

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية
République Algérienne Démocratique et Populaire

Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur
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Université Akli Mohand Oulhadj - Bouira -
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Faculté des Lettres et des Langues

وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي
جامعة أكلي محمد أولحاج
- البويرة -
كلية الآداب واللغات

Department of English

Domain: Letters and Foreign Languages

Field: English Language

Speciality: Didactics

PEDAGOGICAL BOOK

Course Title:

Introduction to Didactics

Level: 3rd year Bachelor

Presented by: Dr. KERROUM Fathia

Academic Year: 2022/2023

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الرقم: 9/م ع /ك أ ل ج ب 2023

Extrait du PV de Réunion
du Conseil Scientifique de la Faculté
du 09/07/2023

En sa séance de neuf du mois de Juillet de l'année 2023 à 09 :00h ,
le Conseil Scientifique de la faculté des lettres et des langues enregistre les
rappports favorables pour le polycopié intitulé :

« *Introduction to Didactics* » désigné pour les étudiants de 3eme année License
Proposé par **Dr. KERROUM Fathia** du département d'anglais et expertisé
par :

- Dr.DOUKARI Mourad MCA Université de Bouira
- Dr. HAMANE Soraya MCA Université d'Oran2

Et l'autorise à le mettre à la disposition des étudiants.

Le Président du Conseil Scientifique de la Faculté



رئيس المجلس العلمي
الأستاذ: عيسى شاحنة



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About the Programme

Foreign language teaching and learning have experienced a significant revolution as a result of research in both scientific and theoretical knowledge. This shift has resulted in a change in the role of the teacher and in conceptions of knowledge and learning. Therefore, an introduction to foreign language didactics is needed to shed light on the various techniques, methods and strategies that didactics as a discipline studies.

This programme, entitled “*An Introduction to Didactics of English*”, is delivered to help third year Licence students. It covers two semesters. The purpose of this programme is to develop students’ competencies of EFL teaching skills that are basic to successful instruction. Most of the lessons in this programme focus on foreign language teaching skills. The units in this programme show the students how to teach successfully and how to act effectively in EFL classroom contexts.

This programme is intended to help students, as future beginning teachers of English, blend theory with practice. It conceptualizes the effective EFL teacher as a reflective decision maker, one who makes planning, implementing, grouping, assessing, and evaluating. To make and carry out these decisions the teacher needs certain teaching skills. The conceptual framework of the successful EFL teacher is reflected in this programme. Each subsequent part addresses a particular unit with details.



Each unit has particular learning objectives. Certainly, our general goal is to prepare students to be effective teachers and to help them acquire the skills of teaching by providing them with instructional materials which are important, scientific-based, flexible, readable, and practicable. Indeed, the teaching skills included in this programme have been recognized by many research studies and by best-practices literature as being important to the success of teachers. Studies of professional teachers prove that these skills are necessary to effective EFL teaching.

In brief, our aim is to help EFL students master practical instructional skills that enable them to assume successfully their classroom responsibilities. It is our belief that these instructional lessons can be retained and used by most students in the future.

The Main Objectives of the Programme



This programme is aimed to attain the following objectives:

- Describing and explaining the nature and the advantages of didactics.
- Explaining how to practice teaching/ learning
- Identifying and describing the autonomous learning.
- Providing suggestions for enhancing learners' autonomy and teachers' strategies of content selection and organisation.
- Providing a literature review about motivation.
- Illustrating some motivational strategies.
- Describing the different types of students' grouping.
- Showing learners how to conduct group-work and pair-work activities.
- Describing the steps, elements, and formats of a lesson plan.
- Helping learners to make their own lesson plans.
- Illuminating the importance of textbook use in the teaching-learning process.
- Explaining how to evaluate, analyse, and use an ELT textbook.
- Identifying and describing the Approaches/ methods/ techniques used in didactics
- Defining assessment and evaluation.
- Illustrating the advantages of assessment.
- Illustrating the types, stages, and tools of assessment
- Identifying the reasons why we should integrate the four skills
- Grouping skills together
- Illustrating the ways we integrate the four skills
- determining the implications for teaching
- Exploring the limitations of integrating the four skills



UNIT01:

Didactics

Objectives:

- 1. Illuminating the main concepts of Didactics in the teaching-learning process.**
- 2. Explaining the Nature of Learning the English Language.**

1. Introduction

'Successful teaching is about shaping the information flow so that the student experiences it- moment by moment- at the right level of difficulty.'

Fiona McPherson

Foreign language teaching and learning have experienced a significant revolution as a result of research in both scientific and theoretical knowledge. This shift has resulted in a change in the role of the teacher and in conceptions of knowledge and learning. Therefore, an introduction to foreign language didactics is needed to shed light on the various techniques, procedures, methods and strategies that didactics as a discipline studies.

2. Definition of Didactics

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

The concept of didactics has been defined in varying ways as reported by Harjanne and Tella (2007). According to (Dolch, 1965) didactics is the science and study of teaching and learning. Jank and Meyer (1991) expanded this definition to cover teaching content and methods. They also argued that didactics consists of the theory and practice of both teaching and learning. In the same context, Gundem (1998) defines didactics as a science and a theory of

teaching and learning under any circumstances and in any form. All these definitions emphasize the importance of teaching and learning.

Moreover, for Lund (2003), teaching subjects are important because through them, knowledge construction is made visible. Uljens (1997) enlarges the definition of didactics. He states that didactics is the science of the teaching-studying-learning process. In fact, many contemporary conceptions of didactics emphasize the three components Uljens raised: teaching, studying and learning.

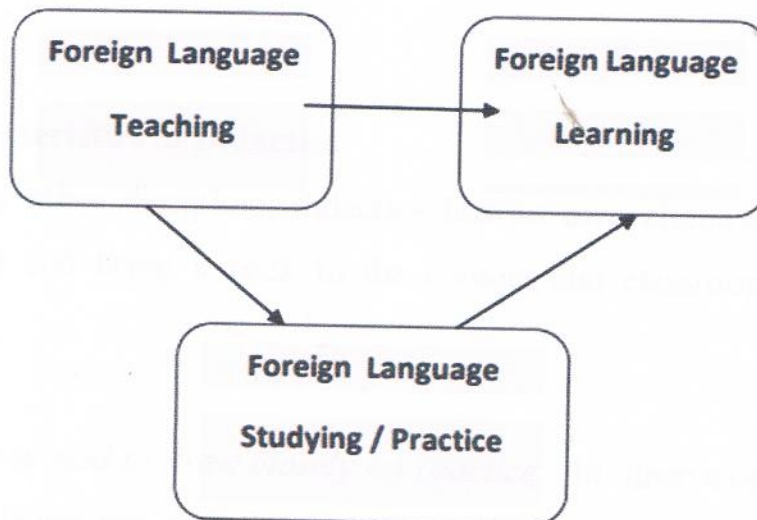


Figure 1. The foreign Language Didactic Teaching-Studying-Learning Process (in the spirit of Uljens, 1997; cf. Harjanne, 2003 a)

In short, the foreign language teaching and studying process aims at learning a foreign language, but it cannot guarantee that the target language will be learnt. Learning a foreign language can directly happen as a consequence of the teaching process without further study, and as a result of studying without any teaching (Harjanne & Tella, 2007).

3.Principles of Didactics



Comenius (1640) set a series of classical principles among which we may account:

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

4.Characteristics of Didactics

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

1- '*Didactics is said to draw closely on practice*'. In other words, more focus is put on visualising and embodying the full complexity of the teaching-studying-learning process.

2- '*Intentionality in school context*'. Successful schooling is the result of planned processes that are built around powerful knowledge where teaching and learning processes are interpreted and evaluated. The process of teaching is diverted to some kind of gone. This means that teaching is a purposeful activity. It is goal-directed

3- '*Didactical questions*' used for reflective planning processes and analyses of ongoing teaching.



4- 'The didactical triangle' which is the simultaneous interest in content; learners and teachers and how these three components interrelate in the teaching and learning process. (Claesson, 2018: 11 – 13)

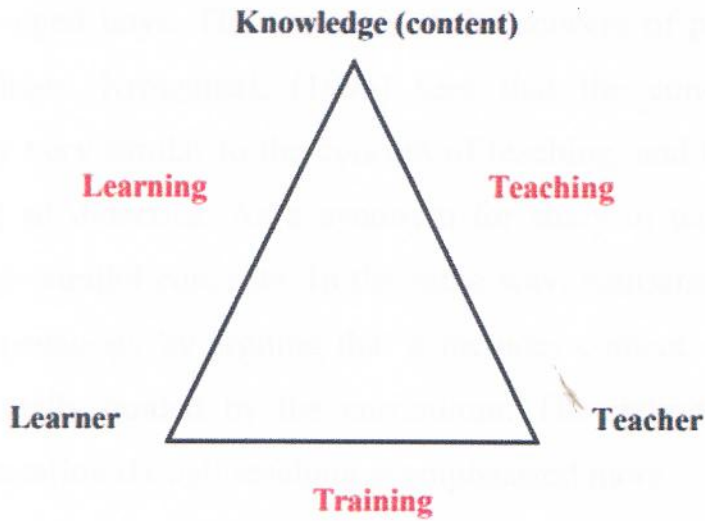


Figure 2. Didactic Triangle (Seghnoucheni et. Al, 2014: 29)

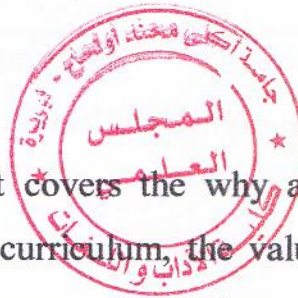
5.Key Terms Related to Didactics

5.1- Didactics versus Pedagogy

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

	German	Anglo-American	Finnish
Didactics	Related to theory	Related to educational	The study of teaching and
Pedagogy	Education and teaching	Close to the European concepts of didactics	Systematic study of education or teaching

Table 1. A summary of the Main Interpretations of Didactics and Pedagogy (Tella & Harjanne 2004a, 29)



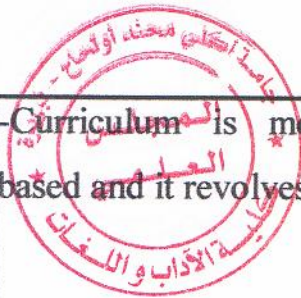
Pedagogy is the biggest of the two as it covers the why and how of education, but also talks and thinks about the curriculum, the values and the visions on education. However, didactics focuses on the how. It is more mechanic, often easier to research.

5.2- Pedagogy versus Andragogy

“Andragogy is the theory and practice of education of adults. It arose from the practice to pedagogy to address the specific needs in the education of children.” (Hodgson, 2017:204)

Adult learning is based upon comprehension, organization, reflection, critique and synthesis of knowledge rather than rote memory. Table 2 summarizes the main differences between pedagogy and andragogy.

	PEDAGOGY	ANDRAGOGY
LEARNER:	-The learner is dependent on the instructor, the teacher schedules all the activities; determining how, when and where	-Learner is self-directed and moves towards independence -Learner is responsible for the learning -Self-evaluation
LEARNER'S EXPERIENCE	-There is little experience which could be gained from this kind of learning -Method is didactic	-There is large quality of experience gained -Method used is problem solving, discussion, service-learning



READINESS TO LEARN	-Standardized curriculum set which will be based on societal needs	-Curriculum is more application based and it revolves around life needs
ORIENTATION TO LEARNING	-Here, it is a process of acquiring subject matter	-Here learning is for performing tasks and solving problems
MOTIVATION	-Motivation is by the external pressure, and there is lot of competition for grades	-It is driven by international motivation. Includes self-actualisation, self-confidence etc.

