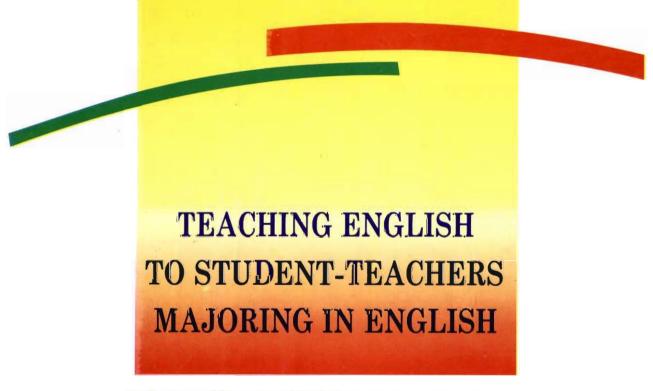
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و بالنربية نبني ... و بالنربية نبني ... Building Through Education



THE NATIONAL CENTER FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT

TEACHING ENGLISH TO STUDENT-TEACHERS MAJORING IN ENGLISH

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Introduction

Over the last few years, there has been a growing interest in many parts of the world in starting the teaching of English as a second/foreign language at an early age. This interest has brought to the fore many important issues, the most prominent of which is the need to determine specifically how curricula, instructional materials and methodology should differ from the familiar norms developed for teaching older learners. Clearly children are not miniature adults; therefore, the basic principles adopted in teaching them should be distinctly different from those applied with older learners. Unfortunately, comparatively little has been written on this issue; however, from the literature available it is possible to delineate certain basic principles concerning children's learning:

- 1 John Piaget (1955) demonstrated that children in elementary school are usually in what is called the concrete operational stage of cognitive development. This means that they learn through hands-on experiences and through manipulation of objects in the immediate environment. Children in the elementary school setting learn by doing. If this principle is extended to the EFL context, it means that children in language classes need to be active rather than passive; they need to be engaged in activities of which language is a part; they need to be working on meaningful tasks where the task itself responds to the child's urge to create language to accomplish an end. Thus, elementary teachers would do well to bear in mind this dictum: when the children touch, see, smell, hear and say, they learn.
- 2 The Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1962) postulated that children learn from each other in social contexts, especially in mixed ability groups where the above average student facilitates the learning of others by challenging them to go beyond their present level of understanding. Language develops and meaning is constructed as children work together both to be understood and to understand each other. Quite naturally, when students experiment with the new language, mistakes will occur, but these should be seen as a natural and inevitable part of the learning process. Indeed, mistakes demonstrate that children are testing out their understanding of how the language works. Putting this principle into practice implies that learners need to talk to each other and to have continuous language input. Another advantage of shared learning is that it creates an atmosphere of involvement and togetherness. Everyone enjoys the feeling of belonging, and this is particularly true of young children.
- 3 In planning teaching units, the teacher should aim at presenting various short self-contained segments that suit the children's limited attention spans. Variety in activities, pace, organization and voice is a must as it will help maintain children's attention and interest. Songs, music, rhythmic dancing, drawing, and acting out should be slotted into lessons as often as possible since they not only provide a change of pace, but also offer an opportunity for the children to let off steam following an extended sit-down activity. Moreover, activities of this nature are strongly in line with mainstream approaches which advocate the notion that learning is much more meaningful when it is fun and stimulating, and particularly when it takes place in a stress-free environment.

4 - In planning the physical surroundings, the teacher should aim at creating a senserich environment with illustrations and posters on the walls, realia (such as plants, animals, and personal objects brought from home), and direct access to TV, video and radio. This rich environment will increase the opportunity for peripheral/ incidental learning.

These generalizations form the underlying rationale for this course book which is intended for trainee teachers who will eventually work with students between the ages of six and fourteen. At this point it is important to underline the following key features which are dealt with in detail in the subsequent chapters of the book:

Skills Integration

Integrated language instruction provides the context for all the organizational and management techniques presented in this course book. By definition, an integrated classroom is a place where teachers do not consider reading, writing, listening, grammar and speaking as separate subjects. Instead, the skills are combined in such a way that they flow into and reinforce each other. Thus a grammar lesson might very well include a speaking component which focuses on the grammar point under study as well as on pronunciation, fluency, stress etc. Needless to say, a lot of listening will automatically take place at the same time as well as a reading/writing component where the children consolidate what they have learnt by engaging in various exercises and written assignments.

Integration can also take place across various subject matter areas, the idea being that the context and concepts presented in science and math can serve as a vehicle for presenting new language points. For example, the chapter on teaching grammar in this course book demonstrates an effective means of meshing English and Science by using the life cycle of a caterpillar to introduce/practise the simple present tense.

Reading

Obviously children need to develop their oral competencies before they turn their attention to the world of print. This implies that the teacher should begin by presenting a lot of stories using Big Books and engage children in shared reading experiences whereby they talk about the illustrations, develop prediction skills, answer questions about the story, talk about vocabulary and gradually come to understand the structure of stories. Once the story has been assimilated, the teacher can embark on intensive reading practice with the text per se. Print gradually becomes an important source of language input for children which enables them to expand and strengthen their knowledge. Books open up new worlds for them and making reading an enjoyable experience is a vital part of the language learning process.

In the beginning stages, children are asked to read aloud on an individual basis, but more often than not, this practice focuses their attention on pronunciation rather than on reading for meaning. As such, reading aloud, although inherently valid for specific purposes such as sharing poems and stories, should be gradually phased out to pave the way for much more focus on silent reading. Throughout the elementary cycle, teachers should endeavor to develop reading skills by allocating time to both intensive

and extensive reading practice. For this purpose a variety of stimulating readers should be made available in the class Reading Corner or in the school library. Extensive readers are invaluable in training children to cope with language at the i+1 level (Krashen 1981), i.e., language which is a little above the children's current level of competence. This implies that the child can achieve global meaning of the text without understanding every single word.

Writing

Writing can play a significant role in the children's development as it is a medium through which they can engage in genuine self-expression. Moreover, it helps them to consolidate learning in other skill areas such as reading and speaking. For example, reading helps the children to see the "rules" of writing and to build up the language necessary for subsequent free writing activities. Furthermore, writing activities allow for conscious development of language. In writing, children do not have the support of gestures or the social context that they do when it comes to speaking. Thus, they need to carefully select meaningful language structures and vocabulary in order for them to successfully convey a message. Finally, writing is inherently valuable in making the whole process of language learning enjoyable. The enormous pleasure children have when they see their work in print either on the class bulletin board or in journal writing is an attestation to that.

Reading and writing are processes that have much in common in that children's understandings about reading influence their developing understandings about writing, and vice versa. In the real world, reading and writing occur concurrently much of the time, and the development of print literacy occurs in a social context where oral interaction precedes the written medium. For children the elementary years can be a time of tremendous excitement and discovery in reading and writing which are considered two sides of the same coin: the attempt to construct meaning. Process writing lends itself especially well to helping the children move away from an egocentric world of writing where they focus on themselves and what they want to say to a more sophisticated level of audience-oriented writing where the child needs to consider who he is writing to and for what purpose. Although process writing is primarily student-centered with children writing about what is of most interest to them, getting feedback from their peers and teachers, and revising in light of this feedback raises their awareness of the importance of their audience. This kind of ongoing interaction not only provides a bridge to a larger social context, but also helps develop autonomous writers.

This book sets out to provide a viable teaching framework for trainee teachers who intend to teach English in the pre-secondary cycles. It is hoped that teachers will take time and effort to examine and apply the various principles, methods and activities proposed throughout the book. Since this is a first edition, any feedback from teachers and trainees will be appreciated.

The Authors

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CHAPTER ONE

Methods and Approaches to Foreign Language Teaching

This chapter is intended to introduce teacher-trainees to eight methods of foreign language (FL) teaching. The chapter focuses on the methods that have been practiced during the twentieth century. They include The Grammar Translation Method, The Direct Method, The Audio-Lingual Method, The Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, Total Physical Response, and The Communicative Approach. A basic goal behind choosing these methods is to introduce teacher-trainees to a range of methods that would enable them to make informed choices in their teaching.

The history of FL education is long and controversial. Consequently, the need exists for diversifying instruction by drawing on the valid elements of several methods rather than adopting one single method. Thus, teacher-trainees are encouraged to examine their current practices in the light of existing choices in order to adopt the methods, techniques, and activities that would best suit their abilities as well as their teaching situations.

Drawing on the works of such noted scholars as Larsen-Freeman (1986), Omaggio (1986), and Scarcella and Oxford (1992) this chapter provides an overview of the theoretical principles and techniques for the methods under consideration. It also outlines the procedures for incorporating the methods into classroom instruction and curricular planning.

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM)

An Overview of The GTM

The GTM is not a new method. It was first used to teach the classical languages, Greek and Latin. Later on, it was used during the twentieth century to help students develop mental acuity and appreciate literature as well as learn the vocabulary and grammar rules of the target language.

According to the GTM, the teacher is the center of authority. Students follow their teacher's instructions so that they may learn what the teacher knows. They learn by translating from one language to another. Grammar is learned deductively on the basis of general basis rules and examples. The students memorize the rules and then apply them to further examples. They also memorize the native language equivalents of vocabulary lists as well as practice learning grammatical paradigms such as verb conjugations.

In the GTM there is little interaction among students, if any. Most interaction is teacher-student in nature. The skills of reading and writing are considered primary and are emphasized at the expense of speaking and listening. Evaluation is achieved through translation, application of grammar rules, and question-answer exercises.

Theoretical Principles

The theoritical principles of the GTM can be summarized as follows:

- (a) Reading literature is the fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language. Literature reflects the culture of its language and literary language is superior to spoken language;
- (b) Successful language learning is measured by the ability to translate from the native language to the target language and vice versa;
- (c) Reading and writing are the primary skills that foreign learners need most;
- (d) The teacher is the center of authority in the class. He presents, explains, answers questions and corrects answers;
- (e) All languages are similar and learning is facilitated through attention to those similarities;
- (f) Learning about the form of the language is important;
- (g) Grammar is emphasized and should be learned deductively. Students should be conscious of the grammar rules when using the language;
- (h) Language learning leads to mental acuity.

