammar-based arrangement, activities in the book enforce students to learn English through guided conversations. The disadvantage of this syllabus is that students are often preoccupied with grammar when they are learning communicative activities, which may block natural communicative process. This syllabus may be more useful in a context in which the students do not have immediately communication needs.

## 2. A notional or functional syllabus

The content of the language teaching is a collection of the functions or the notions that are performed when the language is used.

Steps:

- a. We make a list of communication functions of the language that students expect to master.
- b. We make a list of the semantic notions (meanings) based on the culture the speakers of the language.
- c. We group the functions and the notions together into learning tasks.

The example below is a language syllabus that has been developed based on notional syllabus (taken from *Impact: English for Social Interaction* by Watcyn-Jones, 1980).

#### Unit 1: Socializing

- a. How to approach the person you are meeting
- b. How to reply
- c. How to introduce yourself
- d. How to respond and reply to an introduction
- e. Etc.

#### Unit 2: Asking and Answering Questions

- a. How to ask and answer direct questions where a short Yes or No answer is expected
- b. How to ask and answer direct questions where a longer answer than Yes or No is expected
- c. How to ask a direct question when you already think you know what the answer will be
- d. Etc.

The benefit of a notional/functional syllabus is that students learn how to use the target language to express their own ideas, notions and purposes. The disadvantage of this syllabus is that different kinds of structures are often used to express the same functions so that it is difficult to arrange the structure of the target language from simpler to more complex forms. This syllabus may trigger language learners to use the target language to express their own emotions, ideas or purposes.

### 3. A situational or topical syllabus

The content of the language teaching is a collection of imaginary situations where the language is used.

Steps:

- a. We make a list of communications situations that students may face.
- b. We make a list of topics, grammatical forms and vocabulary and sequence them.

- c. We group the topics, forms and structures and fit them with communication situations.

The teaching units below are language materials that have been developed based on situational syllabus.

Unit 1: At Post Office

Unit 2: At School

Unit 3: At the Airport

Unit 4: At Restaurant

Unit 5: Shopping

Unit 6: At Party

The benefit of a situational syllabus is that students learn how to use the target language in an authentic communication. The advantage of this syllabus is that when unexpected situations happen in communication language learners are not accustomed to communicate in the language spontaneously. This syllabus is good for language learners who are preparing to go to a country where the language is being learned. This situational teaching has the goal of teaching specific language content that occurs in situation.

#### 4. A skill-based syllabus

The content of the language teaching is a collection of specific skills in using the target language. Examples of skills in using the target language may include reading for the main idea, writing good paragraphs, and listening for the main idea.

Steps:

- a. We make a list of language skills that students need to acquire.
- b. We make a list of topics, grammatical forms and vocabulary and sequences them.
- c. We group the topics, forms and structures and fit them with the language skills.

The language materials below have been developed based on skill-based syllabus (taken from *Writing Academic English* by Oshima and Hogue, 1983).

**WRITING A PARAGRAPH**

What is a paragraph?

Paragraph Structure

The three parts of a paragraph

Two additional elements

Assignment format

How to write a title

The Topic Sentence

Position of topic sentences

The two parts of a topic sentence

Writing topic sentences: two reminders

The concluding Sentence

Review: What is a Paragraph?

The benefit of a skill-based syllabus is that students can specify their learning to reach their communicative competence, such as using telephone, booking a hotel, and others. The disadvantage of this syllabus is that it is harder to sequence the materials. This syllabus is good for those who want to learn specific language skills, such as the writing skill as the example above.

## **5. A task-based syllabus**

The content of the language teaching includes a series of purposeful tasks that language learners need to perform; tasks are defined as activities that are needed when using the target language. Examples of a task-based syllabus may include applying for a job, ordering food via the telephone and getting housing information over the telephone. This syllabus is similar to a situational syllabus but it focuses on more general linguistic competence that is less culturally loaded.

Steps:

- a. We make a list of abilities or tasks that students need to acquire.
- b. We make a list of topics, grammatical forms and vocabulary and sequences them.
- c. We group the topics, forms and structures and fit them with the tasks.