Table 2: Differences between Pedagogy and Andragogy (Hodgson, 2017: 204)

6- Education

“Education is the process of facilitating learning or the acquisition of



knowledge, skills values, beliefs, and habits”. It frequently takes place under the guidance of educators, but learners may also educate themselves in formal or informal settings

7-Educational Psychology

- “It is the scientific discipline concerned with the development, evaluation and application of principles and theories of human learning.” (Wittrock & Farley, 1989; in Moreno, 2010:8)
- According to Skinner (1958), “Educational Psychology covers the entire range of behavior and personality as related to education. It is the branch of psychology which deals with teaching and learning.”
- Peel (1956): “Educational Psychology is the science of education.”
- Berliner (1992): “Educational Psychologists study what people think and do as they teach and learn a particular curriculum in a particular environment where education and training are intended to take place.”

To sum up, Educational Psychology focuses on teaching and learning. It also facilitates the work of the teacher by solving teaching problems, and guides the teacher on what to do and how to do just like in Didactics. Besides the field to educational psychology relies heavily on quantitative methods, involving testing and measurement, to foster educational activities related to instructional design, classroom management, assessment, which facilitate learning process in different educational settings across the lifespan.

8-The Nature of Learning the English Language

8.1-The Place of English in the World

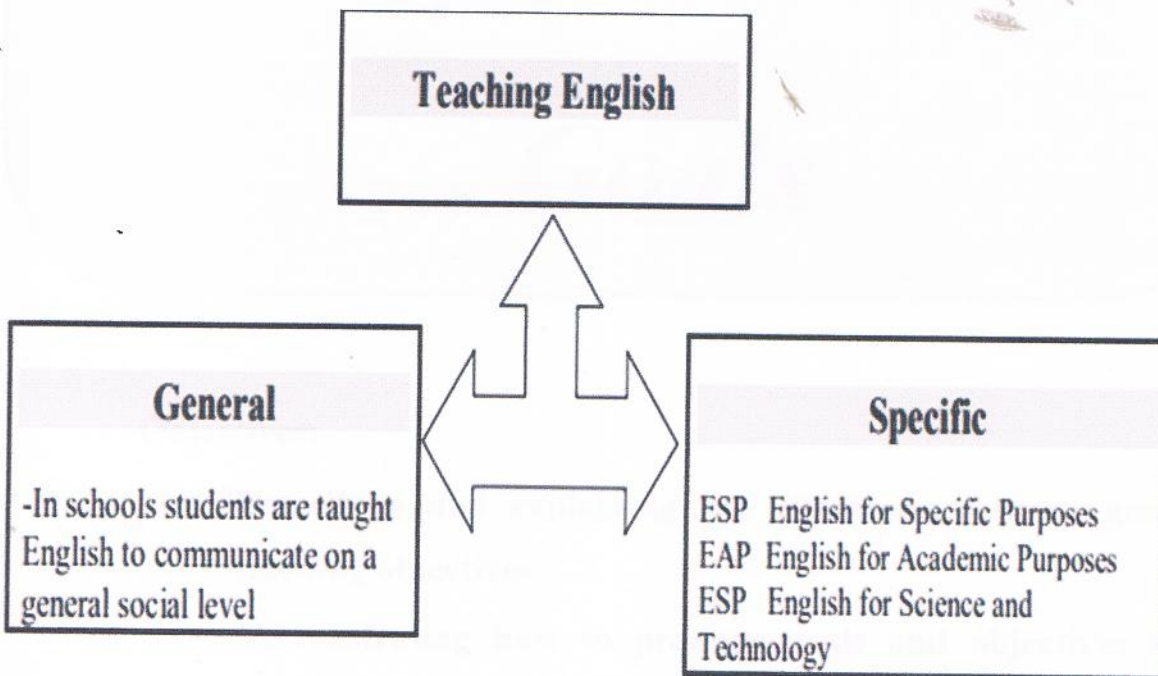
Though English is not the language with the largest number of native

language speakers. It has become a **Lingua Franca**. "A lingua franca can be defined as a language widely adopted for communication between two speakers whose native languages are different from each other's and where one or both speakers are using it as a "second' language. (Harmer, 2001:1)

There are a number of reasons for the popularity of English as a lingua franca. Many of these are historical, economic, and cultural factors. English is the predominant language of the world's greatest economic and political power.

8.2-General or Specific

Teachers have to decide whether the English they teach students will be general or specific.





UNIT 02:

Learning

Objectives and

Goals

Objectives:

- **Describing and explaining the difference between goals and learning objectives**
- **Demonstrating how to produce goals and objectives for the teachers**



2. The difference between a GOAL and a Learning Objective

A GOAL is a statement of the intended general outcome of an instructional unit or program. A goal statement describes a more global learning outcome. A learning objective is a statement of one of several specific performances, the achievement of which contributes to the attainment of the goal. A single GOAL may have many specific subordinate learning objectives. For example

GOAL: The goal of the Learning Assessment course is to enable the students to make reliable and accurate assessments of learning.

Learning Objective #1: Given a learning objective, the student will be able to develop an appropriate multiple-choice question to measure student achievement of the objective.

Learning Objective #2: Given a printout from an item analysis of a multiple-choice exam, the student will be able to state the accuracy of the test scores.

Learning Objective #3: Given the discrimination and difficulty indices of an item, the student will be able to determine if the item contributes to the reliability of the exam.

3- Importance of Learning Objectives:

Learning objectives are guides to:

1. Selection of content



2. Development of an instructional strategy.
3. Development and selection of instructional materials.
4. Construction of tests and other instruments for assessing student learning outcomes.

4- How to write a Learning Objective?

In writing a Learning Objective:

1. Focus on student Performance not teacher performance.
2. Focus on product - not process.
3. Focus on terminal behaviour - not subject matter.
4. Include only one general learning outcome in each objective.

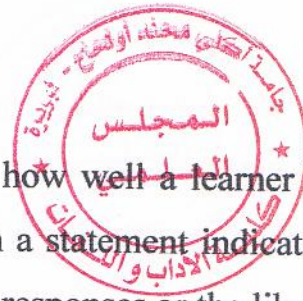
5- Poles of a Learning Objective

Since that a learning objective is a statement describing a competency or performance capability to be acquired by the learner, a clearly stated objective should specify four main items:

Audience - The audience is the learner(s) for whom the objective is written. This is usually written ."the learner" or "the student"; however, it could be as specific as "The third grade science student".

Behaviour - an objective must describe the competency to be learned in performance terms. The choice of a verb is all-important here. Such frequently used terms as know, understand, grasp, and appreciate do not meet this requirement. If the verb used in stating an objective identifies an observable student behaviour, then the basis for a clear statement is established.

Conditions - an objective should describe the conditions under which the learner will be expected to perform in the evaluation situation (what tools, references, or other aids will be provided or denied?)



Criterion (Degree) - an objective should make clear how well a learner must perform to be judged adequate. This can be done with a statement indicating a degree of accuracy, a quantity or proportion of correct responses or the like.

Sometimes, one or even two of these elements will be easily implied by a simple statement. Other times, however, it may be necessary to clearly specify in detail each element of the objective. The following is an example of a learning objective:

OBJECTIVE: “Given a set of data, the student will be able to transform a sentence from the active voice into the passive voice”.

6- Classifying Objectives

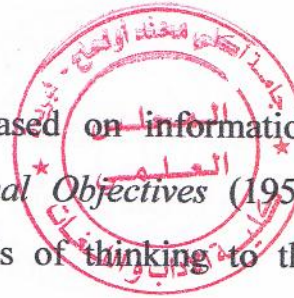
In education environments, learning outcomes and objectives are often loosely sorted into three groups, called *domains*. These domains were identified by an educational psychologist named Benjamin Bloom.

1. **Cognitive domain** – encompasses intellectual or thinking skills.
2. **Psychomotor domain** – encompasses physical skills or the performance of actions.
3. **Affective domain** – encompasses attitudes and values.

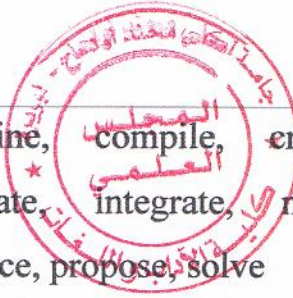
7- Levels of Bloom's Taxonomy

In each domain, Bloom identified several “levels,” each with a list of suitable verbs for describing that level in written objectives. The following

table describes the cognitive domain, and is based on information from Benjamin Bloom's book *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (1956). The levels are arranged from the least complex levels of thinking to the most complex levels of thinking.



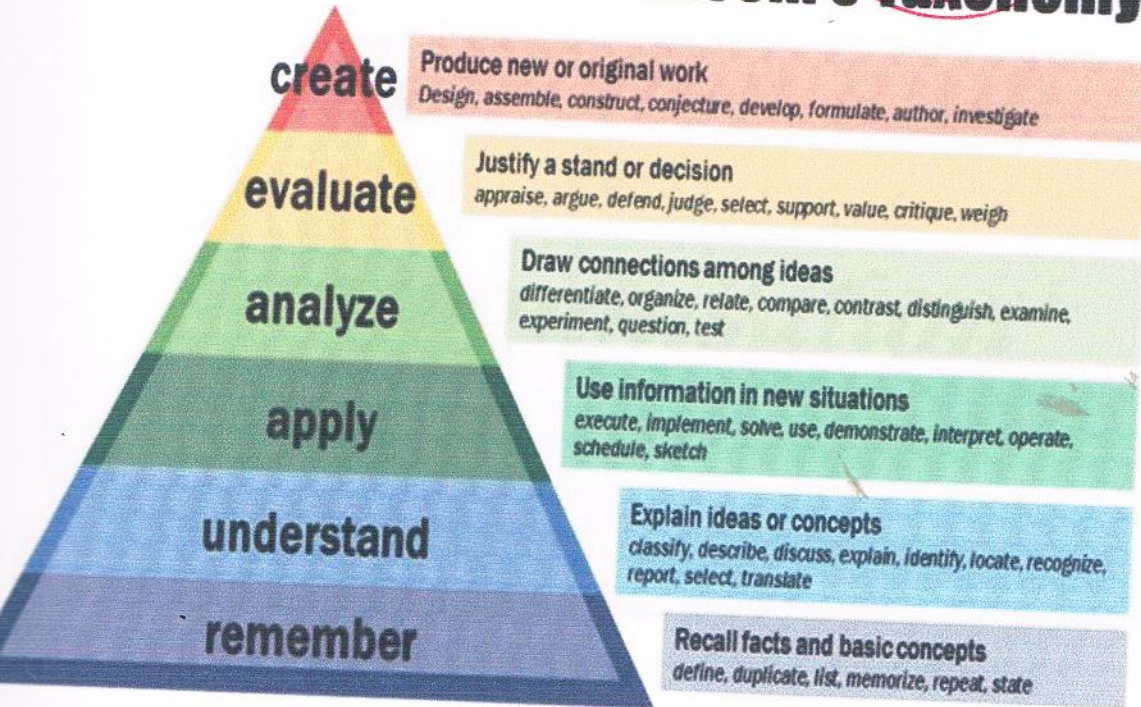
Level	Description	Suitable verbs
Knowledge	Ability to recall previously learned material.	define, distinguish, identify, inquire, label, list, match, memorize, name, read, recall, recognize, relate, repeat, record
Comprehension	Ability to grasp meaning, explain, restate ideas.	associate, describe, differentiate, discuss, explain, extend, generalize, give examples, illustrate, infer, interpret, locate, rearrange, reorder, restate, rewrite, summarize, transform, translate
Application	Ability to use learned material in new situations.	apply, calculate, choose, classify, demonstrate, develop, generalize, illustrate, operate, organize, practise, restructure, sketch, solve, transfer, use
Analysis	Ability to separate material into component parts and	analyze, categorize, classify, compare, contrast, deduce, describe, detect, determine, discriminate, differentiate,



Synthesis	Ability to put together the separate ideas to form a new whole.	combine, compile, create, design, generate, integrate, modify, plan, produce, propose, solve
Evaluation	Ability to judge the worth of material against stated criteria.	appraise, assess, choose, compare, conclude, consider, criticize, evaluate, judge, measure, rate, score, select, support, validate



Bloom's Taxonomy



Vanderbilt University Center for Teaching

Source: Armstrong; P.(2010).Bloom's Taxonomy.vanderbilt University Center for Teaching. Retrieved (11/04/2023) from <https://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/blooms-taxonomy/>.