Instructional Techniques

There are many instructional techniques associated with the GTM. What follows is a description of some of these techniques:

Translation of a Passage

This involves translating a reading passage from the target language (English) to the native language (Arabic). The passage is usually chosen from some literary work or any other English text, or it may be written by the teacher to emphasize particular grammar rules or vocabulary. The passage becomes a focus for learning grammar rules and vocabulary through further exercises.

Reading Comprehension Questions

This involves answering questions based on understanding the reading passage. The questions provide opportunities for knowing facts, drawing inferences, and drawing on personal experiences.

Antonyms/Synonyms

This involves providing students with a list of words and asking them to find their antonyms (opposites) or synonyms (equivalents) in the reading passage.

Cognates

Based on similarities between languages, students are taught to identify the spelling and sound patterns that correspond between languages. Students also memorize words that sound/look like words in the native language (cognates) but have different meanings in the target language.

Deductive Application of Rules

Students memorize grammar rules with examples. They apply the rules to different examples as well as note exceptions to those rules.

Fill-in-the-blanks

This involves completion of a series of sentences with missing words such as vocabulary items, or verbs with different tenses.

Use of words in sentences

Students show that they have understood the meaning of new vocabulary items by

making up sentences in which they use the new items.

Composition

This involves asking students to summarize the reading passage or to write a composition based on some aspect of the reading passage.

Procedure

The following procedure can be used as an organizing principle for developing lesson plans and curricular planning:

- (a) Choose a reading passage from target language literature. You may also develop your own passage to emphasize certain grammar rules and vocabulary.
- (b) Call on each student to translate a few lines from the passage from English into Arabic.
- (c) Ask students if they have any questions. Answer their questions using Arabic to give the meanings of different words.
- (d) Ask students to answer comprehension and inference questions about the reading passage. Students may write down their answers in English.
- (e) Students check their answers by reading each question and its answer. If the answer is incorrect, you may provide the right answer.
- (f) Ask the class to provide the native language equivalents to a list of vocabulary items taken from the reading passage. If no one knows the Arabic equivalents, give the right answer.
- (g) Ask students to give the antonyms of a list of words taken from the reading passage.
- (h) Give students certain grammar rules related to structures used in the passage with examples to clarify those rules. Ask students to find further examples in the reading passage.
- (i) Ask students to write a translation of the reading passage. They may also write a composition about a particular aspect of the reading passage.
- (j) Give students a quiz on the vocabulary and grammar of the lesson.
- (k) Encourage the students to look up the meanings of difficult words in the dictionary.

The Direct Method (DM)

An Overview of the DM

The DM is also an old method that has been used to teach FL for many years. However, it was revived recently as a result of a growing interest in learning FL for communicative purposes and for thinking in the target language.

According to the DM, both the teacher and students are partners in the teaching-learning process. Realia, pictures, and pantomime are used to teach new vocabulary items. These items are then practiced by using them in sentences.

In the DM, both the student and the teacher initiate classroom interaction. Language is primarily seen as an oral rather than a written phenomenon. Consequently, oral communication, pronunciation, and vocabulary are emphasized over grammar. The native language is not used and students are encouraged to express themselves in the target language only. Evaluation is achieved through testing

students' actual use of the target language. The topics of study relate to the history, geography, and daily life of the target culture. Student self-correction is encouraged whenever possible.

Theoretical Principles

The theoretical principles of the DM can be summarized as follows:

- (a) Language is primarily speech. Reading should be emphasized from the beginning of instruction, but it is developed through practice with speech. Culture is not only literature and fine arts, but is also history, geography, and values.
- (b) Meaning is best acquired through the use of realia and objects present in the learners' immediate environment.
- (c) The native language has no role in FL education.
- (d) Learning is most effective when direct associations are made between the target language and meaning. There is no translation.
- (e) Thinking in the target language can be achieved by building experiences in the target language. Vocabulary is best learned in context rather than by memorizing lists of words.
- (f) Correct pronunciation is necessary for effective communication. Therefore, it needs to be addressed from the beginning of instruction.
- (g) Language learning is facilitated through self-correction.
- (h) Active communication is the test of learning. Therefore, it should be encouraged as much as possible.
- (i) Writing is a developmental process. Therefore, it should be developed from the beginning of instruction along with speech and based on it.
- (j) Students learn best from a syllabus which is based on topics and situations rather than on linguistic structures.
- (k) Knowing about the lifestyle of the native language speakers of the target language is important.

Instructional Techniques

There are many instructional techniques associated with the DM. What follows is a description of some of these techniques:

Reading Aloud

The students read sections from a passage while the teacher explains what the students read through gestures, pictures, and realia.

Question and Answer Exercises

Using the target language, the students ask and answer questions. They answer in full sentences to practice new vocabulary items and grammatical structures.

Self-Correction

This involves making students self-correct their errors by making choices between two possible answers, repeating what the students have said in a questioning voice or stopping just before the error.

Conversation Practice

This involves using the target language to ask students questions about themselves or the content of the reading passage. Students may also ask each other such questions.

Dictation

This involves the teacher reading a passage aloud three times so that the students

may write it down. The passage is read in phrases, not word by word.

Map Drawing

This involves giving students directions to complete maps with unnamed features.

Paragraph Writing

This involves asking students to write a paragraph using their own words. The paragraph is based on the content of their readings.

Procedure

The following procedure can be used as an organizing principle for developing lesson plans and curricular planning:

- (a) Choose a reading passage and accompanying materials such as maps, posters, realia, etc.
- (b) Ask students to read aloud while you explain the content of the passage using the accompanying materials.
- (c) Ask if students have any questions and respond by drawing, acting out, and pointing to things in the immediate environment to clarify meaning.
- (d) Ask students questions on the content of what they have just read. Also, have students answer each other's questions about the reading passage.
- (e) Ask questions about students in the classroom to clarify the use of grammar rules and functions.
- (f) Give students a dictation passage.
- (g) Give exercises in labeling unnamed maps.
- (i) Have students write a composition based on what they have read.

The Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)

Overview of the Audio-Lingual Method

The Audio-Lingual Method was developed in the USA during War II. At that time, there was a great need to learn FL for military purposes. Consequently, the ALM, also known as the Army Method, aimed at using the target language for communicative purposes. The method emphasizes overlearning the target language in order to develop automaticity and overcome native language habits.

According to the ALM, the teacher controls the students' language behavior by providing good models for imitation. Students learn best by repeating after their teacher and by responding as quickly and as accurately as possible. They memorize and act out dialogues as well as learn new vocabulary and language structures. The method also lays emphasis on drills and positive reinforcement of correct responses. Grammar is introduced through model dialogues and cultural information is contextualized through the model dialogue. The skills of reading and writing are developed on the basis of verbal practice.

In the ALM, the teacher initiates most of the classroom interaction, but students interact with each other as they complete the drills. And as the proponents of the ALM believe that each language has a distinctive linguistic system, the structures of the target language are emphasized in addition to vocabulary items. These items are learned in the context of the dialogues rather than as separate lists. The skills of listening and speaking are emphasized, in addition to correct pronunciation, from the

beginning of instruction. The native language is considered as a form of interference and should not be used. However, contrastive analysis between the systems of the two languages is considered helpful in determining discrete point tests (objective tests mainly of the multiple choice type) in which students provide correct answers. There is also emphasis on predicting and preventing students' errors by controlling what the teachers teach them to say.

Theoretical Principles

The theoretical principles of the ALM can be summarized as follows:

- (a) Language forms occur in context and not by themselves.
- (b) The native and target languages have separate linguistic systems.
- (c) The teacher is a model to be imitated by students.
- (d) Language learning is a process of habit formation.
- (e) Errors can be predicted and prevented if corrected immediately. In this way learners can avoid the formation of bad habits (fossilization).
- (f) Communication is the main purpose of language learning.
- (g) Particular parts of speech occupy particular slots in sentences. Thus, new sentences can be created by learning which parts occupy which slots.
- (h) Positive reinforcement leads to good habit formation.
- (i) Both verbal and nonverbal stimuli are tools of language learning.
- (j) Each language has a finite number of patterns.
- (k) Overlearning helps develop automatic responses, and only through the developing of automatic responses can students develop fluency.
- (l) Learners' behaviors in the target language are affected by the kind of guidance provided by the teacher.
- (m) The major objective of language teaching is the acquisition of structural patterns. Vocabulary will be developed later.
- (n) Memorization of language rules is of little help in language learning. These rules could be figured out from examples.
- (o) A comparison of the structures of the native and target language will help identify the problem areas for instruction.
- (p) Speech is more basic to language than writing. The natural order hypothesis should be followed: listening, speaking, reading and finally writing.
- (q) Language and culture are intertwined. Culture is not only literature and fine arts but also the everyday behavior of the native speakers of the culture.

Instructional Techniques

There are many instructional techniques associated with the ALM. What follows is a description of some of these techniques:

Dialogue Memorization

This involves memorizing a conversation to practice certain grammatical points. Students may act out the conversations according to the following variations:

- * Student-Teacher
- * Student-Student
- * Half of the class-Half of the class.

Drilling

This involves practice of various types such as:

- (1) Repetition drills: Students repeat after the teacher as accurately as possible.
- (2) Substitution drills: Students repeat lines from dialogues substituting certain words provided by the teacher (cues) for words in the original lines.
- (3) Chain drills: Students form a conversation around the room by asking each other questions.
- (4) Transformation drills: Students transform sentences from the affirmative to the negative, and interrogative, or from direct to reported speech.
- (5) Expansion drills: Long lines are broken into several parts where the students repeat a part and then expand what they have repeated until they can reproduce the entire dialogue.
- (6) Question and answer drills: Students answer questions quickly to develop automaticity.

Use of Minimal Pairs

This involves practice in perceiving differences between similar words; for example, ship and sheep, ate and eight, and so forth.