The following is a list of task-types used in a five-year project that consisted of teaching small number classes in primary and secondary schools in southern India (Prabhu, 1987, p. 138).

#### Diagrams and formations

- a. Naming parts of a diagram with numbers and letters of the alphabet, as instructed.
- b. Placing numbers and letters of the alphabet in relation to one another, as instructed, to arrive at particular formations.
- c. Placing numbers and letters of the alphabet in given crossword formats; constructing/completing such formats, as instructed.

#### Drawing

- a. Drawing geometrical figures/formations from sets of verbal instructions.
- b. Formulating verbal instructions for drawing/completing such figures.
- c. Comparing given figures to identify similarities and differences.

The benefit of a task-based syllabus is that students learn to carry out activities using the target language. Language teaching through task-based syllabus occurs only as the need arises during the performance of a given task. The disadvantage is that students often learn to perform tasks and language learning is less emphasized.

### 6. A content-based syllabus

A content-based syllabus in language teaching is actually not a language syllabus. The primary purpose of instruction is to teach subject matter of the content course or information using the target language. The subject is primary and language learning occurs automatically while language learners are studying the subject. An example of a content-based syllabus is a science class that is taught in the target language.

#### Steps:

- a. We make a list of topics from the content (subject).
- b. We make a list of topics, grammatical forms and vocabulary and sequences them.
- c. We group the forms and structures and fit them with the topics.

The following is a list of topics that have been developed based on a content-based syllabus and is designed to improve the job-specific English of non-native speakers who are working or being trained in the telecommunications industry (Comfort, et al, 1994).

- Unit 1     Networks
- Unit 2     Transmission
- Unit 3     Switching
- Unit 4     Computer communications
- Unit 5     Radio communications

The benefit of a content-based syllabus is that students feel satisfied with the purpose of learning the target language, namely acquiring information. The feeling of satisfaction will promote their learning. The disadvantage of this syllabus is that the content of instruction is not organized around the language teaching so that there is almost no teaching of the target language even though the students will automatically learn the language. This syllabus is often used in the immersion program, which has been addressed earlier.

Some syllabus types may be overlapped with the others. To some extent a content-based syllabus is similar to a skill-based syllabus; in a content-based syllabus students are often involved in activities that link the skills. Students might read and take notes, listen and write a summary, or respond orally to things they have read or written (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 208). Richards and Rodgers suggest that the teacher or course developer has the responsibility to identify relevant grammar and other linguistic focuses to complement the theme of activities in a content-based syllabus. This implies that the teaching materials are arranged a combination of skill-based and grammar syllabus and such a teaching program may also be called an *immersion program*.

The types of syllabus mentioned above are not the only types of syllabus that are commonly known in the context of communicative teaching. There are some other types that are not very popular, such as interactional syllabus and learner-centered syllabus (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 164). In having which type of syllabus would work optimally in providing students with learning activities to gain communicative competence, we must take into

consideration all factors that might affect the practicality and teachability of a particular syllabus. By experiencing each type of syllabus, we may finally choose one or two types of syllabus that are appropriate in our teaching settings, or combine the types of syllabus according to local conditions and needs.

Even though we define the types of syllabus in isolated contexts, we often combine them in actual teaching settings. No single syllabus may be appropriate for all teaching settings. We may combine them in more or less integrated ways, with one type as the basis with which the others are related. The guidelines to syllabus choice and design below may be worth considering (Reilly, 1988).

- a. We determine what outcomes are desired for the students in the instructional program or define what the students should be able to do as a result of instruction.
- b. We rank the syllabus types presented above as to their likelihood of leading to the outcomes desired.
- c. We evaluate available resources in materials and in training for teachers.
- d. We rank the types of syllabus relative to available resources and consider what syllabus types would be the easiest to implement given the available resources.
- e. We compare the lists of the syllabus types, make as few adjustments and produce a new ranking based on the resources constraints.
- f. We repeat the process, taking into account the constraints contributed by the teacher, student and other factors.
- g. We determine a final ranking, taking into account all the information from the earlier steps.
- h. We designate one or two types as dominant and one as one as secondary.
- i. We translate the decisions into actual teaching units.