UNIT03: Content

Selection and Organisation

Objectives:

- **Explaining how to practice teaching/ learning within a special selected content**
- **Demonstrating how to organize the pedagogical content according to specific rules and principles**



1. Definition

Content is WHAT the learners should learn in terms of language, knowledge and performance objectives behaviour together with cultural features that the learners may bring into, or get from, the course.

Content is constituted of three main components:

- Linguistic knowledge of language (linguistic competence)
- Cultural knowledge about the foreign language culture and /or the learner's culture (cultural values)
- The abilities to be developed - objectives to be achieved- by the learners during and/or at the end of the course (communicative competence)

2. Content selection

There are two main reasons why content selection should follow a particular pattern:

- There is a wide range of knowledge to be learned in any subject matter
- The human being is unable to learn everything at once.

There are a number of resources that course designers generally rely on in order to arrive at decisions concerning the selection of the content to be taught. To do so, they need to collect information about learners and their needs, their community, pedagogical institutions and educational authorities, and the subject specialists in language, language learning and education.

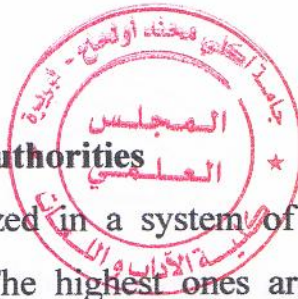


2.1. Learners' needs

Learners' needs should be discovered in order to find out what the learners know and can do and what they need to learn or do so the course can bridge the gap. Thus needs assessment involves seeking and interpreting information about the student's needs so that the course will address them effectively. At this point, a distinction should be made between 'objective' and 'subjective' needs. In assessing objective needs, one can include information about students' background – country and culture, education, family, profession, age, languages spoken, students' abilities or proficiency in speaking, understanding, reading, and writing English as well as students' needs with respect to how they will use or deal with English outside of the classroom. On the other hand, subjective needs refer to the cognitive and affective needs of the learner in the learning situation, derivable from information about affective and cognitive factors such as personality, confidence, attitudes, learners' wants and expectations with regard to the learning of English and their individual cognitive style and learning strategies.

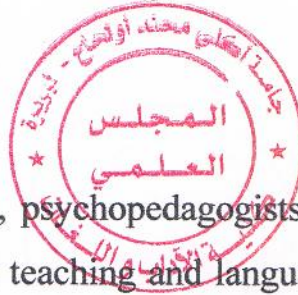
2.2. The community

Social and educational participants play a major role in determining the content to be taught as well as its success or failure. Knowledge of what the society, parents and teachers expect the learners to achieve or realize through instruction is of crucial importance to the course designer. This knowledge will give substance to the aims of the course. Teachers' knowledge, competence and preparation to apply the designed course are also of great importance and need to be taken into account.



2.3. Pedagogical institutions and educational authorities

Public and private education is always organized in a system of decisions, working up and down a scale of responsibilities. The highest ones are those of educational policy and finance and the lowest ones are those that put into practice political, financial, human and educational resources. Information about decisions and resources helps the course designer to know what educational strategy, pedagogical means and human resources are available to implement real classroom settings. The status of the language being taught, its importance (either political or economic) and relevance to the educational system, the number of teaching staff, time allocation, availability of media and teacher training education are necessary information to be gathered from decision makers in order to guide the work of the course designer.



2.4. Subject-specialists

The applied linguists, educationalists, psychopedagogists represent a source of knowledge whose ideas about language teaching and language learning have a lot of bearings on course design. Applied linguistics findings help much in content selection and organisation, educational research affects general methodological organization, while psychopedagogical and cognitive psychologist investigation contributes in the design of learning tasks, classroom management and teacher-learner relationships. Consulting these specialist views is a measure that gives scientific and academic frameworks to course design and keeps it up to date with recent findings in case of reform.

3. Criteria of selection of content

The inclusion of any item, area of knowledge or ability should be made on the basis of specific criteria. Nothing can be taught at random. Since it is impossible to teach everything simultaneously, selection must be made to bring organization in a teaching context. Findings of linguistics and applied linguistics determine what content to be selected. Thus, structures, patterns, notions, functions and tasks are all the result of research in the field of different approaches to language analysis and language learning. The focus on one or some of them is a selective decision which shows adherence to one or to some approaches.

3.1. Learnability

Some lexical or structural items are easier for students to learn than others. Thus we teach easier things first and then increase the level of difficulty as the students' language level raises. Learnability might tell us that, at beginner levels, it is easier to teach uses of *was* and *were* immediately after teaching uses of *is* and *are* with the third conditional. Learnability might persuade us to teach *some* and *any* on their own rather than introduce a whole range of quantifiers

(much, many, few, etc.) at the same time.

3.2. Frequency

It would make sense, especially at beginning levels, to include items which are more frequent in the language, than ones that are only used occasionally by native speakers.

3.3. Coverage

Some words and structures have greater coverage (scope of use) than others. Thus we might decide, on the basis of coverage, to introduce the *going to* future before the present continuous with future reference, if we could show that *going to* could be used in more situations than the present continuous.

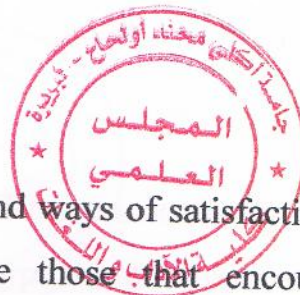
3.4. Usefulness

The reason that words like *book* and *pen* figure so highly in classrooms (even though they might not be that frequent in real language use) is because they are useful words in that situation. In the same way, words for family members occur early on in a student's learning life because they are useful in the context of what students are linguistically able to talk about.

3.5. Validity

The validity of any content item is its possibility to help the learners achieve the already defined objectives of learning. It is thus, a justification criterion of content relevance to the possibilities it offers to the learners in order to improve their proficiency level. In modern communicative trends, this also implies that the chosen items have to be scientifically true, pedagogically realistic and communicatively authentic.





3.6. Interest

Learners' motivation, needs and interests have to find ways of satisfaction in the selected content. The most interesting items are those that encourage learners to learn according to their social interests, age, and motivation.

4. Organisation of content

The organization of content depends on what knowledge and capabilities should be focused upon. Priority may be given to linguistic or broader communicative knowledge and focus upon one or all four skills (reading, speaking, writing and listening) or, more broadly, problem solving or negotiation capabilities.

In case priority is given to linguistic knowledge, consideration should be given to the appropriate structures and vocabulary to be covered. In case priority is given to communicative knowledge, particular uses of language and types of tasks should be selected.

Once these principles are taken into account, content can, then, be sequenced according to one of two complementary principles of organization of content: 'building' and 'recycling'.

4.1. Building

In deciding how to sequence content, one considers building from the simple to the complex; from more concrete to more open-ended so that unit or activity A prepares students for unit or activity B. Building from the simple to the complex in a writing course may mean learning how to write narrative prose before developing an argumentative paper. Building from more concrete to more open-ended in writing course may mean that students first unscramble and discuss a sample paragraph before writing their own paragraph.



4.2. Recycling

The principle of recycling content means that students encounter previous material in new ways: in a new skill area, in a different type of activity, or with a new focus. For example, material encountered in a listening activity may be recycled in a writing exercise. Material encountered in an individual reading activity may be recycled in a role play with other students. Material about the target culture may be recycled in an activity about one's own culture.

Practice

Analyse the content of the given syllabus by answering the following questions:

1. What does the title of the textbook mean for you?
2. How many syllabus designers are there?
3. Give some examples about linguistic, abilities, and cultural components.
4. Give few examples which illustrate some of the factors/criteria for content selection.
5. How is the syllabus organised? Illustrate by giving some examples from the textbook.



UNIT04:

Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching

Objectives

- **Identifying and describing the Approaches/ methods/ techniques used in didactics**
- **Providing suggestions for enhancing learners' autonomy and teachers' strategies of method selection and organisation.**

1. Basic definitions

In the context of language teaching, two sets of definitions exist:



2. Approach / Method / Technique (Edward Anthony's Model)

Approach

An approach refers to the principles or assumptions underlying the process of language teaching and learning. It is also a set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and learning.

Method

This is the application of the principles underlying a particular approach. A method consists of the use of a certain number of techniques in a systematic way in order to achieve the aim of language teaching. A method includes the lesson plan, the syllabus, the textbook, other teaching materials and the number of teaching periods. All these components must be in harmony with the basic principles of the selected approach

Technique

This is what actually goes on in the classroom as an implementation of a method, which in turn is an application of an approach. A technique refers to all the activities used by the teacher and performed by the pupils in the classroom. For example, audio-visual aids such as language labs, tape recorders, television set, video recorders are techniques which are used to achieve an immediate objective. Some techniques are used with a variety of methods such as imitation and repetition. Others, however, are specific to a given



method.

Approach, method and technique are interdependent. They are arranged in the form of a hierarchy in which 'approach' is placed at the top followed by 'method' and then 'technique'.

3. Approach / Design/ Procedure: three aspects of a method (Richards and Rodgers' Model)

According to Richards and Rodgers (1982,1985), the overall concept of “method”, which encompasses approach, design and procedure, is considered as an umbrella term for the specification and interrelation of theory and practice.



Approach: refers to the beliefs and theories about language, language learning and teaching that underlie a method.

Design: specifies how theories of language and learning are implemented in a syllabus model and teaching and learning activities and materials in the classroom.

Procedure: concerns the techniques and practices employed in the classroom as consequences of particular approaches and designs.

Richards and Rodgers specify that a method is theoretically related to an approach, is organisationally determined by a design and is practically realised in a procedure

4. Teaching Approaches and Methods

In language teaching, there are constant changes and developments of teaching approaches and methods. This can be attributed to the different focuses on different types of language skills either written or oral, to the realisation that a given method or approach carries certain limitations which render it unable to meet the needs of the learners for real communication or to the development of the need for communication. Each new method or approach is built on the limitations of the preceding one. The following are the most common language teaching methods and approaches.

4.1 The Grammar-Translation Method

This method is a way of studying a language through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by an application of this knowledge and the task of translating sentences from and into the target language. It dominated the English language teaching field in Algeria in the 1960's at all educational levels.

This method is based on the idea that language is a set of structurally related elements and that language learning is acquired after mastering the rules governing the language and developing the ability of translating from and into the foreign language.

Advantages

- Easy to apply.
- Does not require a teacher who is a fluent speaker of the language.
- Can be used with a large class.