Dialogue completion

This involves completion of a cloze-type exercise by erasing certain words from the dialogue and asking students to complete the dialogue by supplying the missing words.

Procedure

The following procedure can be used as an organizing principle for developing lesson plans and curricular planning.

- (a) Present a dialogue in the target language.
- (b) Explain the context of the dialogue.
- (c) Have the class repeat the dialogue after you (expansion drills, if necessary).
- (d) Act out the dialogue switching roles (chain drill).
- (e) Have students repeat one sentence and substitute words and phrases (substitution drills).
- (f) Ask students to change one type of sentence into another (transformation drills).
- (g) Work on differences among similar structures in the dialogue (minimal pairs).
- (h) Ask students to give the lines of a dialogue and write them on the blackboard.

The Silent Way (SW)

Overview of the Silent Way

The SW method was developed by Caleb Gattegno and was recognized as an FL method in the mid 1970s. The goals of this method center around helping language learners to become independent by encouraging them to express themselves as well as to develop inner criteria for correctness.

According to the SW, teaching should be subordinated to learning. Thus, learners should be responsible for their own learning; the teacher provides them only with needed information. The teaching-learning process emphasizes what the learners already know. Instruction is initiated through association of sounds in the learners' native language to a sound-color chart. The teacher sets up situations using rods to focus students' attention on structures. Students respond as the situation requires and their errors are considered as clues to where the target language is unclear. It is also believed that further learning takes place during relaxation and sleep.

In the SW, the teacher is very active setting up situations, and listening to students, but he/she remains silent most of the time. Interaction among students is encouraged where the teacher speaks only to give directions. In addition, the teacher conducts feedback sessions during which students express their feelings about their classes. All four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) are emphasized in addition to pronunciation. Translation is not allowed, but the native language is considered a resource because instruction should take into consideration what the learners already know. Evaluation is achieved through continuous assessment. Neither praise nor criticism is provided as students are encouraged to develop inner criteria for their progress. Errors are considered inevitable and a natural part of learning.

Theoretical Principles

The theoretical principles of the SW can be summarized as follows:

- (a) All languages share a number of features, sounds being the most basic. Instruction should start with and build on these common features.
- (b) Language learners are intelligent and need only basic help from the teacher.
- (c) Students learn best when they are responsible for their own learning.
- (d) Learners' actions indicate to the teacher whether they have learned or not.
- (e) Reliance on oneself and on classmates rather than on following models is the most effective mode of learning.
- (f) Helping students make use of what they already know helps them assume responsibility for their own learning.
- (g) Learning involves transfer of knowledge to new situations.
- (h) Reading is very basic in language learning. Therefore, it should be emphasized from the beginning of instruction. Furthermore, it should initially be based on what the students have learned to say.
- (i) Silence is an important tool to foster autonomy, take initiative, and encourage cooperation.
- (j) Focusing learners' perceptions helps students acquire meaning in a more efficient and lasting manner than through translation.
- (k) Errors are necessary for learning, and self-correction is the most effective way of dealing with them.
- (l) Language is for self-expression. Students' autonomy is fostered by exploring language and making choices.
- (m) The four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) reinforce one another.

Instructional Techniques

There are many techniques associated with the SW method. What follows is a description of some of these techniques:

Teacher's Silence

This involves the teacher maintaining silence unless it is necessary to provide help.

Peer Correction

Students help each other in a cooperative manner. The teacher monitors the class, but does not interfere.

Self-Correction

This involves the teacher using particular gestures such as putting palms together and then moving them outwards to lengthen the production of some vowels sounds.

Structured Feedback

This involves asking students for their observations about their classes.

Procedure

The SW method can not be implemented without the sound-color chart and colored rods. However, we may utilize such SW techniques as silence, peer correction, self-correction, and structured feedback.

Suggestopedia

An Overview of Suggestopedia

This method was developed by Georgi Lozanov in Bulgaria in the early 1980's. The method aims at accelerating the process of FL learning for everyday communication through developing mental powers and overcoming psychological barriers.

According to Suggestopedia, the teacher has authority and is trusted and respected by students. The teaching-learning process is facilitated through creating a relaxed learning environment. Thus, students assume new identities and occupations in the target language. They use target language dialogues accompanied by native language translations. Each dialogue is presented during two musical concerts. At night and on waking, the students read the dialogues and later on learn the new material through dramatization, songs, games, and question-answer exercises.

In Suggestopedia, the teacher initiates all interactions with the class. Students respond mostly nonverbally, but eventually they interact with each other as directed by the teacher. Great attention is given to students' feelings to make them develop confidence and success. Vocabulary and grammar are emphasized to promote communication, reading, and writing. Translation from the target to the native language helps students to clarify meaning. Evaluation is achieved through students' in-class performance, but there are no tests. Errors are not immediately corrected and are dealt with through providing models of correct forms.

Theoretical Principles

The theoretical principles of Suggestopedia can be summarized as follows:

- (a) Learning is facilitated if the learning environment is relaxed and comfortable.
- (b) Students can learn indirectly form the environment (peripheral learning).
- (c) Respect for teacher's authority and reduction of students' anxiety and psychological barriers help students increase their confidence.
- (d) Activation of students' imagination helps learning by allowing students to feel less inhibited.
- (e) Attention to the communication process rather than to the form of language facilitates learning.
- (f) Positive reinforcement is an integral part of successful instruction.
- (g) Translation into the native language helps clarify meaning.
- (h) Communication takes place at the conscious and subconscious levels. At the conscious level, the linguistic message is learned and at the subconscious level

- music suggests that learning is easy and pleasant.
- (i) Drama, music, and art reduce barriers to learning. Therefore, they should be integrated into instruction.
- (j) The content rather than the form of the message is the aim of teaching and learning. Therefore, errors should be tolerated.

Instructional Techniques

There are many techniques that are associated with Suggestopedia. What follows is a description of some of these techniques:

Classroom set-up

This involves arranging soft music, dim lights, comfortable chairs, and decorated walls to help students feel at ease.

Peripheral Learning

This involves using posters containing grammatical information and vocabulary to be learned unconsciously. The teacher may or may not draw the students' attention to the posters, and will change them from time to time.

Position Suggestion

This involves encouraging students by telling them that they will be successful or indirectly suggesting it by playing music while they sit in a comfortable physical environment.

Visualization

This involves asking students to close their eyes and concentrate on their breathing. The teacher then describes a scene or event in a quiet voice following which the students open their eyes and return to the present.

Choosing a New Identity

This involves choosing a new name and occupation. As the course progresses, students may develop a biography of the new identity.

Role-play

This involves asking students to assume the identity of someone and to perform in the target language playing a certain role. Students usually write their own lines.

Procedure

The following procedure can be used as an organizing principle for developing lesson plans and curricular planning:

- (a) Make the classroom as comfortable as possible: Cushioned armchairs, dim lights, soft music, posters, etc.
- (b) Greet the students in their native language and encourage them to approach the class confidently.
- (c) Play music and ask students to relax by closing their eyes and concentrating on their breathing.
- (d) Ask students to assume new identities and describe, in a quiet voice, a scene or event, and then ask students to open their eyes and return to the present (visualization).
- (e) Ask students to answer questions about their new identity and to create a dialogue or biography about the new identity.
- (f) Give students a dialogue with native language translation and explain the

- meanings of new vocabulary items.
- (g) Read the dialogue and have students relax and listen. Use music while reading.
- (h) Read the dialogue again at a normal rate while students close their eyes.
- (i) Greet the students and ask them to introduce themselves using their new identities.
- (j) Ask volunteer students to read the portion of the dialogue which corresponds to their new identities.
- (k) Ask students to dramatize the dialogue.
- (l) Ask questions about the dialogue in the target language. Also, ask students to translate from the native to the target language and vice versa.
- (m) Teach students a song in the target language to practice items related to the dialogue.
- (n) Play games with students to help them learn the target language. For example, form a semicircle and toss the ball to students asking them about their new names and identities.

Community Language Learning (CLL)

An Overview of CLL

This method takes its principles from the Counseling Learning Approach developed by Charles Curran who studied adult learning for many years. Curran proposed that learners, in general, and adult learners, in particular, feel threatened by new learning situations.

Thus, the goals of instruction should be focused on developing the learners' abilities to communicate in the target language non-defensively.

According to the CLL method, the teacher acts as a counselor who supports students to help them overcome their fear of new situations. Students are first dependent on the teacher's support, but they become increasingly independent. The teaching-learning process develops students' abilities to become secure, assertive as well as attentive to the target language and their experiences of learning it.

In the CLL method, classroom interaction is cooperative. Both the students and teacher initiate interaction and the students are encouraged to interact with each other independent from the teacher. The teacher should attend to the learners' feelings by helping them to overcome any negative feelings. Language is primarily seen as a means for interpersonal communication and creative thinking. The syllabus is largely student-based. Grammar and pronunciation points are emphasized, but reading and writing have a place as well. The native language is considered a source of instruction because it provides a feeling of security. Students first have conversations in the native language. These conversations are then translated into the target language and are used as a basis for subsequent activities. Evaluation is achieved through integrative tests, self-evaluation, and promoting awareness of one's own progress. Errors are corrected through modeling and other non-threatening measures.

Theoretical Principles

The theoretical principles of CLL can be summarized as follows:

(a) New learning experiences can be threatening. The teacher's superior knowledge and power can be threatening as well.

- (b) Language is communication.
- (c) Students are unique individuals and whole persons. Therefore, the teacher should listen to them and deal with them accordingly.
- (d) The native language may be used to clarify meaning.
- (e) Learning is facilitated by proper management of classroom activities.
- (f) Students learn best when encouraged, provided with time to reflect, and given a choice in what they practice.
- (g) Group work provides a sense of community, trust, and cooperation.
- (h) Learning takes place when the material is neither too new nor too familiar.

Instructional Techniques

There are several instructional techniques associated with the CLL method. What follows is a description of some of these techniques:

Tape-recording Student Conversation

This involves asking students to talk about anything they want using their native language. The teacher translates what the students say and gives them back the translation in manageable chunks. The students reproduce the translation of their conversations. The translated conversations are tape-recorded and may be replayed.