Recently, many course designers agree with the combination of syllabus types without explicitly stating that they have combined syllabus types. Frodesen and Eyring (2000) seem to support the combination. In their book, *The Grammar Dimensions, Platinum Edition*, they introduce a technique for teachers to teach English and for students to use English grammar in communication *accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately*. This implies that we do not necessarily rely on a single type of syllabus. The grammar

syllabus (accurately), which is often believed to be far from communicative competence, can be combined with notional syllabus (meaningfully) and situational syllabus, which deals with cultural settings (appropriately).

The following example illustrates the combination of syllabus types (taken from *The Grammar Dimensions, Platinum Edition, Book 4, Unit 1*).  
*One of the goals of the unit: to use verb tenses correctly to describe events and situations.*

Looking at the goal above, it implies that the syllabus has been arranged in a grammar syllabus (verb tenses) but the grammatical unit is presented to express a notion (to describe events) in certain cultural settings (situations). The syllabus seems to have been meant for students to learn communicative competence of the language through grammar mastery without focusing on the grammar knowledge itself. The grammar is not considered as an end but the grammar is learned in contexts in order for students to be able to use the language in real communication. The book seems to have been developed in an integrated way, with grammar syllabus as the basis with which notional syllabus and situational syllabus are related.

The book *The Grammar Dimensions* is not only integrative in that the materials are arranged in a combination of several types of syllabus but the activities in the book also integrate the skills of the language. The following instructions are taken from a unit of the book, showing that the four skills are covered in one unit. The four language skills are taught in an integrative way.

*Compare your lists with those of two or three other class members. Discuss which groups on your childhood lists have changed and which have remained important groups to you at the present time.*

*As an out-of-class assignment, write three paragraphs. For the first paragraph, describe a childhood in-group that was especially important to you. For the second paragraph, write about ...*

*Exchange the paragraphs you wrote for the opening tasks with a classmate. After reading the paragraphs, write one or two questions that you have about your classmate's in-groups and ask him or her to respond to them.*



The three instructions, which have been taken arbitrarily from one unit, have different learning targets. The first instruction expects students to practice speaking and listening. The second instruction emphasizes writing skill and the third provides students with opportunities to practice reading. The activities that students are expected to do are integrative in the sense that they practice communicative competence of the four skills of the target language.

The skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing should reinforce one another. Consequently, a language teacher has to consider these four skills in dealing with students' learning activities. He/she may not leave one skill behind the others. He/she may start from one skill and continue with the other skills. What skill should go first depends on the purpose of your teaching and the levels of the students. Different writers may propose ideas of which skills should go first. In Silent Way method of Cattedgno, reading should be worked on from the beginning but follows from what language learners already know (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, p. 59). After language learners can produce sounds in the target language and connect the sounds with the truth, they begin to read symbols in the target language. This process can begin after the first class and language teacher does not have to delay it.

Teaching English in an integrative way seems to refer different concepts. To some people it refers to the integration of components of language with language skills while to some others it refers to the integration of the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing in teaching the target language. Even though they may have different perceptions towards the way the language is learned, they have some things in common and the final goal of the language learning should be communicative competence.

To reach the goal, teaching materials may be arranged in different considerations and based on the considerations the materials will be arranged in different types of language syllabus. In language teaching contexts, there are six types of language syllabus, namely grammar syllabus, situational syllabus, notional syllabus, task-based syllabus, skill-based syllabus and content-based syllabus. Each syllabus has strengths and weaknesses and it tells us how the target language should be presented. Even though we have different types of syllabus in isolated contexts, we often combine them in

actual teaching settings. We may combine them in more or less integrated ways, with one type as the basis with which the others are related.

### 9.3 SELECTING TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING INTEGRATED SKILLS

In analysis of teaching techniques, we are concerned with the activities that are done in the classroom to accomplish immediate objectives. The techniques that we are going to discuss are based on the types of language syllabus that have been presented earlier in this module. We put more emphasis on language syllabus since in presenting the teaching materials stated in the syllabus there are techniques or activities that should be done both by the teacher and the students.