Shortcomings

- This approach was not based on any explicit psycholinguistic or sociolinguistic theory. Therefore, it did not concern itself with how learners actually use the language. Its main concern was purely linguistic.
- Practical mastery of the language being learned or actual use of it was totally ignored.
- The learners in that approach were completely passive.
- As the classroom technique consisted of giving definitions, rules, explanations and exceptions in the mother tongue, the time necessary for practicing the foreign language is greatly reduced.
- The technique of giving definitions and rules is very boring and of little benefit to the learners.
- The method is a continuous process of memorisation of lists of unusable grammar rules, vocabulary and of attempts to produce perfect translations of literary extracts. Therefore, the focus is on form rather than meaning. Very often students cannot concentrate on the message as they are obliged to read word by word.
- Grammar rules are illustrated in independent sentences and not in the larger context where the grammatical and semantic functions operate.
- Although translation from time to time is helpful, it becomes harmful when it is taken as a method of learning a language. The learner is thus implicitly admitting that he does not intend to learn the foreign language or that it is impossible for him to learn it, since the only way for him to understand it is through translation.
- The written language is emphasized at the expense of the oral one; consequently, little attention is given to accurate intonation and pronunciation.

4.2 The Direct Method

This method was developed in order to overcome the shortcomings of the Grammar- Translation Method which was unhelpful to those who wanted to learn a foreign language for communication. It is called 'Direct' because the teaching of the foreign language was done without any resort to the mother tongue. It is based on the assumption that one should learn a foreign language as one would learn one's mother tongue. This method was used in Algeria in the 1970's through the textbooks:

- Andy in Algeria,
- Learn English with Us. 3éme AM (1977)
- Madjid in England, Learn English With Us. 4éme AM (1977).



Advantages

The main characteristics of this method are:

- Grammatical rules are not taught explicitly but are rather acquired unconsciously through intensive listening and imitation. So memorisation of conjugations and rules of grammar is rejected as priority is given to speech and oral skills.

- Translation is considered a useless activity in foreign language learning. Thus dramatisation, demonstration and pointing at objects are used for teaching the meaning of difficult words.

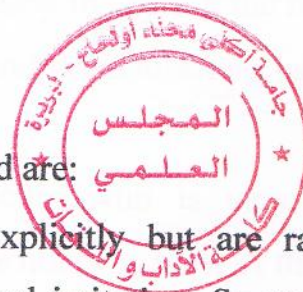
- As the focus is put on speech and oral skills, reading and writing are postponed for months until firm grounds in listening and speaking are secured. However, advanced learners can read literary texts for pleasure and comprehension and not for grammatical analysis.

- Pupils are also introduced to the foreign culture inductively.

Many techniques and procedures are used for the sake of making this method more effective such as question and answer exchanges between teacher and learners, vocabulary teaching through demonstration, objects and pictures, and the 'mim-mem' technique which consisted of the students imitating selected foreign language sentences, short dialogues, expressions and songs, and then memorising them.

Shortcomings

- In this method all the language activities are related to the classroom context, and not to real life situations. Therefore, learners are not prepared to use the foreign language for communication as the teachers do not think of them using it outside the confines of the classroom





- It is time consuming because it is not easy to explain the meanings of the difficult words through pointing at objects and dramatisation, especially in the case of abstract words.

- It requires a highly competent teacher who is very fluent in the foreign language and a great number of class hours as most of the work is done in the classroom.

4.3 The Aural- Oral Approach (The Audio-Lingual Method)

After the Second World War, there emerged a wide-world interest in foreign languages and an urgent need for international communication. As there was a general feeling of discontent with the traditional methods, namely the Grammar-Translation Method and the Direct Method whose validity and adequacy, especially for teaching the spoken form of language, were questioned, the necessity of developing a new teaching method which would cater for these shortcomings was felt.

The theory on which the approach is based implies the acquisition of oral language skills through oral practice based on repetition. The Aural-Oral Approach is based on the belief that language is essentially acquired through habits and that responses must be drilled until they become natural and automatic. This reflects a behaviourist view of language learning influenced by the psychologist Skinner. The Aural-Oral Approach was used in Algeria through:

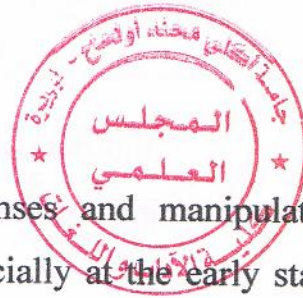
- Success with English Course book I 1970
- Success with English Course book II 1971.



Advantages

The following are the assumptions on which this method is based and its characteristics:

- Language is speech not writing.
- Focus is on listening/ speaking before reading / writing.
- Language is a set of habits. This principle means that language is acquired by imitation and practice. Habits are established by stimulus, response and reinforcement.
- Teach the language, not about the language. This means that we must teach the pupils a set of habits, not a set of rules to enable them to talk in the language not to talk about the language.
- A language is what its native speaker's say, not what someone thinks they ought to say. We should deal with language as it is and not prescribe what other people say.
- Structures are sequenced and taught one at a time. Influence of structuralism is evident (related to grammar translation method only in terms of sequence).
- There is a little or no grammar explanation. Rules of grammar are taught by inductive analogy rather than by deductive explanation.
- Some oral use of the mother tongue is allowed (not translation).



Shortcomings

- This method encouraged successful responses and manipulation of language and disregarded meaning. So, pupils especially at the early stages of language instruction have to repeat incomprehensible material to make the production of speech automatic and habitual. In this way the method fails to prepare the learner to use the foreign language for meaningful communication.

- Mechanical drills and repetition can be effective in the early stages of language instruction or for the teaching of certain aspects of language, but they are not necessarily conducive to real communication.

- The focus on mechanical repetition through the use of oral drills leads also to a complete negligence of creative use of language and cognition.

- Too much emphasis is put on speech at the expense of other language skills.

- This method requires small classes.

4.5 The Situational Approach

This approach emerged and dominated the language teaching field in Britain during the 1940's, 1950's and 1960's. It includes aspects of the Direct Method. This method was used in Algeria through L.G. Alexander's Practice and Progress (1967). This textbook was used for the three secondary school years.

Advantages

The characteristics of the Situational Approach are summarized as follows:

- The spoken language is primary.

- All language material is practiced orally before being presented in written form (reading and writing are taught only after an oral base in lexical

and grammatical forms has been established.

- Only the target language should be used in the classroom.
- Efforts are made to ensure that the most general and useful lexical items are presented.
- Grammatical structures are graded from simple to complex.
- New items (lexical and grammatical) are introduced and practiced situationally (e.g. at the post-office, at the bank, at the dinner table...)

Another important feature of this method is the presentation of sentences in association with actions, mime, realia and visual aids (like the Direct Method). So the structures of the language are presented and practiced by the use of physical demonstration of notions and objects. Utterances are illustrated by simulation of actions, pictures and other real objects.

In this method, the teacher occupies a central role, for he takes on the responsibility for varying drills and tasks and choosing the appropriate situations to practice structures. Moreover, he acts as a model to be imitated by the pupils who are required to listen and repeat. Active verbal interaction between the teacher and the pupils is of vital importance in this method. In fact, language learning is seen to be the direct result of this interaction.

Shortcomings

- The situations that are created are pedagogic, bearing little resemblance to natural language use.
- Learners are not shown how the use of a structure in a particular situation can be generalized to another situation.
- The situations are not graded, but selected at random to serve the purpose of the structures on which they are based.





- It is not possible to enumerate all the situations that the learners are likely to meet in reality.

4.6 The Communicative Approach

It is generally referred to as the Functional-Notional Approach. It emerged in the early 1970's as a result of the work of the Council of Europe experts. The approach was primarily designed to meet the needs of adult learners, tourists or people engaged in academic, cultural, technical or economic activities. However, it can be traced back to the work of Chomsky in the 1960's when he advanced the two notions of 'competence' and 'performance' as a reaction to the prevalent audio-lingual method and its view on language learning. These two concepts were later developed by Hymes into 'communicative competence' which refers to the psychological, cultural and social rules which govern the use of language.

The new concept of 'communicative competence' has been expanded by many linguists. They have proposed seven categories of communicative functions which are requesting and giving information, expressing thought processes, expressing opinions, moral discipline and evaluation, modifying people's behaviour, expressing personal feelings and interacting socially. Under each of these categories there are many notions.

Advantages

The main characteristics underlying the communicative approach are as follows:



- Language acquisition is seen as a creative process, not as habit formation. The idea of language learning by a stimulus response process is rejected.

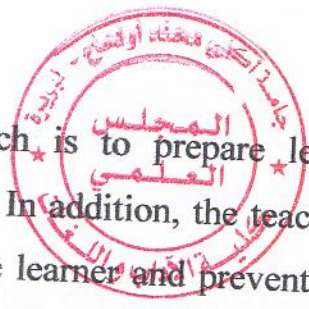
- Communicative competence implies knowledge of the grammatical system of the language as well as performance. Such competence includes both the usage and use of the language. Therefore, the approach does not deny the importance of mastering grammatical forms, as long as they are taught as a means of carrying out meaningful communication. That is, grammar is taught as a language tool rather than a language aim.

- Unlike the audio-lingual method, the communicative approach gives priority to the semantic content of language learning. That is, pupils learn the grammatical form through meaning, and not the other way round.

- One aspect of communication is the interaction between speakers. This approach provides communicative functions (uses) and notions (semantic themes and language items). These functions reflect more closely real life use of the language as they are usually connected with real life situations and with pupils' needs and interests.

- The approach sets realistic learning tasks and activities that create situations in which questions must be asked, information recorded, knowledge exchanged, emotions and attitudes expressed, in which the student plays the roles of both participant and observer.

- Such procedures and techniques will help pupils, who become the centre of the learning process, to develop their communicative competence as they provide them with the potential ability and motivation to discover the answers for themselves in groups, pairs and individually.



- Since the primary aim of the approach is to prepare learners for meaningful communication, errors are tolerated. In addition, the teachers needs not correct every mistake as this will inhibit the learner and prevent him from developing his communicative competence.

- The teacher is no more the centre of the classroom activities. Instead, the focus is shifted to the pupils and their interests, abilities and everyday life concerns. In other words, communicative methodology is learner- centered.



Shortcomings

In spite of the merits which characterize the Communicative Approach, it has been subjected to many criticisms such as the following:

- The approach relies extensively on the Functional-Notional syllabus which places heavy demands on the pupils. This is especially true at the first stages because of their lack of speaking rules and cultural insights.
- The various categories of language functions are overlapping and not systematically graded like the structures of the language. This creates some confusion and makes it difficult to teach the functions properly.
- There is a possibility of not covering all the areas of grammar when they are taught through notions and functions.
- A major principle underlying the communicative approach is its emphasis on pupils' needs and interests. This implies that every teacher should modify the syllabus to correspond to the needs of his pupils. This is not possible to implement as it requires the teacher to write a separate syllabus for each pupil in the class. Such a goal is very ambitious and impossible to realise.
- A major requirement for the successful application of the approach is the availability of a classroom that can allow for group work activities or for pupil-pupil interaction and for teaching aids and materials. Such a classroom is desirable but unfortunately not available in most schools.

4.7 The Eclectic Method

In spite of the proliferation of the theories of language teaching and language methods, no language teacher applies exclusively one of them. Teachers often incorporate features of different approaches in their particular methodology. Thus their teaching may be based on the communicative theory, but supplemented with a grading of words and grammatical forms and structures so that the pupils can develop gradually and simultaneously both their communicative competence and knowledge of the language system.

The eclectic method is therefore a framework involving procedures and techniques drawn from various methods. It is useful in practical situations in the classroom. It is not based on a specific theory or discipline.

Advantages

- Each one of the well-known methods has its own features. There is no one method which is comprehensive enough to meet the requirements of effective teaching and learning. All methods have some strengths and some weaknesses.

- Experienced teachers are very sensitive to the limitations of different methods, so they reject the weak points of each approach and retain only those aspects that are applicable in the particular situations in which they find themselves.

- The frequent shifts of methodology have made teachers feel that it is better to have a combination of elements from all of them. Methods may supplement one another especially when there is no one method which can fulfill all language goals and programme objectives.



A major principle of eclecticism is that the teaching process should serve the pupils, not a particular method. Hence, teachers should choose the techniques or procedures that best fit the pupils' needs and the teaching-learning situation.