Transcription

The teacher transcribes recorded conversations to provide a basis for further activities such as writing the mother tongue equivalents beneath the target language words, copying the transcript, or saving it for further use.

Reflective Learning

This involves providing students with opportunities to reflect on the learning experience and their relationships with others. The teacher listens to students' reactions showing that he has understood the message. The students may also relax and listen to their own voices speaking the target language, or they may listen to their teacher reading the transcripts.

Human Computer

This involves the teacher repeating after students as the latter try to say words or phrases in the target language.

Group Work

This involves asking students to make new sentences using the words on the transcript. The groups may share their sentences with the class.

Procedure

The following procedure can be used as an organizing principle for developing lesson plans and curricular planning:

- (a) Greet students, introduce yourself, and have students introduce themselves in Arabic.
- (b) Tell students that the class will have a conversation in English with your help.
- (c) Ask students to say whatever they want in their native language (Arabic). Stand behind the students and translate whatever they say into English. Have the students repeat and tape-record the translations.
- (d) Ask students how they feel about the class.
- (e) Have students sit in a semi-circle and watch you as you write the translations on

the blackboard.

- (f) Read the translations three times as the students listen.
- (g) Tell the students that they may use you to practice the pronunciation of any language items (Human Computer).
- (h) Ask students to work in groups to create new sentences based upon the phrases they have transcribed.
- (i) Have the class talk about the experience.
- (j) Select a grammar point from the transcript and work on it with the class. For example, conjugate certain verbs in different tenses.
- (k) Have students work in small groups to take turns to read the dialogue. Students may use their native language (Arabic) as they read the dialogue.
- (l) Put posters on the blackboard and ask students some questions about them.
- (m) Have students create new dialogues based on the situations and new vocabulary that they have experienced.

Total Physical Response (TPR)

An Overview of TPR

This method is related to a relatively new approach to FL education, the "Comprehension Approach", which emphasizes listening comprehension. The TPR method aims at providing an enjoyable and stress-free environment for FL learning.

According to TPR, the teacher gives commands and the students follow by acting out the commands. Later on, other activities such as games and skits are introduced in humorous ways.

In the TPR method, the teacher interacts with both individual students and the entire class as a group. The teacher first gives commands and the students respond nonverbally. Later on, the students themselves issue commands to the teacher and each other. TPR observes students' feelings and strives to reduce the stress often associated with FL learning. Grammar and language structures are emphasized. They are introduced through imperatives. The native language is used to introduce the method, but it is rarely used later in the course. Meaning is clarified through action. Evaluation is achieved through observing students' actions as they perform a series of commands. Errors are expected and usually tolerated. Only major errors are corrected in an unobtrusive manner.

Instructional Techniques

There is one major technique in the TPR method: using commands. This technique involves giving students commands to perform certain activities which clarify the meaning of the commands to help students feel successful. Later on, the students perform the commands on thir own.

There are other TPR techniques:

Role Reversal

This is used as students develop proficiency so that they become ready to speak. Students give commands to their teacher and classmates.

Action Sequence

This is used when the students become more proficient. Instead of simple

commands, the teacher gives them a longer series of commands.

Procedure

The following procedure can be used as an organizing principle for developing lesson plans and curricular planning:

- (a) Introduce TPR in Arabic. Tell students that they will not speak at first and that they will just listen to commands and do actions along with the teacher.
- (b) Ask for volunteers to help you with the lesson and tell them to come to the front of the room.
- (c) Give student volunteers some commands in English and act out the commands with them. Examples of commands may include: **Stand up**, **Sit down**, **Jump** and so forth.
- (d) Give the commands once again but remain seated. You may ask individual volunteers to perform the actions.
- (e) Ask students who were observing (did not volunteer) to perform some commands.
- (f) Introduce new commands once you are satisfied that the class has mastered the old ones. Examples of the new commands may include: Point to the door, Point to the chair behind the desk and so forth.
- (g) Practice a variation of the commands.
- (h) Write the commands on the blackboard and have students copy them.
- (i) Have students give commands when they feel comfortable doing so.

The Communicative Approach

An Overview of the Communicative Approach

The Communicative Approach aims at developing students' competencies in language usage and use. It considers that the mastery of language, vocabulary and grammar rules is not enough to ensure effective communication. This is because communication takes place in a social context. Consequently, the goals of the Communicative Approach center around helping students to use the language appropriate for given situations.

According to the Communicative Approach, the teacher facilitates students' learning by managing classroom activities and setting communicative situations. The students should be actively engaged in making and sharing meaning. Consequently, classroom activities should be highly communicative. Students usually work in small groups to fill information gaps and communicate with their partners.

In this method, the teacher initiates interaction among students. Students then interact with each other. Motivation is fostered through establishing meaningful purposes for using the target language. Both students' individuality and cooperation with peers are encouraged to develop a sense of security in using the target language. The functions of language are emphasized over forms, but all the language skills (listening, speaking reading, and writing) are emphasized from the beginning of instruction. The native language is not usually used. Evaluation is achieved through informal communication with students and formally through integrative tests with a real communicative function.

Theoretical Principles

The theoretical principles of the Communicative Approach can be summarized as

follows:

- (a) Use of authentic language in instruction helps motivate students.
- (b) Language is for communication, not just a subject of study.
- (c) Group work maximizes opportunities for communication.
- (d) Errors are natural and should be tolerated.
- (e) Meaning is influenced by the social context and roles of the interlocutors.
- (f) The teacher should act as facilitator during communicative activities.

Instructional Techniques

There are several instructional techniques associated with the Communicative Approach. What follows is a description of some of these techniques:

Authentic Materials

This involves using authentic materials such as newspapers and magazine articles, radio and television broadcasts as a source for language instruction.

Scrambled Sentences

This involves restoration of a series of scrambled sentences into their original order.

Language Games

This involves using language games to maximize communication on the principles of information gaps, making choice, and providing feedback. Students work together to complete certain tasks of their choice.

Note: There are other techniques associated with the Communicative Approach such as the picture strip story and role-play. These techniques are similar to those already described in Suggestopedia.

Procedure

The following procedure can be used as an organizing principle for developing lesson plans and curricular planning:

- (a) Give students a handout containing writing from a recent English newspaper, magazine, etc. (authentic materials).
- (b) Ask students to read the handout and underline whatever predictions, reasons, examples, propositions etc. the writer makes.
- (c) Ask students to read what they have underlined.
- (d) Write what the students have underlined on the blackboard.
- (e) Ask students to express what is on the blackboard in a different way.

Note: Other activities associated with the Communicative Approach may include working in groups to rearrange scrambed sentences as well as act out certain roles (role-play).

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CHAPTER TWO

Teaching Grammar

Aims of the unit:

- To make teachers more aware of the place of grammar in language teaching.
- To show teachers that learning grammar involves the isolation and examination of both form and function.
- To train teachers to conduct the presentation, mechanical/meaningful practice and communicative output stages of a grammar lesson.
- To help teachers identify meaningful situations through which they can present various grammatical structures.

This unit does not set out to provide a comprehensive list of all the types of grammar presentation techniques and exercises available to the teacher, but rather aims at suggesting workable techniques that provide learners with exposure to grammatical structures in the context of meaningful communication. Basically, it puts forth an eclectic approach to grammar teaching in that it draws on both traditional and modern methodology, while at the same time, taking into consideration the specific needs and interests of the Lebanese student body.

A - A Definition of Grammar

Grammar could be defined as a set of rules used to manipulate words or parts of words in order to form larger units of meaning. A person who "knows" these rules can apply them to express himself or herself in an acceptable fashion. Knowledge of these rules can be either implicit (unconscious) or explicit (conscious). However, knowing a language involves much more than simply manipulating these rules. Above all grammar involves conveying meaning.

B - The Place of Grammar in Language Teaching

In recent years there has been much discussion about whether grammar rules can best be learned intuitively (absorbed) from "communicative" activities or through grammar exercises. While communication is the target behavior (goal) of language learning, this does not mean that imitation of the final target behavior is necessarily the only, or even the best way to reach that goal. Given the time and motivational constraints of the classroom, a systematic approach to teaching the various components of language, grammar being one of them, may be the most efficient approach.

It is important, however, to bear in mind that while grammar may provide the basis for a set of classroom activities where the focus is **temporarily** on the learning of grammar, this learning should be seen as only one of the **means** for mastering the language. We should move quickly from grammar practice to activities where grammar is used meaningfully. These activities should be superseded by general fluency practice where the emphasis is on communication, and grammar then becomes incidental to the pursuit of communication.

Teachers need not attempt to teach all the grammatical properties of the English language. Rather, they should focus on those grammatical features which have proved

teachable and learnable. Teachers should determine student needs and goals carefully and constantly evaluate the teachability and learnability of the grammatical features that they present to students in class.

According to Scarcella and Oxford (1992) "For beginning ESL learners, teachers select the most basic rules of English grammar and the most common exceptions to these general rules. Whenever possible, they teach common patterns or systems that work for nearly all students all the time. (For instance, when teaching students how to use noncount nouns, they provide such generalizations as 'Use noncount nouns to refer to particles too small to count, such as hair, sugar, rice, and sand; also use noncount nouns to refer to liquids such as gas, lemonade, coffee, and tea. The grammatical structures teachers present should have immediate use to students in daily interactions. The patterns include: sentence structures (such as declarative, whquestions, and tag questions such as That's your friend, isn't it?, filler subjects (it and there), adverbs, (very, too, and enough), prepositions (such as in, on, at), articles (the, a, an), quantifiers (such as some, many), proper and common nouns (Mr. Sharif, chair), noncount nouns (love, hate), count nouns (table, chair), pronouns (he, she, it), verb tenses (present/past) and aspect (present perfect/present progressive), coordination (so, or, and), subordination (with, because), modal auxiliaries (such as can, may, must, will, and would), and two-and three word verbs (such as I walked out on him)."