The content of a book or the syllabus may not tell us the techniques that we have to do. We will not get a better picture of the purpose of teaching the target language without reading the procedure or description of presenting the syllabus. Different materials that have been developed in different types of syllabus may have similar procedures of presenting the materials. For example, the materials that have been developed in a grammar syllabus may have similar communicative activities as those that have been presented in the other types of language syllabus. Or, the same syllabus type may have different techniques in teaching communicative skills since different syllabus designers may emphasize different language skills. We English teachers should read not only the content of the book but we should also read how the materials will be presented as well so that we know what skill (s) will be the target of students' learning.

#### 1. Dialogue

The following example will show how a functional or notional syllabus will be presented in teaching the four language skills in an integrated way (taken from Watcyn-Jones, 1980). In the suggested procedure or techniques below, teachers would be advised to use two lessons in one unit. The first lesson will go through *opening dialogue*, *functional practice* and *written expression*; while the second lesson will go through *dialogue practice* and *role play*.

### Opening Dialogue

The dialogues are written in the book and they are meant to introduce the language functions that are going to be introduced. The dialogues are presented in as natural a way as possible. The dialogue section should not take up very much lesson time.

The steps:

1. The teacher sets up the situation and read straight through the dialogue (or plays the tape). It is preferable to use the tape so that the students may differentiate more easily between the two speakers in the dialogue. The students listen with books closed.
2. While the students remain with books closed, the teacher asks one or two general questions to make sure that the students have understood the main points of the dialogue.
3. The teacher now reads the dialogue a second time (or plays the tape) in shorter sections. The students follow with books open. At this stage the teacher can point out the language functions covered and the language used to perform them.
4. Students can, if desired, practice reading the dialogue in pairs or groups.

Example of the opening dialogue (Watcyn-Jones, 1980, p. 27)

Simon Watson is at a party. She sees a girl standing alone in the corner of the room. He has never seen her before. He decides to go over and talk to her.

SIMON : Hello, may I join you?

JOANNA : Yes, of course.

SIMON : Quite a good party, isn't it?

JOANNA : yes, very good.

*(A slight pause)*

SIMON : Do you smoke?

JOANNA : No, I don't, actually.

SIMON : Lucky you! I wish I did' have to. *(He takes out a cigarette and lights it.)* By the way, I'm Simon...Simon Watson.

JOANNA : Oh, hello. My name's Jo.

SIMON : Joe? That's a boy's name, isn't it?

JOANNA : No, it's short for Joanna, actually.

SIMON : Oh, sorry.

- JOANNA : That's all right.  
SIMON : Where are you from?  
JOANNA : Scotland, from Edinburg, actually.  
SIMON : are you here on holiday or something?  
JOANNA : No, on business, as a matter of fact. I'm looking for a flat in London.  
SIMON : I see. So I don't suppose you know many of the people here, then?  
JOANNA : No, hardly anyone.  
SIMON : Not to worry...the night's still young. (*He smiles. A short pause. The record changes. A lively rock-and-roll song comes on.*) You do dance, don't you?  
JOANNA : yes, of course.  
SIMON : Well, this sounds lively. Would you like to try it?  
JOANNA : Yes, all right.  
SIMON : Good.

### Functional Practice

Functional practice is the most important section of each unit. It is here that the function is presented and the appropriate language needed to perform it introduced, clearly set out in substitution tables. The tables are followed by detailed and systematic practice (drill) in the form of oral exercises. This part should be thoroughly and intensively presented.

The steps:

1. The teacher reads the description of the function to be taught and explains it to the students. The teacher then reads through the language items set out in the tables. Students repeat the items and then, if applicable, make up their own phrases using the tables. If necessary, the teacher can ask the students to close their books and try to recall as many of the phrases as possible.
2. The teacher now moves on to the practice drill. At first this should be done by both teacher and students to establish the pattern. Once this has been done, the students practice in pairs, the teacher moving around the room listening and checking.

3. If written work is essential, and if the teacher so wishes, the class can be asked to write out selected questions, answers and conversations arising from the oral practices.