UNIT 05:

Assessment/Testing in Language Teaching

Objectives:

- **Defining assessment and evaluation.**
- **Illustrating the advantages of assessment.**
- **Illustrating the types, stages, and tools of assessment**

1. Definitions

- Assessment:

It refers to the action of assessing or judging something. Assessment in education means to use a variety of tools and methods to evaluate the educational needs of the students. Assessment is a tool in a teacher's hand to assess the performance of a student in the class.

Assessment is essential for teachers as well. It is to know how effective are their teaching methods. Assessment in education is developed to measure various aspects. Including to gather the evidence about student's previous knowledge and planning lessons accordingly. It includes end-term exams and weekly tests to judge the student's performance.

- Testing:

It forms a crucial role in teaching and learning. It enables teachers and students to evaluate the achievement of their goals. Based on the students' performance in tests, teachers can determine or modify their plans to solve the problems faced by the students. On the other hand, students benefit from tests as they stimulate them to pay closer attention to the material. They also give them feedback about the strong and weak areas of their performance, so that they can remedy their weaknesses.



success or failure of the learners to achieve those objectives.

- To measure the effectiveness of instruction

They do not evaluate the learners, but through them it possible to evaluate the efficiency of the teaching-learning process in terms of the teachers' competence, materials and methods efficiency and the teaching/learning environment in general.

- To measure aptitude for learning

They aim at assessing the learners' potential in learning. They apply to special cases of young learners with problems of learning to find out whether they can learn or to discover the talents of gifted learners.

3. Categories of Tests

3.1. General Proficiency Tests

They give a general picture of a student's knowledge and ability (rather than measure progress). They are frequently used as stages people have to reach if they want to be admitted to a foreign university, get a job, or obtain some kind of certificate.

3.2. Achievement Tests

They measure the extent to which specific abilities, already taught, have been mastered by the learners. Achievement tests only work if they contain item types which the students are familiar with. If students are faced with a completely new material, the test will not measure the learning that has been taking place, even though it can still measure general language proficiency.



3.3. Aptitude Tests

They measure an individual's potential in learning. They test the person's knowledge and his facilities for acquiring learning.

4. Characteristics of a Good Test

To judge the effectiveness of any test, it is sensible to establish some criteria by which the test can be measured.

4.1. Validity

A test is valid if it tests what it is supposed to test. Thus it is not valid, for example, to test writing ability with an essay question that requires specialist knowledge of a particular scientific field - unless it is known that all students share this knowledge before the test. A particular kind of validity is 'face validity'. This means that the test should look, on the 'face' of it, as if it is valid. A test that consists of only three multiple-choice items would not convince students of its face validity.

4.2. Reliability

A good test should give consistent results. For example, if the same group of students took the same test twice within two days they should get the same results on each occasion. If they took another similar test, the results should be consistent. Reliability could be enhanced by making the test instructions clear and making sure that test conditions remain constant. Reliability also depends on the people who mark the tests- the scorers. A test is unreliable if the result depends to a large extent on who is marking it.



4.3. Practicality

A practical test is easy to administer and to score without wasting too much time or effort.

4.4. Comprehension

A good test should be comprehensive, covering all the items which have been studied. This enables teachers to know accurately the extent of the pupils' knowledge.

4.5. Economy

An efficient test makes the best use of the teacher's limited time for preparing and grading, and of the pupils' assigned time for answering all the items. Thus, oral exams with classes of thirty or more pupils are not economical since they require too much time and effort.

4.6. Difficulty

The test questions should be appropriate in difficulty, neither too hard, nor too easy. Moreover, the questions should be progressive in difficulty to reduce stress and tension.

4.7. Clarity

All questions and instructions must be clear to enable pupils to know what the examiner wants them to do.

4.8. Objectivity

The questions and answers should be clear and definite so that the marker would give the score the pupil deserves.



5. Norm-Referenced and Criterion-referenced Tests

5.1. Norm-referenced Tests

They rank the achievement of students in relation to that of other students, the norm being the mean score achieved by the group. In standardised tests, the norm represents the mean level of achievement attained by many students in many administrations of the test.

5.2. Criterion-referenced Tests

They are completely different and serve a different purpose. Criteria or sets of objectives, which the students must each attain are established and each student is expected to master all the objectives usually through the performance of specified tasks. For the convenience of administration, a criterion mastery level is usually set (a certain percentage of items correct, for instance) and the students are expected to demonstrate knowledge of this level of mastery. Criterion-referenced tests are used for courses where students must all demonstrate a certain level of mastery of a specific body of material.

5. Discrete-Point and Integrative Testing

5.1. Discrete-point Testing

This means testing knowledge of the details of language (grammatical structures, word order, acceptable production of certain sounds, items of vocabulary, or spelling). The form of the tests focuses the attention of the student on specific points. A discrete-point test should require that the student relate the point at issue to a context of language (even if only within one sentence) to respond to the item correctly.

5.2. Integrative or Global Testing

It requires that the examinee pay less attention to specific structure points or lexicon than to the total communicative effect of the utterance or material. An integrative test need not be a full test of communication, like the oral interview, but it must involve functioning language, that is, meaningful discourse with an evolving message.

7. Types of Language Tests

- Translation

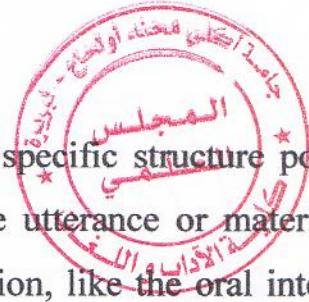
One of the traditional ways of testing knowledge of the foreign language has been through the translation of prose or poetry from the native language to the foreign language. It is a complicated task for which students need to be prepared through specialized training. Therefore, it is difficult to evaluate.

No two translations of the same test can be exactly the same, and so the scores of a translation test may vary from one scorer to another. For this reason, translation is an unreliable test.

- Dictation

It tests the recognition of elements of the language when spoken. It can test recognition of grammatical segmentation of discourse and of elements of the vocabulary of the language as they cluster according to the sense of the discourse. It calls for the testee's auditory memory and ability to store language material.

It also involves the ability to write the language accurately, correctly, associating symbols with sounds. Dictation is easy to administer and correct. The 'one word wrong = one mistake' method is sufficient for most purposes. It is quite reliable as the same reference exists for all scorers.





- The Cloze Test

The cloze test is constructed by omitting every nth word in a continuous passage of discourse. The first sentence of the passage is left intact. The students are expected to provide the omitted words according to their understanding of the meaning. This tests their knowledge of many aspects of the language in the context of meaningful discourse. It highly correlates with tests of reading comprehension, listening comprehension and dictation. The student can fill in the blank with an appropriate word but only the expected word will be counted as correct.

This makes it a very easy test to correct, but it is also possible to accept any appropriate word given by the student. (This is psychologically more satisfactory for class use).

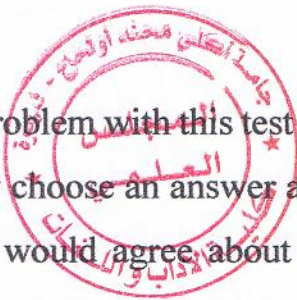
- True-False Tests

They involve the acceptance or rejection of a statement or utterance heard or read. They are useful as tests of listening or reading comprehension, or of knowledge of historical, literary, and cultural facts related to the context in which language is used. Since the students have to choose one of only two options, there is a high probability of guessing. Therefore, it does not give a true appreciation of the student's knowledge.

- Multiple-Choice Tests

They provide answers to questions on, for example, listening or reading comprehension material, lexical meanings of words etc. In this test, there is a question or a statement followed by three or four answers of which only one is correct while the rest are distracters.

It is difficult to construct but easy to correct. The problem with this test is that the students do not think of their own answers, but merely choose an answer among the offered ones. It is very reliable as any two scorers would agree about the same answers.



- Matching Tests

They are commonly used as vocabulary tests. Students are asked to match synonyms, antonyms, names of objects with names of groups or classes of objects, names of objects with occupations and so on. To avoid the problem of giving correct answers by a process of elimination, the teacher can provide unequal lists for the matching process, or by providing several items which may be matched with more than one item.

- The Composition

When students have attained some control of the language, even at an elementary level, they may be asked to express themselves in a written composition, in which they can combine elements they have been learning in new combinations to express their own meanings. The marks allocated in this kind of test cover the ideas, organization of ideas, structure, lexicon, punctuation, spelling, capitalization and paragraphing.

Responses to the question set by the examiner will vary from one student to another, and the evaluation of these responses will vary from one scorer to another as different scorers will give different scales of importance to each of the above aspects. Therefore, this test is highly unreliable as different scorers give it different scores.



- Oral Tests

It tests the learner's free oral response to problems set by the examiner. The same reasons mentioned in the composition concerning unreliability apply here. Furthermore, the mark allocated -in addition to ideas, their organization, structure and lexicon cover pronunciation, stress, intonation and fluency.

- Transformation and Paraphrase

It is a common test which asks students to rewrite sentences in a slightly different form, retaining the exact meaning of the original. To complete the item successfully the student has to understand the first sentence, and then know how to construct an equivalent which is grammatically possible. So these tests give us an idea about the testee's knowledge of the language system.

- Sentence re-ordering

The students' ability to put words in the right order to make appropriate sentences gives us an idea of their underlying knowledge of syntax and lexicogrammatical elements.

8. Designing Class Tests

Teachers should design tests with careful attention to what their particular class has been learning. No test will be effectively constructed if the teacher designing it does not have a clear picture of what the students may realistically be expected to know. The test constructor should decide which skills and competences are to be tested and what are the best ways to test these particular abilities and not something else. The teacher should also make sure that the test reflects adequately the objectives of the course and the amount of time spent on practice of the various skills, and that the test items for each skill reflect how this skill was presented and practised in class. In addition to the above recommendations, teachers should ask

themselves the following questions:



a. *Are the instructions in the test so clear that the students cannot possibly misunderstand what they are expected to do?*

b. *Is there any ambiguity in test items?*

c. *Is the test so constructed that the student begins with easier items and proceeds to the more difficult?* d. *Do the items test the ability to use the language rather than mere knowledge about the language?* e. *Are the items in the test linguistically useful?*

f. *Does the test concentrate exclusively on bits of information, or is some opportunity provided for the student to put it together or to see authentic language material as a meaningful whole?*

9. Types of assessment in education

-Formative assessment

Formative assessment in education is a handy tool. It refers to the evaluation of the process. A formative assessment is also known as 'Assessment for learning'. This type of assessment takes place **during** the activity to improve learning. Its purpose is to provide feedback to students and teachers. It also gives a chance for improvement for students.

Formative Assessment also enables the teacher to "turn on a dime" and rethink instructional strategies, activities, and content based on student understanding and performance. His/her role here is comparable to that of a coach. Formative Assessment can be as informal as observing the learner's work

or as formal as a written test. Formative Assessment is the most powerful type of assessment for improving student understanding and performance.

Formative assessment consists of tests, assignments, projects, viva, practical, unit test etc.

-Summative assessment

A summative assessment is a tool to measure the end product. It refers to the evaluation of the product. A summative assessment is also known as "Assessment of learning." This type of assessment takes place at the end of the academic term. Its purpose is to evaluate the student's achievement. It includes assigning grades to pupils and ranks them according to their performance. Teachers/schools can use these assessments to identify strengths and weaknesses of curriculum and instruction, with improvements affecting the next year's/term's students.

The difference between Formative and Summative Assessments

According to different purposes, assessments can be classified into formative assessment and summative assessment:

- **Formative assessment** is to diagnose learners' learning process, information from which can be used by teachers as the basis for further work.
- **Summative assessment** is intended to measure learners' achievement.