Grammar is rarely taught in isolation. It is more meaningful if it is integrated with other language skills. For example, students can be asked to focus on a particular structure in a writing assignment. A student asked to write about his childhood would quite naturally make use of 'used to' and other past tenses. In reading, students can be given cloze passages which focus on specific grammar points (see appendix A). The possibilities are endless; the message we wish to convey is that Grammar is not simply learning a finite set of rules. It is much more than that. Grammar is meaning, but it only takes on real meaning and value when it is used in conjunction with other language skills.

C - Learning Grammar

Learning grammar involves, in addition to meaning, being aware of the form and function of language. A learner needs to know how to construct a grammatical form such as "Would you like to go?" (Inverted modal + pronoun + infinitive). However, knowledge of this alone does not constitute a sound basis for using the language. What is needed is a basic understanding of the function of this utterance. In this case, the function is to INVITE a person to do something. Most grammar textbooks available on the market emphasize structures and forms. Where they often fall short is in the area of matching form to function. Given the fact that students ultimately need to be able to use the language, it clearly follows that teachers should allot adequate time to the examination of the various functions of specific utterances.

Another complex issue in teaching grammar is deciding what grammar point to teach and how long to spend on a structure. Some structures in the target language may be close to the native language and are relatively easy to learn or they may be different but not too difficult. Some structures are both different and very difficult to learn. Some forms, such as the articles, are fairly simple but difficult to learn to use correctly. In addition, students need to be able to recognize and produce a structure in both spoken and written form. Both form and meaning are important for all four skills.

D - Organizing the Teaching of Grammar

- (a) **Presentation:** The structure is usually presented in a meaningful context such as a dialogue, short reading passage, mime or picture to provide context and to illustrate both form and meaning.
- (b) **Isolation and Explanation:** The focus is now on the grammatical items themselves, their sound/symbol relationship, their meaning and their function, i.e., the **rules.** Students may work out a rule either inductively (moving from specific to general) or deductively (moving from general to specific).
- (c) **Practice:** A series of oral or written exercises is conducted to transfer the knowledge from short-term to long-term memory. The following three groups of exercises progress from exercises that emphasize form to exercises in which both form and meaning are emphasized to, exercises which emphasize meaning over form

Group 1: Exercises which emphasize form.

i. Slot-fillers

e.g. He is.....boy. We have.....umbrella. (a, an)

Answer: He is a boy. We have an umbrella.

ii. Transformation

e.g. This is a woman. (put into the plural)

Answer: They are women.

Group 2: Exercises which stress form, get involve meaning.

iii. Slot-filling (open)

e.g. Last night we.....television.

Answer: Last night we watched television.

iv. Matching

e.g.	Не		an animal
	I	is	soldiers
	She	are	a woman
	The men	am	a student
	A dog		a soldier

Answer: He is a soldier, etc.

Group3: Exercises which stress the production and comprehension of **meaning** with non-linguistic tasks while keeping an eye on the structures being manipulated.

Modals i. Using the modals may. might, could, should. etc., to address some kind of dilemma or situation.

- ii. Making up stories using the past tense.
- (d) Communicative Practice: The emphasis is on using pretaught structures in activities that provide information gaps, choice, and feedback in <u>meaningful</u> situations.
- (e) Feedback and Testing: The main objective of tests is to provide <u>feedback</u> on progress. Much testing is done informally and on an ongoing basis during classtime particularly on practice activities. Formal tests are only one kind of evaluation. In addition to formal tests, much "testing" and evaluation is done informally by the teacher during practice.

E – **Presentation Techniques**

New grammatical structures can be presented in a number of ways:

1. A situation in which the structure naturally occurs, e,g., Your friend is very fat. Give her some advice:

You should

go on a diet.

see a doctor.

cut down on chocolates.

have light meals.

- 2. Mime. Describe past events via mime, e,g., Last night I —
- 3. Maps, blacboard drawings. Draw a map of a city on the board. Give students instructions to reach a particular place.
- 4. A dialogue. Listen to a dialogue and identify the phrases used to express apology.
- 5. A time line. Draw a time line on the blackboard as follows:

1974	1980	1984	1987	1993	1994
*	*	*	*	*	
born	school	move house	travel abroad	graduate from	start university
				high school	

Use the cues on the time line to present the simple past, past continuous or past perfect tenses.

- 6. A picture. Use pictures which show present events, e.g., show students a picture in which several things are happening at the same time, i.e., a party scene, a football match, a fire, etc.
- 7. Realia. Bring simple, inexpensive objects and use them for different purposes such as making comparisons, describing shapes, telling the time, etc.
- 8. <u>Diagrams, charts.</u> A personal family tree provides excellent visual focus for the description of family relationships using the possessives. (Nabil is Hani's uncle, etc).
- 9. A short reading passage. Students read and identify the form that is used to describe future events (will or going to.)
- 10. The immediate environment. The classroom environment is perhaps the richest source a teacher can draw on for presentation purposes, i. e., prepositions, objects, spatial relationships, clothes, color, size, shape, mood, manner, the texture of objects, can all be presented using the classroom environment itself.

F. Mechanical/Meaningful Practice

During this stage the teacher can organize practice by using drills (see Appendix B) and oral exercises in moderation. Some of the standard oral exercises in textbooks can easily be made more meaningful by using personalization and localization. According to Harmer (1986), the aim of personalization and localization is to get students to use recently-acquired language to say things about themselves, their lives and things they know. It is recommended at this stage that the teacher prompt the use of additional remarks and follow-up questions in order to ensure realistic social talk and communication. (See Appendix C). Once the students can manipulate the new structure with about 80% accuracy, the teacher should move into the communicative output stage.

G. Communicative Output

This stage consists of exposing students to native speaker use of grammatical structures in a host of activities including role plays, simulations, ranking, values

clarification, problem solving and cooperative activities. The teacher invites learners to use the grammatical structures they have studied in purposeful communication by creating authenthic communicative activities which have the following features: information gap, choice and feedback. (see Appendix D).

An information gap exchange implies that the listener has information unknown to the speaker and vice-versa. Thus the speaker needs to communicate in order to bridge the information gap and acquire the needed information. Once the need to communicate has been established, the speaker has to make a CHOICE in terms of the language he uses to get the required information. To communicate effectively, he not only decides on **what** to say but on **how** to say it. Naturally, his choice of what is considered appropriate language will depend on the context and speakers involved. If the speaker communicates successfully, the listener will provide feedback, i.e., provide the required information through speech or gesture.

This is the most crucial stage; teachers relinquish control and allow students to focus on the task of conveying a message. Thus, the emphasis is on the fluency of the message rather than on its accuracy. Errors are to be ignored if the speaker successfully completes the task irrespective of the accuracy of the language used. The basic objective is to allow learners to act as joint decision-makers and to let the grammar emerge naturally from authentic tasks requiring meaningful communication (see Appendix E for a sample of an authentic communicative activity).

H. Follow-up

New structures need to be systematically recycled so that they become an integral part of the students' active repertoire. What is important is that the teacher devise activities in such a way as to ensure that students are given the opportunity to revise newly-acquired structures through a different medium, e.g., a song which features the conditional if could be presented a short time after a unit on the conditional has been presented and practised. Language games and skits have proven to be quite effective for use in the recycling process (see Appendix F).

I. Model Grammar Lesson

Title: The Balanced Activities Approach in the teaching of the simple present tense.

Level: Lower elementary.

Unit: Simple present tense via the life cycle of the butterfly.

Instructional goal: The goal of this unit is to familiarize the students with the use of the simple present tense.

Performance Objectives: By the end of this unit, students should be able to:

- 1. Identify the correct sequence of the stages in the life of a butterfly.
- Draw, cut and color leaves, eggs and butterflies to enhance their motor abilities.
- 3. Design a fantasy animal and make up a story describing its habits.
- 4. Justify the use of the simple present tense in this particular context.
- 5. Use the simple present tense in meaningful sentences.
- 6. Use the vocabulary words associated with the life cycle of the butterfly.
- 7. Create new sentences emphasizing the vocabulary already used.

Rationale:

This lesson aims at presenting the grammatical structure in an authentic context

in which it naturally occurs. At the same time, it bridges the gap between the various school disciplines by relating English to Science.

Materials used:

Chart, badges, cardboard, crayons, scissors, eggs, leaves, green felt pens, stapler, cotton wool, fasteners, instruction cards, picture story packs, fantasy animal packs, animal badges.

Lesson Outline

- 1. Elicit/supply new vocabulary. Spotcheck the following meaningsl/concepts in Arabic (if applicable): eggs, caterpillar, leaf, cocoon, fat, butterfly.
- 2. Draw, cut, color, make a leaf, egg, butterfly, cocoon, caterpillar, caterpillar inside a cocoon.
- 3. Identify the object you have made.
- 4. Listen to a picture story.
- 5. Listen and raise the object you have made when you hear its name mentioned.
- 6. Repeat (choral/individual).
- 7. Jigsaw Teaching/Learning (experts teach others their part).
- 8. Picture story packs: pick up, say line, monitor teammates' pronunciation, put picture in sequence.
- 9. Dictate story to teacher.
- 10. Examine form and function.
- 11. Distribute animal badges: giraffe, elephant, monkey.
- 12. Expand vocabulary (live, eat, grow, change, etc..)

 Share information: what you know about the habits of the animal on your badge.
- 13. Fantasy animal: arrange pieces

reach a consensus

give your animal a name

- 14. Make up a story about your fantasy animal.
- 15. Share stories with the rest of class.
- 16. Write stories (group effort: write, edit as a group).
- 17. Homework: Find out five new facts about the animal on your badge. Ask Mummy and Daddy; use an encyclopedia with parents' help.
- 18. Give a report of findings in the next grammar class.

Procedure

- Step 1: a. Break the class up into six teams.
 - b. Distribute animal badges to each group.
 - c. Put up the chart of the life cycle of a butterfly on the blacboard (see Appendix G).
- Step 2: Give instruction cards and materials to each team.

Team A: Draw, cut and color an egg.

Team B: Cut and color leaves.

Team C: Cut, color a caterpillar.

Team D: Make a cocoon.