Below is the example of functional practice with the sub-unit How to ask and answer direct questions where a longer answer than Yes or No is expected (Wacyn-Jones, 1980, p. 30)

*When you ask someone a direct question and want a more detailed answer than yes or no, begin your question with a question word (e.g. Why? What? etc)*

Here are some questions you can ask and some ways you can answer:

What's	your name? the time? that building over there?	(My name's) Petter Browne. It's 10 o'clock. That's the Post Office Tower.
What	nationality are you? do you usually do at week-ends? have you been doing today?	I'm Swedish (I usually) stay at home and watch TV. (I've been working hard as usual.
How's	your mother? he going to get home? it going?	She's fine, thanks. (He says he's going) by taxi. Very well, thanks.
How	do you know he lives in a flat? many people live in your country? did you get home last night?	(Because) he told me About 50 million Oh, (I got home) by bus
When	do you usually start work? did you first visit England? can you see me?	(I usually start work) at 9 o'clock. (I first visit England) in 1964. (I can see you) tomorrow afternoon, if you like
How long	does it take to get to Brighton? can you stay? have you been working for the BBC	(It takes) about an hour. Not very long. I'm afraid. (I've been working there) since 1970.
Where	do you live? did you go last night? have you put my tie?	(I live) in Chelsea (I went) to the pictures. (It's) in the top drawer.
Which	car is his? country do you come from? job did you finally take?	(It's) the blue Mini over there (I come from) France. (I finally took) the one in Scotland.

Why	do you want this job?  are you late? did you say that to her?	Because I've always been interested in advertising. I'm sorry, but I missed the bus. Because I felt like it-that all!
-----	--	---

*Written Practice*

The aim of this section is to consolidate the preceding oral practice. It provides a useful check for the teacher that the student has mastered the various language items practiced orally. This section can also be set for homework. Alternatively, it can be done orally in class and written out later at home. If extra written work is necessary, the students can be asked to write out selected units as suggested in Functional Practice (no.3) above.

Example of written practice (Walcyn-Jones, 1980, p. 35)

*Write out the following questions and answer them:*

1. Ask someone what he/she usually has or breakfast.  
A: .....?  
B: .....
2. Ask someone where he/she was born.  
A: .....?  
B: .....
3. Ask someone how he's she's getting home today.  
A: .....?  
B: .....
4. Ask someone when he/she first went abroad.  
A: .....?  
B: .....
5. Ask someone how long it takes to fly to America.  
A: .....?  
B: .....

*Dialogue Practice*

The dialogue practice is meant for consolidation and this section provides an opportunity for oral as well as written consolidation. The dialogue

enables the student to practice newly acquired language in a contextualized, realistic and meaningful way. Since the dialogue is also intended for reading practice, stress and intonation are important.

The steps:

1. The teacher reads the dialogue first (or plays the tape), and then asks the students to point out the various functions and the language used.
2. Students repeat key phrases, particularly those needing special stress or intonation.
3. Students practice in pairs or groups of three.

Once the students are familiar with the dialogue, the teacher can move on to spoken and written dialogue practice in which individual students are asked to replace the phrases in bold or italic with the other phrases of similar meaning which they have just learned. Students can practice simultaneously in pairs or groups of three. The teacher should move round the class, listening and checking. Once the students have written down their new dialogue, individual pairs or groups can be asked to read out loud.

*Example dialogue:*

Practice reading the following dialogue in pairs. Read the dialogue again, replacing the phrases in **bold** with phrases of similar meanings. Then write out the new dialogue.

A : So **you come from** Edinburg, do you, Joanna?

B : Yes, **that's right**.

A : Well, it's certainly **a beautiful city**.

B : Oh, **you've been there, have you?**

A : No, **I haven't, actually**. I saw it on TV when the festival was there.  
**Is there a festival** every year?

B : Yes, there is.

A : By the way, **where are staying in London?**

B : The Selfridge Hotel. **Do you know it, Simon?**

A : **Oh, yes**. As a matter of fact **I've got a flat just round the corner from it**.

B : **Have you** really? Well, **isn't that** strange?