In the classroom, that means, formative assessments take place during a course and summative assessments are the final evaluations at the course's end.



Formative Assessment	Summative Assessment
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• It is prepared and carried out by the class teacher as a routine part of teaching and learning.• It is specifically related to what has been taught, i.e. content is in harmony with what has been taught.• The information from the assessment is used diagnostically; it is focused on the individual learner's specific strengths and weaknesses, needs, etc.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• It is not necessarily prepared and carried by the class teacher.• It does not necessarily relate immediately to what has been taught.• The judgment about a learner's performance is likely to feed into record-keeping and be used for administrative purposes, e.g. checking standards and targets.• It is frequently externally imposed, e.g. by an institution or a ministry of education.



1- Criterion-referenced assessment

This type of assessment focus on measuring the performance of student against specific criteria. But there is no involvement in comparing the achievement with other person's performance. Some of the examples are :

- Sheila got 95 marks in social science
- Ronan wrote an essay in 30 minutes

2- Norm-referenced assessment

Norm-referenced assessment measures the student's performance in comparison to other students. The measurement act relates to some norm or group. The measurement is not made in terms of criteria. Some examples are:

- Rani scored first in class in mathematics test
- Soman surpasses 70% of students of his class in mathematics.

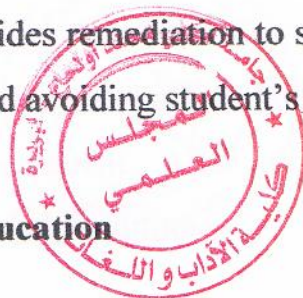
3- Ipsative assessment

This assessment in education holds a prominent place. It is because a student's performance is measured not in reference to criteria. Nor is it estimated in comparison to other student's performance. In fact, a student's performance is measured against their past performance. It helps a student to oneself by judging your performance and improving it. It is beneficial as it does not affect a student's self-confidence.

4- Diagnostic assessment

This type of assessment allows teachers to determine student's strengths, weaknesses, and knowledge before starting giving instruction. It is beneficial for both teachers and students. It will enable teachers to plan preparation according

to the problems faced by the students. It provides remediation to students facing doubts. It will help in making lessons clear and avoiding student's boredom.



10. The Importance of assessment in education

Assessment is a significant part of education. Only teaching and learning would not be enough to meet educational goals. Proper feedback, the judgment of performance, and remedial strategies would only make education successful.

- Provide feedback

Evaluation is necessary to provide student's feedback on their learning. It will help students and teachers make a judgment about their strengths and weakness. It will bring about change in the student's education.

- Progress evaluation

The assessment provides an opportunity for students to evaluate their learning progress. A teacher gets to know about effective teaching methods. Also, students would get to know about how well the students are doing in academics.

- Setting standards

An assessment allows the teacher to set standards for performance. It means a teacher needs to identify what performance demonstrates the understanding and knowledge of students. It makes it easy to judge the performance of students.

- Motivation for performance

Students are motivated when given responsibility for their learning. They tend to search for solutions to improve their performance. And also manage to discover what else they would like to learn.



Therefore, assessment is necessary to provide feedback to both students and teachers. It gives them a chance of improvement. After all, a functional assessment opens up the door to success and a bright future.

11. Assessment vs. Evaluation

Assessment is defined as a process of appraising something or someone, i.e. the act of gauging the quality, value or importance. As against, **evaluation** focuses on making a judgment about values, numbers or performance of someone or something. Assessment is made to identify the level of performance of an individual, whereas evaluation is performed to determine the degree to which goals are attained.

BASIS FOR COMPARISON	ASSESSMENT	EVALUATION
Meaning	Assessment is a process of collecting, reviewing and using data, for the purpose of improvement in the current performance.	Evaluation is described as an act of passing judgement on the basis of set of standards.
Nature	Diagnostic	Judgemental



What it does?	Provides feedback on performance and areas of improvement.	Determines the extent to which objectives are achieved.
Purpose	Formative	Summative
Orientation	Process Oriented	Product Oriented
Feedback	Based on observation and positive & negative points.	Based on the level of quality as per set standard.
Relationship between parties	Reflective	Prescriptive
Criteria	Set by both the parties jointly.	Set by the evaluator.
Measurement Standards	Absolute	Comparative

UNIT 06:



Lesson

Planning

Objectives:

- **Describing the steps, elements, and formats of a lesson plan.**
- **Helping learners to make their own lesson plans**

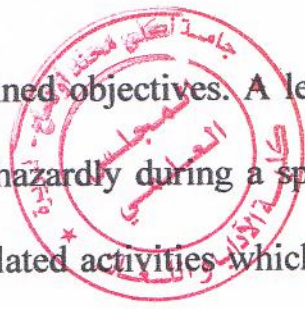
1. Introduction

Efficient teaching relies to a large extent on careful planning of lessons (Al Mutawa & Kailani, 1989). A good lesson plan brings satisfaction to the teacher as well as motivation and interest for the learners. This makes the teaching/learning situation more enjoyable.

The lesson plan should be thoughtfully established according to certain principles so that each lesson will contain the necessary ingredients for developing the language skills of the students. The lesson plan is a brief outline, usually on a small card, which the teacher has to prepare before he/she comes to the classroom to be used as a guide during the presentation of the lesson. The teaching card (plan) is not only used to outline the different steps of lesson presentation but also, to note different comments about the lesson after it has been presented.

2. General Principles about Lesson Planning

- The teacher is not obliged to follow blindly the textbook. The latter represents a source of language materials that can be used in different ways. The teacher is supposed to know the content of the textbook, but then, should be able to select what to keep, what to add, and what to omit according to the teaching situation in which he/she is.



- Each lesson should have clearly defined objectives. A lesson is not a random selection of items to be learned haphazardly during a specific period of time. Rather, it is a progression of interrelated activities which reinforce each other in establishing and consolidating the learning toward which both teacher and students are directing their efforts.
- A lesson should progress in a smooth, smart way so that the teacher will lead learners to move from one activity to another in a coherent way with little or no wasted time.
- The activities used in the same lesson should not all be of the same type. The teacher should make an effort to vary the activities to be dealt with in the lesson. Sticking to the same activities may lead to boredom and fatigue on the part of the learners even if they seem to enjoy them at first.



It should provide for decontextualization: enough different contexts so that the skill/concept may be applied to any relevant situation...not only the context in which it was originally learned. The failure to do this is responsible for most student failure to be able to apply something learned.

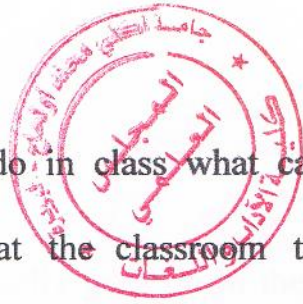
4 Lesson Planning

Careful planning of lessons is a prerequisite of efficient teaching. When a lesson is well prepared, the teacher gets more satisfaction from his/her work. The teacher must know the steps he/she follows and what behaviour is expected from the pupils throughout the lesson.

a Procedures of lesson planning

Lesson planning does not need to be lengthy. However, each lesson plan should include at least the objectives of the particular lesson, an introduction, instructional procedures, application or learning activities, and evaluation. The following steps will illustrate these basic principles:

1. The teacher is advised to review the English syllabus to acquaint himself with the material and the goals of the course.
2. He should read the whole unit before teaching it to get a general idea of what is being taught, what topics to be covered and what the pupils are expected to learn, to accomplish or to do.

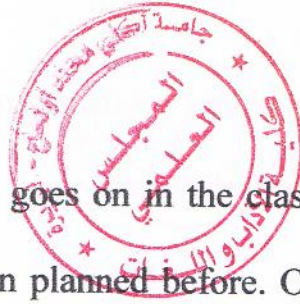


- The teacher should plan to do in class what cannot be done out of class (Rivers, 1981). This means that the classroom time should be devoted to activities that require the teacher assistance. Out of class activities should be used to reinforce and consolidate the learning which has taken place inside the classroom.
- The lesson plan should not always be done in the same pattern. It should, however, leave the students in a constant state of suspense wondering what the next step would be. Monotonous lesson plans lead the students to expect how the teacher is proceeding.
- The teacher is not supposed to follow the lesson plan word by word. The situation inside the classroom may prompt the teacher to take quick decisions, to modify the plan when necessary.

3. Basic Elements in Lesson Planning

According to Al Mutawa & Kailani (1989), the written lesson plan includes the following guidelines:

The teacher is advised to refer to the teacher's book for standard teaching procedures that are to be used along with the procedures indicated for each step or lesson.



4- Lesson Presentation

Lesson presentation is what actually goes on in the classroom. It represents an attempt to put into practice what has been planned before. Once again, teachers are advised to make the necessary modifications to their lesson plans based on students' reactions during the presentation of the lesson. Presenting a lesson goes through the following steps:

1. Warming up:

Every lesson begins with a warm-up aiming essentially at involving the students in the learning atmosphere by raising their interest in the lesson. The main function of the warming up is to make learners retrieve their background knowledge which will be matched, then, with the new information.

There are several ways of warming the learners up:

- The teacher may do it in the form of a short discussion where he encourages the learners to speak about subjects of interest to them.
- It may also be built around a picture or an object.
- it takes the form of a joke, anecdote, a song; or can simply be a brief revision of the previous lesson.

The warming up is an essential first step in lesson presentation. It should, however, be as short as possible, since it represents an introduction to the lesson, and not the lesson itself.



2. Input:

The teacher provides the information needed for students to gain knowledge or skill through lecture, film, tape, video, pictures, etc.

4. Modelling:

Once the material has been presented, the teacher uses it to show students examples of what is expected as an end product of their work. The critical aspects are explained through labelling, categorizing, comparing, etc. Students are taken to the application level (problem-solving, comparison, summarizing, etc.)

5. Checking for Understanding:

Determination of whether students have "got it" before proceeding. It is essential that students practice *doing it right* so the teacher must know that students understand before proceeding to practice. If there is any doubt that the class has not understood, the concept/skill should be re-taught before practice begins.

6. Guided practice:

An opportunity for each student to demonstrate a grasp of new learning by working through an activity or exercise under the teacher's direct supervision. The teacher moves around the room to determine the level of mastery and to provide individual remediation as needed. [Fred Jones' "praise, prompt, and leave" is suggested as a strategy to be used in guided practice.]



7. Closure:

Those actions or statements by a teacher that are designed to bring a lesson presentation to an appropriate conclusion. Used to help students bring things together in their own minds, to make sense out of what has just been taught.

"Any questions? No. OK, let's move on" is not closure.

The closure is used:

- to cue students to the fact that they have arrived at an important point in the lesson or the end of a lesson,
- to help organize student learning,
- to help form a coherent picture, to consolidate, eliminate confusion and frustration, etc.,
- to reinforce the major points to be learned...to help establish the network of thought relationships that provide a number of possibilities for cues for retrieval. The closure is the act of reviewing and clarifying the key points of a lesson, tying them together into a coherent whole, and ensuring their utility in the application by securing them in the student's conceptual network.

8. Independent practice:

Once pupils have mastered the content or skill, it is time to provide reinforcement practice. It is provided on a repeating schedule so that the learning is not forgotten. It may be homework or group or individual work in class. It can be utilized as an element in a subsequent project.



3. The teacher should then divide the unit into an appropriate number of teaching steps to ensure that the teaching content is evenly distributed among the various steps.

b. Guidelines for a Lesson Plan

Concerning the written lesson plan the teacher should state in a preparation notebook the following guidelines:

1. The day and date of the presentation should be indicated. The lesson (or the number of the step)

and page must also be indicated. The teaching point should also be stated briefly.