Team E: Make a caterpillar and a cocoon. Put the caterpillar inside the cocoon.

Team F: Cut and color a buterfly.

Step 3: Ask students to identify items on chart: What is this?

egg

caterpillar

leaf

cocoon

butterfly

Step 4: Ask students to tell you what they have got.

an egg

a leaf

a caterpillar

a cocoon

a caterpillar in a cocoon

a butterfly

Step 5: Ask students to listen. I'm going to tell you a story (Point to pictures in chart as you tell the story)

- comes from an egg

eats leaves

A caterpillar: - grows big and fat

builds a cocoon

 stays in the cocoon for two weeks becomes a butterfly

Step 6: Repeat the story. I am going to say this again.

When you hear the name of an object you have, hold it up.

Step 7: Repeat each line.

Individual teams chorus.

Step 9: Now, all the students are experts on one part of the story: teach others what you already know applying the Jigsaw method. One member of each group will be grouped with one member of the other groups. He will teach his line, learn the others, come back and teach the members of his home team.

Remove the chart.

Step 10: Distribute picture story packs to each team.

Ask them to 1. Put them on the table face down.

- 2. Pick up one picture: say the line.
- 3. Put pictures in story order.
- 4. Help each other with pronunciation.

Step 11: Ask students to dictate the story of the caterpillar.

Write it on the blackboard.

Step 12: Explain the existence of the letter "s" at the end of the verb. When does it happen? Only now? Only yesterday? Always.

Step 13: Distribute an animal badge to each students. Ask students to think of some good verbs to use to describe what the animals do: (expanding vocabulary)

live sleep grow build eat make die stay move change come from become

Step 14: Distribute cut-up pieces of different animals. The students should arrange them to form a fantasy animal in a way which all members of the group like. They should use all the pieces and give the animal a name. (see Appendix H). Make up a story about your fantasy animal using the verbs you already used to describe the life cycle of a butterfly and to talk about the animal badges.

1 - Assignments and Discussion Questions for Trainee-Teachers

- 1. Identify a variety of high-frequency language structures appropriate for the elementary level. e.g., I can, I'd like, Will you?
- 2. Provide a list of language functions, e.g. apologizing, requesting, describing past events, finding the way, etc.
- 3. Match the structures in (1) to the functions in (2).

 Match the sentences with their functions as in the example. Do as many as you can and then check your answers in the dictionary.

a) accuse	b) beg	c) apologize
d) confess	e) warn	f) deny
g) advise	h) promise	i) forgive
j) agree	k) exaggerate	l) threaten
13 1 11337 14	. 11 11 72 42 1 2	

11. ——"You're right."
12. ——"I'm sorry."
Taken from **Vocabulary Builder 2** by Bernard Seal.

- 4. Think of an authentic situation in which you would use <u>I've got</u>. Design a repetition/single word/prompt/free substitution/picture prompt drill to practise this structure. Prepare the materials needed and present the drills to your classmates (see Appendix B).
- 5. Language teachers try to use objects in their immediate environment to present new grammatical structures. Look around you right now as you read this question. Identify at least 5 objects you could use as realia (actual classroom objects) to teach a specific grammatical point.
- 6 . Select a grammar point you would like to teach elementary students. Look it up in a grammar reference book and check to see that you know the function of this grammatical structure. Plan a grammatical lesson following the model described: The Balanced Activities approach in the teaching of the simple present.

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Appendix A

Acting is such an over-crowded profession that the only advice that should be given to a young person thinking of going on the stage is 'Don't!' But it is useless (1) try to discourage someone (2) feels that he must (3) ,although the chances of his becoming (4) are small. The normal (5) to begin is to (6) to a drama school.

Usually (7) students who show promise and (8) are accepted, and the (9) lasts two years. Then (10) young actor or actress takes (11) work with a repertory company, (12) as an assistant stage manager. (13) means doing everything that (14) is to do in the (15): painting scenery, looking after the (16), publicity, taking care of the costumes, (17) even acting in very (18) parts. It is very (19) work; indeed, the hours are (20) and the salary is (21). But young actors with the stage in their blood are happy, waiting for the chance of work with a better company, or perhaps in films or television.

Appendix B.

Drilling

Aim: To teach students to talk about past habits

Presentation:

Give a situation. You and your family are now very poor. You remember that when you were younger life was wonderful because you still had a lot of money. Reminisce with your students about the good old days.

Write up a sample sentence e.g. We used to be rich.

REPETITION DRILL

T: We used to go to movies.

Ss. We used to go to movies.

T: We used to eat chocolate.

Ss. We used to eat chocolate, etc.

SINGLE WORD PROMPTS

T: travel abroad

Ss. We used to travel abroad.

T: eat nice food

Ss. We used to eat food. etc.

SUBSTITUTION DRILL

T: You don't watch TV anymore

Ss. We used to watch TV.

T: You wear old clothes now.

Ss. We used to wear new clothes etc.

FREE SUBSTITUTION

Students make up their own

sentences, e.g.:

We used to get nice presents.

go to the cinema.

etc.

PICTURE PROMPT

Students make sentences when cued with a picture prompt, e.g. We used to go swimming.











Appendix C.

Personalization and Localization

We can now look at three examples of personalization and localization stages, bearing in mind the truth factor and the need for the teacher to make additional remarks and ask follow-up questions, etc.

(a) Personalization Plans

In this case students have recently learnt the use of the present continuous to express future plans (e.g. 'He's going to Rome tomorrow').

The teacher then asks students what they are doing, for example, during the weekend and they give sentences using the present continuous. For example:

T: What are you doing this weekend, Maher?

S1. I'm visiting my grandmother in the village.

T. Oh really... When are you leaving?

S1: Early on Saturday morning.

The teacher then gets students to ask each other questions of the same type (making sure they use follow-up questions in the same way as he did). They can work in pairs or groups to do this.

This type of personalization may form an immediate creativity stage or it may be used at some stage after students have learnt the new item of language.

(b) Localization: Beirut

Students are learning English in Beirut, Lebanon. They have recently learned how to talk about the location of places (e.g. 'There's a cinema on South Street', etc).

The teacher then gets students to ask and answer questions about Beirut in a similar way:

T: Ok... well... is there an airport in Beirut?

St: Yes... of course.

T: Where is it exactly?

St: It's in the southern suburbs... about 10 kilometres from the city center, etc.

Students are then encouraged to ask and answer questions of the same type, and they are put in pairs to do so. Once again this activity could be used as an immediate creativity stage, but it would also be suitable for language practice sometime after the new language has been introduced.

(c) Social talk

This refers to the stage at which the students discuss themselves and/or topics of current interest in a relaxed way. Originally it may be teacher-directed, but students who are used to this kind of activity in English will soon be eager to handle it on their own.

A way of organizing this activity is to single out a student for personalization and localization (refer to those stages of practice where students use language they have recently learnt to say things about themselves or about things they know). The use of

personalization and localization can be extremely controlled or extremely free. Before we look at examples of these techniques we can make a few general comments.

1. The truth factor in personalization: The aim of personalization and localisation is to get students to use recently learnt language to make their own, real sentences. In other words it is not just accuracy that we are after, but the use of grammatical/functional knowledge to say things that have genuine meaning for the students. One way of doing this is to ensure (within limits) that the students make true statements. If they do, they will be forced to select language which is appropriate for the this condition. Students who make true statements about their lives or about, for example, the place they live in, will thus not simply be constructing grammatically correct sentences; they will be conveying real meaning.

Of course it is not being suggested that we should insist on truth where students are reluctant to talk about themselves.

2. Follow-up questions and real answers: Language teaching materials in general tend to give students a highly grammatical (and not very real) idea of how questions are asked and answered. Students practice questions such as 'Do you smoke?' and are expected to answer 'Yes I do/No I don't'.

Even worse are textbook drills such as the following, Where's Jamal?, 'Jamal's in the kitchen'.

It has been suggested, however, that answers to questions in real life are seldom grammatically parallel to the questions. The answer to a question such as 'Are you happy?' is seldom 'Yes I am/No I'm not'. Much more likely are responses such as 'More or less', 'Can't complain' or even 'Why do you ask?'.

Teachers should encourage this type of response and a way of doing so is to insist on an additional remark being made. This means that where a student gives a yes/no type answer he must then add a comment to it. The following example shows such a remark prompted:

T: Do you like swimming?

St: Yes.

T: Yes... and?

St: Yes... I go every Sunday.

Another feature of conversation is that people rarely ask a question, get an answer, and then finish the conversation (although many textbook drills are like this). The following exchange, therefore, is unlikely:

Ghazi: Hello. Rola. Have you been to the movies recently?

Rola: Yes I have.

(Ghazi walks away)

The conversation would be more likely to run in one of the following ways:

Ghazi: Have you been to the movies recently?

Rola: Yes, actually or no... no I haven't

Ghazi: What did you see? Really. Don't you like films?

Rola: Oh... I saw Beauty and the Beast Yes, but I don't have the time to go to the

cinema.

Ghazi: Hadn't you seen it before?

Why?

It's been out for ages.

etc.

etc.

In other words Ghazi's original question starts a conversation which he continues by asking questions which follow up the answer to the original 'question'! The idea is to get students to ask each other as many questions as they know, for example:

T: OK Samer... ask Jinan about yesterday evening.

S1: What did you do yesterday evening, Jinan?

S2: I went to the supermarket.

(Pause)

T: Well Samer...

S1: Oh... Why?

S2: Because I needed some things.

S3: What did you buy?

S2: Eggs... meat... that kind of thing... etc.

The supermarket may not be very exciting as a topic for social conversation of this type, but of course the topic will depend on the students. In this example, the teacher was controlling the proceedings, even to the extent of encouraging Jinan to use a follow-up question. But the advantage of this kind of whole-class conversation is that the teacher may, if he thinks it is necessary, intrude with prompting and gentle correction and get a good idea of how the students are progressing with language recently used for conscious learning.

Any subject of current interest can be used for such a session and it is suitable for the beginning of classes, particularly, where it will serve to warm the class up.