A : Yes, it is, isn't it?

B : Oh, would you excuse me for a moment? I just want to **have a word with someone.**

A : **Certainly.** But you'll dance with me later on, won't you?

B : Yes, **of course.**

## 2. Role-Play

This is the culmination of all the work done in the unit and the real test of whether or not the student has mastered the language items practiced, so as to be able to perform effectively in a set situation.

The steps of the role-play, as stated in Watcyn-Jones (1980, pp. 14-15):

### a. Setting of the situation

The teacher outlines the situation so that the students understand what the role-play is all about. In most cases this can be done by reading through the introduction to each role-play.

### b. Role preparation

Time spent on role preparation will vary according to whether the students have detailed roles or not. The teacher either allocates roles or allows the students to choose roles for themselves. For the detailed roles, roles cards can be made beforehand and given out and read. Students now get ready for the role-playing, during which time the teacher goes round and helps when necessary. If the room has to be arranged, it can be done at this stage.

### c. The role-play

A role-play may involve the whole class but more often smaller groups within the class. If this is the case, the role-play should be done simultaneously in-groups, with the teacher arranging the room in such a way that each group has its own working area. Students start at the same time and the teacher (as a passive observer) goes round each group simply observing and noting any serious mistakes made. Should the teacher be forced to take part in a role-play then he or she should assume a minor role if possible. Since it is highly unlikely that all groups will finish at the same time, a definite finishing time can be agreed on, when the teacher stops the class whether they have completed their role-play or not.



*Follow-up*

A role-play can be followed up in two ways, corrections and conversation and further work.

*a. Corrections*

During the role-play the teacher should have been making notes of mistakes, and it is now that the most serious or common ones can be pointed out. Should the mistakes indicate that the students have still not mastered the language needed to perform the particular function(s), then it is obvious that further practice may be necessary and the role-play repeated at a later date.

*b. Conversation and further work*

Most role-plays lend themselves to discussion- the subject matter depending on the role-play. If creative writing practice is required, students can be asked to write up their role-play in the form of a dialogue, newspaper report, etc. If there are role cards, students can be asked to write a dialogue based on the information in them. Finally, where possible, a role-play should be repeated at a later date since role-play, like other language activities, needs constant practice and repetition. Students can always be given different roles, and brighter groups might even suggest their own role-plays in addition to the ones contained here.

The procedure or techniques of teaching integrated skills suggested above, which has been developed based a functional or notional syllabus, involves not only the four language skills but also language components: grammatical forms and vocabulary. The procedure begins with oral practice of using the target language and then continues to the practice of written forms of the language.

As mentioned earlier, Oxford (2001) suggests a way of teaching integrated skills that is called content-based instruction or immersion program. Students are expected to practice all of the language skills in highly integrated, communicative activities by learning content subjects. The following section will address the possible programs that immerse the teaching of English into the teaching of (a) subjects

It is expected that students will have enough opportunities to use English while they learn certain subjects in schools. We do not teach English

in schools but we use the language in order for our students to learn the language. The following programs introduced here may be considered. In this section we use common terms but they are used differently from their original concepts.

### 3. *Full Immersion*

Different from the original concept, full immersion in this module refers to individual subjects. Here, the full immersion is not considered a form of bilingual education. English is not used in all subjects of the school. The language is only “fully” used in certain subjects chosen. In implementing full immersion, the texts of the chosen subjects are written in English, learning teaching interaction for the subjects is done in English and their learning output of the subjects is also evaluated in English. In order for the full immersion works optimally in the school, we need teachers and students with good English skills.

### 4. *Semi Immersion*

It is called “semi immersion” or quasi immersion if you like, since English is not used all of the time in learning teaching interaction. English is used to present the content of the teaching materials and the students may use their first language to respond to the class. In Evaluation the students may use either English or Indonesian. Since the purpose of this program is to encourage the students to acquire English, those who decide to use English in the evaluation process may be given a credit. Even though this program does not expect the students to have good English, the teachers should master the language communicatively.