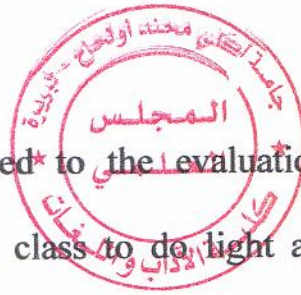
2. The aim of the lesson should be stated clearly so that all the activities will be directed towards that aim.

3. The language points to be taught and materials to be used are made clear.

4. A brief statement of what the teacher is to do in the first five minutes of the lesson, whether he will check homework, revise previous material-words, functions or structural items, do some remedial work, give a quiz, do a spelling drill, etc.

5. Pair or group work activities are to be referred to, and so are workbook exercises and drills.

6. Communicative activities, reading and writing skills or any other application exercises are also to be referred to. The allotted time for this section is between ten and fifteen minutes.



7. The last five minutes can be devoted* to the evaluation and assigning homework. The teacher can also ask the class to do light activity such as a song, a general talk or even tell a joke, so that the pupils may leave the class in a good mood. The teacher need not write this down in the lesson plan unless there is a predetermined homework assignment.

These procedures and the time allotted for each one are not fixed. The classroom situation and the pupils' responses determine the extent and duration of these sections. Moreover, some daily plans require more than one teaching period.

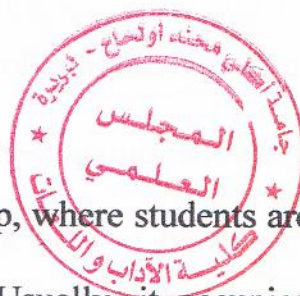
In the end, the teacher should write in his preparation notebook a few words on how the lesson was carried out, how much material was not completed or what needs further practice, as this will help him in the preparation of the next lesson.

c. The Steps of a Plan

A lesson plan is made of the following steps:

- The Warm up

The lesson usually begins with a warm-up, where students are encouraged to talk about subjects of interest to them. Usually, it occupies five to ten minutes of the lesson time. Sometimes this warm-up is built around a picture or an object, selected for its potential for expanding the students' vocabulary. In their discussions, students use the material they have already learned and acquire new vocabulary in a meaningful context.



The warm-up provides also an opportunity for the students to use some of the structures they practised in the previous lesson. The most useful function of the warm-up is to encourage students to retrieve and reuse material from previous units in a real exchange of ideas and to elicit their interest in the present lesson.

- Presentation

The lesson can then be introduced interestingly. The teacher can list, with some examples, which words, functions, structures or communicative abilities, etc. are to be taught. It is also useful to list the activities, strategies or recordings which will be used. The amount of material to be taught should fit in the allotted time.

While writing the plan, the teacher has also to decide on the suitable modes or procedures of presentation of different parts of the lesson. Thus, he may employ dramatization, role-playing, problem-solving, oral or written reports, discussion, lecturing, grouping, picture-drawing, showing objects, etc. In addition, he has to decide on the teaching aids to be used. To hold the interest of pupils, it is necessary to provide varied activities such as language games and songs.

The presentation phase usually comprises three phases:

- a- *The teaching point: It shows the new material, namely vocabulary, notions, functions and structures to be introduced and practised.*
- b- *Teacher's activity: It comprises the procedure, the method and the teaching aids to be used by the teacher.*
- c- *Pupils' activity: It includes pupil participation which takes the form of individual, pair or group work activities, spoken or written.*

short composition or read some longer account

or discussing orally a subject about which the students will be asked to write a

homework, making sure that any grammatical terminology is well understood,

preparation may involve introducing some new vocabulary that occurs in the

a homework assignment. The homework needs to be prepared. This

practising the foreign language, and therefore, this should be rectified through

available in the daily school schedule is not sufficient for learning

additional practice in developing their language competence. The

It is an essential ingredient of the learning process. It gives the

6- Homework

activity, the teacher has some evidence that they have assimilated

assimilation. If the students can use material successfully

may take the form of a written demonstration of understanding

between what they have been learning and what they have

elements from earlier lessons to make sure the students recall

using what they have been learning. This work may

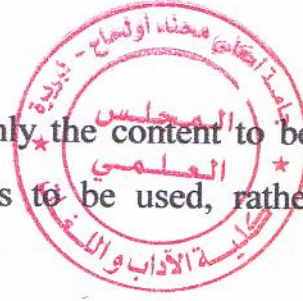
The teacher may engage the students in an interactive

The next step is the practical application of the

-Practice

d-Considerations in Lesson planning

A good lesson plan should consider not only the content to be taught, the objectives, the activities and the materials to be used, rather; it should consider the following points:



➤ **Sequencing and pacing:**

The content and the activities should pass and flow logically and smoothly so that learners can make developmental progress. More, the level of difficulty should be considered. The teacher can ask questions such as:

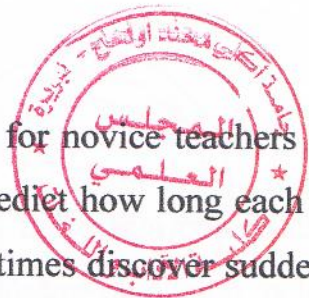
- *Do the activities have the right length and are they varied and logically ordered so that learners remain engaged and motivated?*
- *Do my learners have the appropriate skills, abilities, and knowledge that enable them do the planned activities or not.*

➤ **Time management:**

Sometimes we are run out of time and we cannot cover all the points in the lesson. Therefore, when planning, we should ask questions such as:

- *Is the time allotted for each step adequate or sufficient?*
- *Does the lesson plan devote time for students to interact with the teacher or with one another?*
- *In case the lesson finishes early, is there any alternative?*

Essentially, teachers should mention the minutes devoted for each activity in the margin as they need to have a watch in their hands.



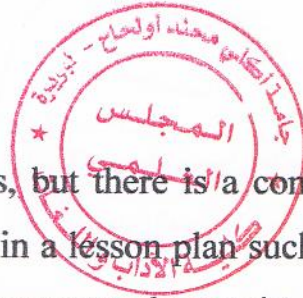
Time management can be very challenging for novice teachers because they lack enough experience that helps them predict how long each activity will take. While presenting the lesson, we sometimes discover suddenly that the activity is easily done and does not require much time as planned, or too difficult, yet requiring much more time. In this case, the good teacher must be very flexible to make the appropriate adjustment by reducing or extending the time allotted for each activity. When setting time, teachers should consider the *following points*:

- *Estimating how much time should be devoted to each activity and mentioning it next to each activity.*
- *Consider few minutes at the end of the course to answer learners' questions, and to sum up and discuss the main points.*
- *Being ready and flexible to adjust your lesson plan timing according to learners' needs and to the classroom situation.*

Sometimes, the novice teacher looks too many times at his/her watch to manage the time appropriately, and sometimes he/she finishes the lesson earlier without having any idea about what to do. To avoid these situations, extra activities or tasks should be planned apart.

➤ **The seating arrangement:**

Teachers should mention the type of the seating arrangements which should be decided according to the topic to be taught or to the type of the activity. Some objectives require a group or a pair work strategy where students should sit in separate tables while other activities necessitate a horseshoe seating arrangement .



f-Lesson Plan Formats

Lesson plans can take different formats, but there is a consensus about certain elements that should be considered in a lesson plan such as learners' skills and backgrounds, the objectives, the content to be taught, the materials to be used, the time limitations, the activities, links with the previous lesson, and evaluation activities. More, all lesson plans should be coherent as they should mark the start, the body, and the end.

Putting more or less details is a matter of individual differences and preferences. While all teachers now use computers to save and type their lesson plans, there are many others who still prefer handwritten plans, use a notebook for each class, or use separate papers. Most teachers mention in their lesson plans the date, the name of the teacher, the students' grade and the class number, the number of the lesson, the sequence number, and the general competencies to be addressed. Some teachers write reminders such as giving or collecting any homework or assignments.

Obviously, the objectives should be clearly mentioned along with the teaching content and materials. Some teachers may list the materials in a separate box at the top of the page while others mention them along with the content. The activities, the procedures, the type of grouping, and the seating arrangements should be all described in the lesson plan.

Here is an example of a lesson plan format



1) Lesson Number

Teachers' Name

2) Date :12/12/2023 3)

3) Time :10h00-11h00

4) Class : 3rd year secondary school

5) Subject : Grammar

6) Topic of the lesson : passive voice

7) Objective of the lesson: By the end of the course, students should be able to use the passive voice in different situations.

8) Materials and aids: Printed texts, blackboard, textbook,...

09) Introduction

10) Presentation and explanation of the topic

11) Questions and activities

12) Summary and discussion

13) Assessment and Evaluation

13) Home-work

14) Points of reflection



UNIT07: Materials and Media in Language Teaching

Objectives:

- **Illuminating the importance of media use/ textbook use in the teaching-learning process.**
- **Explaining how to evaluate, analyse, and use an ELT materials.**



1. Introduction

Language teaching and learning relies to a great extent on the use of materials and media. The aim of the present lesson is to provide a discussion of the two terms and of their importance for language teaching and learning.

However, before any discussion is made it is of crucial importance to make a distinction between the two terms materials and media. Teaching a foreign language implies the exposure of the learners to the forms and contexts in which language is expressed. These forms and contexts of language usage and use, and the various tasks designed for teaching and learning are the materials.

Presenting these materials to the foreign language learner, in or outside the classroom, through different pedagogical means, requires the use of some tools that we call media. They include all kinds of equipment that the teachers or other pedagogues use inside or outside the classroom.

2. Materials

Teaching materials are a key component in most language programmes. Materials are viewed as the embodiment of the aims, values and methods of the particular teaching/ learning situation.

Materials are defined as anything which is used to help to teach language learners. They can be in the form of a textbook, a workbook, a cassette, a CD-Rom, a video, a photocopied handout, a newspaper, a paragraph written on a whiteboard:

anything which presents or informs about the language being learned.

The selection of materials involves matching the given materials with the context in which they are going to be used and the needs and interests of the teachers and learners who work within it, to find the best possible fit between them.

Whether the teacher uses a textbook, institutionally prepared materials, or makes use of his or her own materials, instructional materials generally serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. These may take the form of:

- Printed materials such as books, workbooks, worksheets, or readers.
- Nonprint materials such as cassette or audio materials, videos, or computer-based materials
- Materials that compromise both print and nonprint sources such as self-access materials and materials on the internet
- In addition, materials not designed for instruction use, such as magazines, newspapers, and TV materials may also play a role in the curriculum.

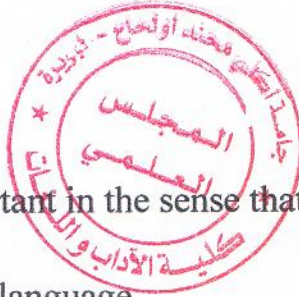


The materials provide the basis for the content of lessons, the balance of skills taught, and the kinds of language practice students take part in. In other situations, materials serve primarily to supplement the teacher's instruction. For learners, materials may provide the major source of contact they have with the language apart from the teacher.

3. Teaching Media

Many media are used for presentation, demonstration, reinforcement, and communication practice. These media can be classified into four main types, namely; visual, aural, audio-visual and language games.

- Visual media include the chalkboard, pictures, posters, drawings, charts, maps, objects, cloth and magnetic boards, plastic figures and cuttings. They also involve projected visuals such as film strips, projectors, overhead projectors and slides.
- Aural media include radio programmes, taped materials and the language laboratory.
- Audio-visual media consist of films, video-tapes, television and microcomputers.
- Games are of many sorts and levels such as card games, board games and paper and pencil games.



4 The Importance of Media

The above-mentioned media are important in the sense that they:

- Stimulate interest in the foreign language
- Explain concepts or illustrate meanings
- Reinforce learning
- Direct or promote conversations in groups
- Provide cultural background.