Personalization and localization, then, are techniques for getting students to practise language in a way that ensures appropriate language use. Students have to be able to make the connection between the grammar that they have learnt and the way to apply it to things that have real meaning for them. Personalization and localization are useful for various stages of practice, for they require students to produce creative utterances.

Adapted from The The Practice of English Language Teaching by Jeremy Harmer.

Appendix D

Communicative Acts

What are some characteristics of the teaching/learning process?

The most obvious characteristic of the Communicative Approach is that almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent. Students use the language a great deal through communicative activities such as games, role-plays, and problem-solving tasks (see discussion of these in the review of techniques).

Activities that are truly communicative, according to Morrow (1981; cited in Larsen-Freeman 1986, p. 132) have three features: information gap, choice, and feedback.

An information gap exchange presents something by one person that another person doesn't know. If we both know today is Tuesday and I ask you, "What is today?" and you answer, "Tuesday," our exchange isn't really communicative.

In communication, the speaker has a choice of what he will say and how he will say it. If the exercise is tightly controlled so that students can only say something in one way, the speaker has no choice and the exchange, therefore, is not communicative. In a chain drill, for example, if a student must reply to her neighbor's question in the same way as her neighbor replied to someone else's question, then she has no choice of form and content, and real communication does not occur.

True communication is purposeful. A speaker can thus evaluate whether or not her purpose has been achieved based upon the information she receives from her listener. If the listener does not have an opportunity to provide the speaker with such feedback, then the exchange is not really communicative. Forming questions through a transformation drill may be a worthwhile activity, but it is not communicative since a speaker will receive no response from a listener. He is thus unable to assess whether his question has been understood or not.

Another characteristic of the Communicative Approach is the use of authentic materials. It is considered desirable to give students an opportunity to develop strategies for understanding language as it is actually used by native speakers.

Finally, it should be borne in mind that activities in the Communicative Approach are often carried out by students in small groups. Small numbers of students interacting are favored in order to maximize time allotted to each student for learning to negotiate meaning.

Taken from Techniques and Principles in Language Learning by Diane Larsen-Freeman.

Appendix E

Back to Back

Aims: Skills: speaking, listening comprehension.

Language: descriptive sentences (clothes, appearance).

Stating whether something is right or wrong.

Other: observation, memory.

Level: Lower Elementary

Organisation: Pairs.

Preparation: Cassette recorder with music tape or radio.

Time: 10 - 20 minutes.

Procedure:

Step 1: While the music is playing or the teacher is clapping, everybody walks around the room observing other people's clothes, hairstyle, etc. As soon as the music stops, each student pairs up with the person standing nearest and they stand back to back. Taking turns, each of them makes statements about the other's appearance, e.g. Student A: 'I think you're wearing blue jeans'. Student B: 'That's not right. My trousers are blue, but they aren't jeans' etc.

Step 2: After a few minutes the music starts again and all partners separate. When the music stops a second time, the procedure described in Step 1 is repeated with a different partner. Three or four description phases are sufficient.

Variations:

A student is allowed to keep making statements as long as they are correct. As soon as he mentions something that is wrong, it is his partner's turn to start describing him.

Taken from Keep Talking by Fredrick Klippel.

Appendix F

Games

Most ESL teachers agree that games are excellent learning activities for children. From our experience, we know that well planned games can teach and reinforce grammar points very successfully if the activities are geared to students' proficiency, age, experience, and are presented in a challenging manner.

'The Treasure Hunt' is the first game we suggest because it can be used successfully with elementary students. For this game, which elicits communicative practice of imperatives and potentially all types of questions (yes/no, wh, alternative), the teacher first divides the class into groups of three. (In a large class students could form groups of four or five.) Each group is given a small picture of a pot of gold – or some other appropriate 'treasure' – with the group's number written on it in large script. The group is also given a thumb tack or a strip of masking tape and asked to select one of its members for a very important task.

The group members who have been selected for the important task step outside the room with the teacher and are told to hide the pot of gold in some secluded but accessible location at least thirty paces away from the classroom door. At this stage they should be instructed only to find a very good hiding place for the treasure as quickly as possible and return to the classroom.

Once all class members in charge of hiding the treasure have returned, they are told to rejoin their groups but to say nothing until further instructed. They are then told to give careful oral instructions to the other group members as to exactly where they must go to find their group's treasure. These instructions should be verbal only. No maps, gestures, or written notes are allowed. The other group members may ask as many questions as they wish. The one who hides the treasure must tell the others how to get from the classroom to the hiding places, not simply where it is.

The teacher should point out that English speakers typically use imperatives and a variety of question types to give instructions and gather information. Appropriate models should be provided:

S1: Go out the door and walk down the hallway.

S2: Should we turn left or right when we leave?

S1: Left, but then go right at the first corridor.

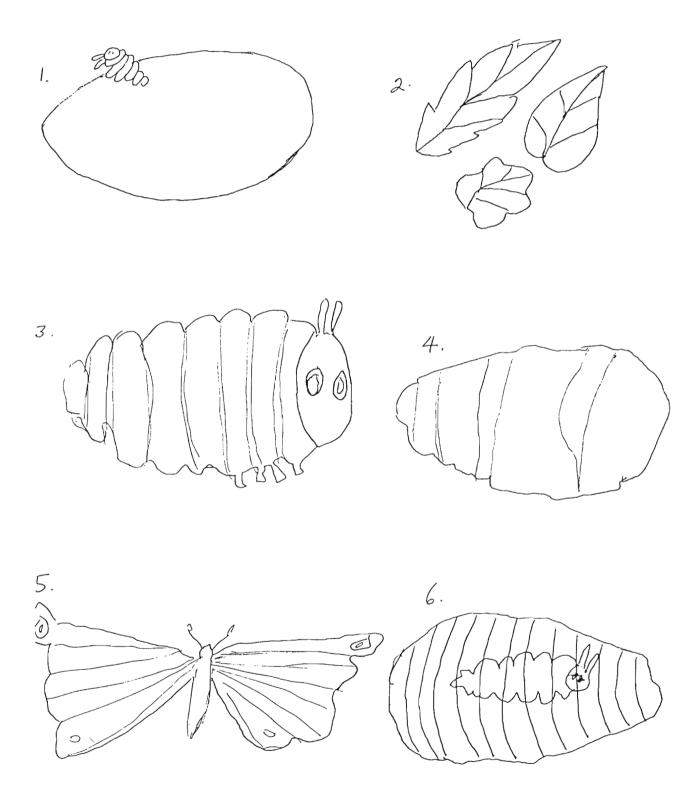
S3: How far down the corridor should we go?

When the group members have received their instructions, they go out of the room and attempt to recover their treasure. If they become confused, they can return to the classroom for clarification or repetition. The first pair to find its assigned treasure and return to the classroom wins. The teacher can time all the groups and record how long it takes for each group. After a specified amount of time (about ten to fifteen minutes), all participants must return to the room, even if they haven't found their treasure. Time permitting, those groups that do not find their gold can locate the treasure and figure

out why they did not find it. They should be able to explain what went wrong in their communications.

Taken from **Techniques and Resources in Teaching Grammar**, Celce-Murcia, M. and Hills,S.

 $\label{eq:Appendix G} \mbox{\footnote{Appendix G}}$ The Life Cycle of the Caterpillar



Appendix H Fantasy Animal A MONDEERFANT



CHAPTER THREE

Teaching Listening

Aims of this unit:

- To examine the problems that Lebanese learners face in comprehending spoken English.
- To develop a deeper understanding of the listening process.
- To make trainees more aware of the importance of listening in language learning.
- To introduce trainees to the concept of purposeful listening activities.
- To explore the full range of listening skills which can be developed at the presecondary levels.

A. The Nature of the Listening Process

Definition

Listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying. This involves understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, his grammar and his vocabulary, and grasping his meaning. A competent listener is capable of doing these four things simultaneously. It thus follows that listening is a highly interactive process during which the listener is actively decoding incoming data by relating it to what he already knows.

Listening involves the ability to hear oral speech in English, segment the stream of sounds, group them into lexical and syntactic units (words, phrases, sentences), and understand the message they convey.

B. The Importance of Listening

Listening is used far more than any other language skill in normal daily life. On the average, we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write.

The importance of listening cannot be underestimated; it is imperative that it not be treated trivially in second and foreign language curricula. Listening comprehension has been neglected in the ESL classroom for too long. Since oral communication involves listening and decoding as well as speaking, then it is necessary to be able to comprehend as well as speak.

In learning to listen, there are two basic levels to be considered: (a) the level of recognition, and (b) the level of selection. When first confronted with a foreign language, the student hears only a stream of meaningless noise. Gradually, after continued exposure to the language, s/he begins to recognize elements and patterns such as phonemes, intonation, words and phrases. When s/he is able to recognize the phonological, syntactic, and semantic codes of the language automatically, s/he has reached the first level, that of recognition. It is useful to note that a native speaker unconsciously recognizes the following basic features in his or her language:

1. isolated word recognition within the sound stream (minimal comprehension of general content);

- 2. phrase or formal recognition (marginal comprehension);
- 3. clause or sentence recognition (minimal comprehension of content);
- 4. extended speech comprehension (general comprehension of unedited speech.

These same features must be learned with conscious effort by ESL students).

The learner can operate simultaneously in several of these areas, depending on the nature of the communication, the level of the listener, the fatigue or energy level of the listener at that particular time, the topic, the interest the listener attaches to the discussion, the importance of understanding the content in a specific situation, the level of discourse complexity, the number of contextual aids available for guessing the meaning, and so on. In other words, a learner is not stuck at a single stage at any given time; he or she may switch back and forth from one comprehension area to another in a non-hierarchical way, depending on the factors noted above.

Understanding Isolated Words. In this element of listening comprehension, the ESL student catches isolated words such as "upset" or "party" or "friend". By comprehending one or more of these discrete words, the intelligent learner can sometimes guess at the general context and content. In this instance, the conversation might be about someone not being invited to his friend's party and if the learner hears one or two of these words, the general content might be clear enough.