### 5. *Content-Based Syllabus*

The original idea of content-based syllabus is actually not different from the “full” immersion program. The primary purpose of instruction in the immersion program is to teach some subjects or information using the target language. The subject is primary and language learning occurs automatically while language learners are studying the subject. The idea of the content-based syllabus is in line with the idea of the immersion program. For some reasons, the term “content-based syllabus” in this section

is differentiated from the full or real immersion mentioned above. Here, content-based syllabus refers to the teaching materials that are written in English. English is only used in the texts of the chosen subjects. Learning-teaching interaction and the evaluation are conducted in students' mother tongue: Indonesian. This type of immersion does not need skilled bilingual teachers and students with high performance of English. This program only needs teachers and students with high motivation to learn English.

The three possible programs offered in this module may be implemented step by step by introducing the least challenging first and then moving to the most challenging. It may begin with content-based syllabus while the school is preparing to have teachers who feel comfortable to use English in teaching their subjects. Then, after a couple of semesters or years they may move to semi-immersion program and finally the school may implement the full immersion after everything and everyone in the school is ready for increasing students' English.

The content of a book or the syllabus may not tell us the techniques that we have to do. We need to read the procedure or description of presenting the syllabus in order to get a better picture of the way English should be taught. Even though the contents of different books may have been developed from the same type of language syllabus, they may have different techniques in teaching communicative skills since different syllabus designers may emphasize different language skills.

In general, the procedures of teaching integrated skills have two main techniques, namely modeling through a dialogue and practicing using the target language based on the dialogue. The dialogue can be presented with a cassette or the teacher reads it. It is then followed by practice activities that move from controlled to freer practice to provide our students with a chance to use the language for real communication. A variety of exercise types should be provided to our students to develop their skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing.

#### **9.4 ALTERNATIVE TECHNIQUES FOR ADVANCED STUDENTS**

The following techniques may be considered to teach integrated skills for more advanced students. The following techniques and the procedure of teaching the integrated skills were taken from Goldstein (2010).

## 1. Gallery Walk

Gallery Walk and A Gallery Walk can help students think about complex questions. It can also help them develop and evaluate solutions to problems. Or, a Gallery Walk can be used for students to present the results of a project.

Procedure:

1. Before the activity begins, the teacher prepares posters to put around the room. The posters have “big” questions – questions that are complex or difficult – on them. The questions should NOT have an “easy” answer. They should NOT be questions that can be answered with facts. Instead, the questions should require students to think deeply, to think critically, to support an opinion, to defend a position, etc.
2. The students come into the room. The students form small groups around the poster. Each group is given a different color pen or marker.
3. Groups will have about 5 minutes to discuss and respond to the question on the poster. The group as a whole responds to the statement on the poster. They write down their response.
4. The teacher tells the groups when time is up. The groups keep their pen/marker and move to the next poster. They repeat Step #3.
5. After all of the groups have visited all of the posters, have the students return to their original poster. They should compare the responses of the other groups to that question. Has this group changed their opinion? Why or why not?
6. If time allows, students can walk around and look at all responses on all posters.

*Adaptations:*

Instead of doing this as a group activity, students can respond to posters individually. Or, instead of responding to prompts, groups can prepare an informational poster (for example, with the results of a research project) ahead of time. Then, the posters are put on the walls. At least one group member stays with the poster at all times. Other students walk around and look at the posters. They can ask questions of the group members who made the poster.

## 2. Jigsaw discussions

Jigsaw discussions are like jigsaw puzzles. Every person in the discussion is like a different piece of the puzzle – each piece is needed in order to make the puzzle complete. The Jigsaw Technique can be used for group discussion. Or, the Jigsaw Technique can be used for a group research project. Either way, teams of students are assigned to work on a different problem or issue. After the teams finish their assignments, new groups form. The new groups have at least one member from the original groups. Members in the new groups then teach each other what they learned in their original groups.