5. Characteristics of Media

The teacher should be careful to choose the most appropriate medium that best serves his teaching purposes. The medium should:

- Be suitable for the teaching objectives
- Correlate with the text material or class work
- Simplify the learning process
- Present or illustrate one point at a time
- Draw attention to the purpose it is intended to present
- Be of appropriate size and attractive
- Provide language experience to improve communicative competence
- Evoke interest in the foreign language
- Motivate pupils to practice the language individually, in pairs or in groups.

6 Some Common Media

In what follows, there is a listing of some of the most common media suitable for use in English language teaching situations.



The Blackboard

It is the most useful and commonly used visual aid. It is commonly available in every class where it forms a focal point of attention for the whole class. The blackboard has several advantages over the other aids because anything can be drawn, adjusted, rubbed and redrawn for a different purpose.

Its uses include introducing new material; writing lexical items, new language functions or structural patterns; drawing shapes, diagrams or sketches to show relationships or to describe meanings and situations; writing questions for practice, or model answers for corrections; training pupils in correct spelling of vocabulary items.

Writing on the blackboard should be clear and neat in order not to confuse the pupils.

Moreover, the teacher should not overcrowd the blackboard with too much writing or drawing. It is better to divide the blackboard into three sections each of which can be allotted for a certain task.



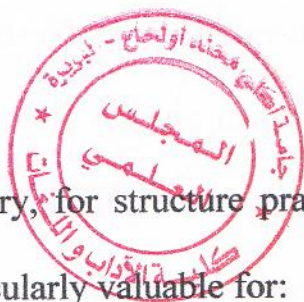
-The Cloth/Magnet Board

This medium can generate a more active participation in the use of the language. The order of the pictures, cut-outs or cards can be varied to meet the aim of the teaching item. It is effective in the sense that it is a practical device to present, practice, review, dramatize or enrich language items. It also motivates verbal response and ensures more effective learning. Therefore, this medium can be used in order to practice or review personal pronouns, prepositions, basic structural patterns or language functions and to develop a sequence for telling a story.

-Flash Cards

The main function of flash cards is to teach letters and how to start reading. The card displayed for a few seconds, and then learners are asked to say what they have just seen either individually, in groups or collectively. This is useful for learning to recognize the shape of the letters and to associate each letter or diagraph with its most usual sound.

The lettering, wording or printing of the flash cards should be neat, clear and large enough to be read by the whole class including those pupils who sit at the back of the class.



-Wall Charts

They are used for introducing new vocabulary, for structure practice, and for straight forward descriptions. They are particularly valuable for:

- a) Practicing communication. For example, a chart showing people walking or playing can provide varied utterances, dialogues or conversations,
- b) Teaching and revising linguistic forms such as minimal pairs, new vocabulary, prepositions, question words, progressive tense forms, word order....

Charts should be neat, legible and large enough to be seen by the whole class. Teachers may encourage pupils to prepare many charts with drawings or pictures or words. These may include tenses of verbs, topics of general interest for class discussion, pictures for composition. This would create motivation in the learners and maintain their interest in the task at hand.

-Pictures

Teaching pictures are of different types and sizes. There are for example, slides, colour illustrations, pictures cut from books, journals and magazines. In addition there are picture files for pupils to refer to whenever they need to.

Pictures are useful in teaching or explaining the meanings of new lexical items or structures; in practicing grammatical points; in substitution

drills; in stimulating pupils to talk in English; in developing conversations, dialogues or debates; in illustrating the content of some reading material; in developing pupils' interest in reading; in developing listening comprehension; in understanding some aspects of the culture of the people speaking the foreign language.

-The Overhead Projector

Transparencies are used for writing or drawing things to project them onto a screen or a clean wall. This is more effective than the projector which must be used in a darkened classroom. The teacher can easily add and remove the transparencies while teaching.

This medium has many advantages over the blackboard. Unlike the blackboard, the teacher needs not clean the overhead projector or turn his back on the class when using it. It can keep the class under control and the lesson in progress. Furthermore, the teacher can use the same transparencies several times.

In addition to these advantages, the overhead projector can be used for building up more complex drawings or sentences by placing two or more of the transparencies on top of each other. The teacher may also cut the transparency into smaller pieces to write a word or phrase. This technique is useful in substitution drills or in teaching prepositions, word order or question forms.



-Slides and filmstrips

They are convenient and useful means for presenting information not only in English classes but in a large variety of classes.

(The tape-recorder

It forms an integral part of English instruction. It is an effective means for developing the pupils' communicative competence. It has many advantages:

- a) It motivates interest in the foreign language as pupils respond enthusiastically when they hear voices speaking English with native fluency and accent, or when they listen to their own recorded voices.
- b) It provides a good opportunity to hear voices other than their teacher's and voices of native speakers of English. This gives the pupils valuable practice in listening to and imitating the pronunciation and intonation of natural standard English.
- c) It adds realism and interest to English classes by introducing the outside world (conversations in shops, playgrounds, etc ;) into the classroom.
- d) It helps pupils develop their aural comprehension skill. They may listen to recorded speech and identify objects in a picture as they are mentioned on the tape.

-The language Laboratory

It is not used on a large scale in our schools partly because the time allotted for teaching the foreign language is limited. The language laboratory has many advantages:

- It is an effective means for practising listening comprehension.
- It is an effective tool for pronunciation drills- stress, rhythm and intonation, and for communication practice.
- It is useful for testing aural/oral skills- listening, speaking or reading.
- It allows pupils to work at their own speed and to correct themselves.
- It gives pupils more time to speak the foreign language than they would have in the conventional classroom.
- It stimulates shy pupils to practice the language as it gives them a sense of privacy when listening and repeating.
- It allows the teacher to listen or speak to the pupils individually or together.



UNIT08 :Integrated Skills in TEFL

Objectives:

- **Identifying the reasons why we should integrate the four skills**
- **Grouping skills together**
- **Illustrating the ways we integrate the four skills**
- **determining the implications for teaching**
- **Exploring the limitations of integrating the four skills**



1. The reasons why we should integrate the four skills

When we communicate, we often use more than a single language skill.

Task

Can you think of a one-skill situation, a two-skill situation, a three-skill situation and a four-skill situation?

1. There are many situations in which we use more than one language skill.

For this reason alone, it is valuable to integrate the language skills

2. Many educationalists stress the importance of building new knowledge and skills on to what students already know and can do.

3. Realistic communication is the aim of the communicative approach and many researchers believe that handling realistic communication is an integral part of essential conditions for language learning:

4. Integrating the four skills emphasizes the focus on realistic language and can therefore lead to the students' all-round development of communicative competence in English.

2. Grouping skills together

These can be grouped in different ways:

- We can talk about the **oral skills** (listening and speaking) or the **written skills** (reading and writing).
- We can also group them by the direction of communication: **receiving** (listening or reading) and **producing** (speaking or writing)



In general, the way in which we learn these skills are in this order: listening, speaking, reading, writing. That is a child will listen to the language around them and then begin to utter a few words. These develop into fuller utterances (i.e. spoken sentences). With the help of an adult the child will begin to read simple texts and then finally produce written texts themselves.

Of course, learners of English pick up the four skills in more or less the same order, however, remember that they are not isolated and it is almost impossible to develop one skill without also developing the other skills.

2.1 Listening

Listening is not only hearing but also understanding what is being said. In general, there are two kinds of listening: active where we are in a face to face conversation or on the phone, etc; and passive when we watch television or listen to the radio.

Within this skill area there are also sub-skills which need to be learned. These include learning to “hear” the boundaries between words; learning to understand what a change in intonation or stress means and so on.

2.2 Speaking

As with listening, speaking can be active or passive. Active speaking is when we speak on the phone or face to face and there is interaction between the speaker and listener. Passive speaking is when we speak with no interruptions or feedback from others e.g. giving a speech or a teacher droning on and on and on!

- *Sub-skills here include pronunciation as well as using stress and intonation in the correct way. There are also more semantic skills such as how to choose the correct word and building an argument, etc.*



2.3 Reading

Reading is well developed in most societies. Sub-skills here include deciphering the script (e.g. the Roman alphabet or Cyrillic or Chinese characters), recognizing vocabulary and picking out key words in the text. Here a knowledge of syntax comes into play and also the ability to transfer what is written into real-life knowledge.

There are also important reading sub-skills such as skimming, reading for gist, reading for detail and so on. These all have to be taught to students.

2.4 Writing

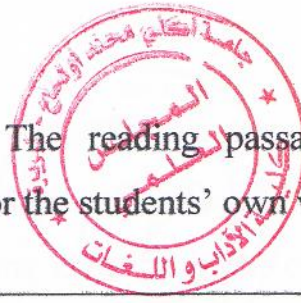
Sub-skills here include spelling and punctuation, using the correct vocabulary and of course using the correct style whether that be formal, poetic or whatever the occasion demands, from a shopping list to wedding vows. These days as well there is not only the physical ability to use a pen and write but also the use of a keyboard or keypad.

3. The ways of integrating the four skills

3.1 Simple integration

The easiest form of integration is within the same medium (either oral or written), from receptive to productive skills.

In other words, we would use a listening text as a model for the students' speaking, and a reading text as a model for the students' writing. This is common practice among teachers, and we will call it simple integration.



Here is an example of simple integration. The reading passage on the topic of introducing oneself serves as a model for the students' own writing.

My name is Jim Green. I live at 152 Jianguo Street, not far from the centre of the city. I have lived there since 1990. I go to Number 14 Middle School. I've been a student there for nearly two and a half years.

Now write about yourself in the same way.

3.2 Complex integration:

This involves constructing a series of activities that use a variety of skills. In each of the activities, there is realistic, communicative use of language.

For example, look at this sequence of activities:

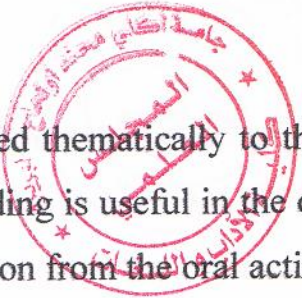
Reading activity: a poster giving information about an English Club



Oral activity: students make up a dialogue between the club secretary and a person who wants to join the club



Writing activity: students complete a membership application form for the English Club based on their partner's information



Notice how one activity is closely linked thematically to the next. The information that the students get from the reading is useful in the oral activity, while the writing activity is based on information from the oral activity.

4. The implications for teaching

1. Focus on discourse

As we noted earlier, integration of the four skills is concerned with realistic communication. This means that **we are teaching at the discourse level, not just at the level of sentences or individual words and phrases.** Discourse is a whole unit of communicative text, either spoken or written.

So, we need to be aware of the discourse features of a text and to be able to make students aware of them.

Discourse features include aspects such as:

- The way that the text is organized
- Its layout (for written text)
- The style of the language (formal or informal?)
- The register (the vocabulary that is commonly found in such discourse).

5. The limitations of integrating the four skills

1. It is not easy for teachers to maintain an appropriate balance between integration and separation.

While integrating the four skills can help the development of students' communicative competence we must not overlook the useful role that a separate focus on individual aspects of vocabulary, grammar and skills can play. If taught well, these aspects can accelerate the students' language

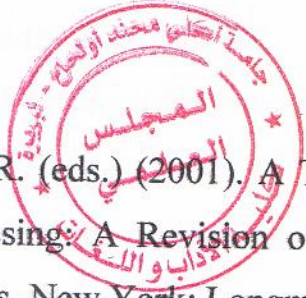


learning.

2. It is not easy to find or design suitable materials that take account of students' different skill levels.

The four skills tend to develop at a different pace: receptive skills are stronger than productive skills, for example. This means that teachers have to be skillful in selecting or designing integrated activities for their students.

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