Procedure:

1. The teacher divides the class into small groups (4-6 students).
2. The teacher gives each group a discussion topic. Each group's topic is different. (if you have many groups – more than 5 – you can repeat the same topic with more than one group. For example, if you have 10 groups, you can use 5 topics. Each topic would be discussed by 2 groups). The topic can be based on reading assignments the students did before class. They can be based on lecture topics that have been covered in class, or they can be based on other topics the teacher or students think are important.
3. The teacher tells students how long they should work together (example: 10 minutes). The groups discuss their topic.
4. After the groups complete their discussions, the group will split up. The teacher will form NEW groups. The new groups will have members from the original groups.
5. In the new group, each group member will take turns and teach the rest of the group. They will talk about what they discussed in their first group.
6. After each group member reports on what the original group talked about, the new group will have a discussion together.

*Adaptations:*

Instead of using the Jigsaw Technique for discussions only, you can use this technique for research projects. For example, if students are learning about Indonesia, the teacher can assign one region of Indonesia to each

group. After the groups research their regions, they meet with new group members to learn about the other regions of Indonesia.

### 3. KWL: Know, Want to Know, Learned

The following technique and the procedure of teaching a foreign language through this technique was taken from Goldstein (2010). KWL stands for: **K**now, **W**ant to Know, **L**earned. This technique helps students think about what they already know about a topic and what they want to learn about a topic. They think about these things before a unit or lesson begins. This helps them to better prepare to learn, because they think about their prior knowledge. Then, once the lesson or unit is completed, they think about what they learned. (The last part can also be done during the unit, to assess on-going learning.)

Procedure:

1. Before beginning a lesson or unit, the teacher prepares a 3-column chart on large paper or on the board. The three columns look like this:

Know	Want to Learn	Learned

2. The teacher introduces the topic to be learned. (For example, students might be learning about Indonesian history, or they might be learning about effective methods of classroom management.)
3. The teacher then asks students to “brainstorm” (or share ideas) about what they already know about this topic.
4. The teacher writes down what students already know in the first column, labeled “Know”.
5. Then, the teacher asks students to discuss what they want to learn about the topic. The teacher writes these ideas in the second column, “Want to Learn”.
6. The teacher then begins to teach the lesson or unit. Ideally, the teacher designs to lessons or unit to fit with what the students already know and with what they want to learn.

7. After the unit is completed (or at some points during the unit), the teacher asks the students to discuss what they learned during the unit or lesson. The teacher writes these ideas in the last column, "Learned."
8. If possible, the teacher should put the chart paper on the wall for students to see for several days or weeks.

#### *Adaptations:*

You can create a worksheet for students to complete individually, instead of doing this as a group discussion.

#### **4. Think-Pair-Share**

During a Think-Pair-Share activity, students: (1) think about a question/problem, (2) discuss the problem/question with a classmate, and (3) share their thinking with the whole class. Think-Pair-Share helps create good class discussions that are short. They also help all students to be involved in the discussion.

#### Procedure:

1. The teacher should ask a question for the whole class. This question (or problem) should ask students to think deeply or critically about a topic or issue. It should not be a question that is answered with "yes", "no", or some other quick answer.
2. The teacher will allow students to **think** about this question for 30-60 seconds. Students can write down their ideas, if they want.
3. After students have thought about the question and written down their ideas, they turn to their neighbor to form a **pair**. The pairs of students discuss their thinking/ideas about the question or problem. The pairs can also write down their thinking on paper.
4. Pairs should discuss for 1-2 minutes. The teacher should make sure that both students have a chance to talk during this part.
5. Then, the teacher asks the pairs to **share** what they talked about. The pairs report to the whole class.
6. Finally, the teacher facilitates a whole-class discussion. This discussion should be based on what the students talked about during their pair discussions.

*Adaptations:*

Students can do a Think-Pair-Share activity orally OR they can write down their thinking.

The teacher may give each pair a “sticky note”. They write their ideas on the sticky note, then, they put the sticky note on the board. All of the pairs put sticky notes on the board. Before the pairs share their thinking with the whole class, have 2 pairs talk together (to form a group of 4 students). Each pair shares their ideas with the other pair. Then, the group of 4 shares their ideas with the whole class.

The alternative techniques above can be adapted based on the level of language proficiency of the students. Language teachers may develop their own techniques as long as they consider the underlying principles from which their techniques have been developed.

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