Recognizing Phrases. The learner can recognize whole phrases or routine expressions, such as:

Example 1:

Oh! Oh! Late again!

Example 2:

What's up?

Example 3:

I'm O.K. How about you?

These formulas (some of them based on slang) oil the wheels and cogs of communication. Because they are so common, listeners can easily learn to recognize and understand them and can learn how to respond appropriately. Understanding such commonplace expressions helps learners feel self confident, aids in fluency, and keeps learners actively involved.

Understanding Clauses or Sentences. Clause or sentence recognition is another element in understanding speech. This involves recognizing clauses or sentences that are not purely routine expressions that the learner has probably not heard before.

Example 1:

My computer's on the blink, and I need your help!

Example 2:

Sure looks like it's gonna be a fabulous day.,

Whaddya think?

Example 3:

I've been looking all over for Lulu, but I can't find her anywhere.

In this aspect of listening, the listener's degree of understanding is often based on willingness to guess in order to fill in any gaps in understanding. This willingness to guess in turn depends on risk-taking ability and on general world knowledge (relevant

knowledge that helps the learner predict what the speaker will say or guess what the speaker is saying).

Understanding Speech. This aspect of understanding relates to extended speech, or what we commonly call discourse above the sentence level. The accomplished learner does not just focus on isolated words to guess the general content, pick out certain formulas, or concentrate on discrete clauses or sentences; instead, the accomplished learner is able to move to a greater overall understanding of a conversation, or any other oral communication. Moreover, in real life situations, listening requires understanding meaning on the spot and instantaneously, without having the chance to rewind a tape to listen to the whole communication again. The fleetingness of speech has a terrific impact on the listener, requiring constant attention. The time element separates listening comprehension from reading comprehension; in reading, the material is permanent and the reader controls the pace, but in listening, the message is transitory and the speaker typically controls the pace. Comprehending free speech or normal communication is necessary, even though most ESL learners find it difficult to keep up the pace initially.

Ordinary speech contains many ungrammatical, reduced, or incomplete forms; it also has hesitations, false starts, repetitions, fillers, and pauses, all of which make up 30-50% of any informal native speaker conversation. In addition, topics often shift suddenly from one subject to another. However, redundancy and repetition allow listeners to understand the communication more effectively; if they do not catch the meaning first time around, repetition often comes to the rescue.

The listener's difficulties are further compounded by the fact that the human organism can only absorb so much information at a time. Thus the relevant or important matter needs to be sifted out from the whole and committed to short-term memory. In order for this information to be retained for decoding or comprehension, it must be recirculated through the perceptual processes at regular intervals.

In this way, important information, or the message, can be gleaned from the incoming sounds, re-circulated and passed on to the longterm memory allowing time for the listener to process the information.

In summary, the process of listening clearly involves coping with the following elements:

- a. The phonological code:
 - i. phonemes,
 - ii. rhythm,
 - iii. stress,
 - iv. intonation patterns and emotional overtones (e.g., anger),
- b. The syntactic code:
 - i. word classes (including affixes and exceptions),
 - ii. word order (including stylistic variations),
 - iii. inter-relationship of words (including stylistic variations),
- c. The semantic code:
 - i. word meaning (including variations within the context),
 - ii. connotation (culture-tied and often dependent upon region as well as individual speaker),

- iii. culture (national, regional, ethnic),
- iv. idioms, expletives, clichés, colloquialisms,
- v. false starts, pauses, fillers (redundancies).

A competent listener is thus a person who has acquired the following skills:

- 1. Identifying and discriminating among the distinctive sounds of the target language.
- 2. Identifying words, word boundaries and parts of speech.
- 3. Recognizing and reproducing reduced forms.
- 4. Identifying stressed words that carry information.
- 5. Recognizing basic intonation patterns.
- 6. Demonstrating comprehension by responding physically and performing practical tasks such as drawing, organizing objects, writing, checking, etc.
- 7. Predicting content.
- 8. Extracting specific information.
- 9. Getting the general picture (skimming).
- 10. Inferring opinion and attitude.
- 11. Identifying speakers, setting, purpose, register, accent.
- 12. Deducing meaning from context.
- 13. Recognizing function, discourse patterns and markers.

C. Pedagogical Implications

Given the complex nature of the listening process, it seems inevitable that the second language learner will face various problems with listening tasks assigned in class. Following is a list of difficulties:

- The speed of delivery: 'It's too fast'; an impression caused by the weak forms of English such as was (woz), would in I'd go (d).
- The speakers' (unfamiliar) accents.
- The features of spoken language: hesitation, fillers, redundancy, repetition, paraphrase, incorrect grammar, indistinct speech.
- The students' lack of confidence.
- The attempt to understand every word.
- One or two difficult words causing the student to 'switch off'.
- Sometimes, inadequate preparation given before the students are dropped into the middle of a conversation and asked to eavesdrop on matters which do not realistically concern them.
- Students being accustomed to saying 'I don't understand' rather than 'I didn't hear' which is what a native speaker would say.
- The lack of visual information when recorded material is used.
- Interference of background noise.
- Acoustic problems: Size of classroom or quality of cassette recorder, etc.

Obviously, the teacher's role is to attempt to overcome these problems by systematically presenting students with activities and exercises which help them acquire the requisite skills to cope with the demands of the listening tasks.

At this point, it is important to provide a general set of principles to be adopted when teachers develop specific listening tasks for classroom use:

- 1. Listening comprehension tasks must have definite goals that are carefully stated. These goals should fit into the overall curriculum, and both teacher and students should be aware of what they are.
- 2. The listening comprehension tasks should be constructed with careful step-by-step planning. This implies that the listening tasks progress from simple to more complex as the student improves in language proficiency and that the student knows exactly what the task is and is given directions as to what to listen for, where to listen, when to listen, and how to listen.
- 3. The listening comprehension lesson structure should demand active student participation. Moreover, immediate feedback on performance should be given in order to maintain interest and motivation at an optimal level.
- 4. Listening comprehension lessons should stress conscious memory work. One of the goals of listening is to strengthen the students' immediate recall in order to increase their memory spans. Listening is receiving, receiving requires thinking, and thinking requires memory; it is impossible to separate listening, thinking, and remembering.
- 5. Listening comprehension lessons should "teach", not "test". This means that the purpose of checking the students' answers should be viewed only as feedback, as a way of letting the students find out how they did and how they are progressing. There ideally should be no pass/fail attitude associated with the correction of the exercises.
- 6. The instructor should gradually increase the amount of classroom time devoted to listening activities.
- 7. The instructor should motivate students to listen by actively preparing them for the task at hand (pre-listening stage), setting them a purposeful assignment during the task itself (Listening Stage), and maintaining their interest so that they are motivated to move beyond the tasks to the feedback and follow-up phases (Post-Listening Stage).
- 8. Authentic materials, such as actual conversations between native speakers, should be used. It should be kept in mind that authentic listening materials should contain some of the following features: redundancies, repetitions, fillers, etc.
- 9. The instructor should set listening tasks which are transferable, i.e., tasks which the students are likely to encounter in the real world.
- 10. It is more profitable to work from the whole to its parts rather than the reverse.
- 11. The aim of teaching listening comprehension is to produce appropriate behaviour, not simply to answer questions correctly.
- 12. Learners should be helped to build on what they already know.
- 13. A listening task should have the following features/characteristics:
 - 1. SPECIFIABLE: the task is precise and clearly defined. The student knows exactly what he is supposed to do.
 - 2. MEASURABLE: the student should know when he has finished the task, i.e., he might be required to list 3 examples of food he hears mentioned in a conversation.
 - 3. ACHIEVABLE: the task should be within the student's abilities. A good way of judging that is for the teacher to ask herself if she has done enough preparation to ensure that students can successfully complete the task.
 - 4. REALISTIC: The task should be real-world based to enable students to draw on

- their own experiences and to successfully complete it.
- 5. TIME BASED: The teacher determines the amount of time the students are allotted to complete the task, i.e, "You have 10 minutes to do this."

These are the essential elements of what will hereafter be referred to as a SMART Task.

D. A Typology Of Pre, Mid and Post Listening Activities

PRE

- 1. Establish what students know about the topic.
- 2. Predict topic from title.
- 3. Set the scene.
- 4. Explain key concepts.
- 5. Pre-teach unknown vocabulary.
- 6. Brainstorm.
- 7. Pre-set comprehension questions.

MID

- 1. Listen to a series of sentences for rising or falling intonation. Mark which they are.
- 2. Listen to pairs of words. Some are different in their final consonants and others aren't. Circle same or different.
- 3. Listen to verb endings, Circle yes if past tense, no if not.
- 4. Match a word that you hear with its picture.
- 5. Listen to a weather report. Look at a list of words and listen for the words. Circle the ones that you hear.
- 6. Identify the time mentioned in a sentence.
- 7. Listen to an ad; find the price or the dates of the sales for an item.
- 8. Listen to a recorded message; fill in the time, dates, prices, etc. from the call.
- 9. Fill in the missing information from a dialogue.
- 10. Listen to a sequence of sentences and check the emotion that you hear being expressed.
- 11. Listen to a sentence describing a picture and select the picture which matches the description.
- 12. Listen to a conversation and decide where it occurred. Use the multiple choice items to help you find the answer.
- 13. Listen to a conversation and decide what the people are talking about. Choose the picture that shows the topic.
- 14. Listen to a word and list all of the associated words that come to mind.
- 15. Listen to a list of words that pertain to shopping and select the store that sells each item.
- 16. Listen to a description of a route and trace it on a map.
- 17. Compare information in the passage with predictions.
- 18. Obey instructions (respond physically).
- 19. Fill in gaps (cloze procedure).
- 20 . Repeat short chunks after the teacher.
- 21. Fill out charts.
- 22. Tick off items.
- 23. Transfer information to maps, plans, grids, lists, etc.

- 24. Paraphrase content.
- 25. Sequence pictures.
- 26. Identify specific information.
- 27. Detect differences: Listen to passages, respond only when you come across something different or wrong.

POST:

- 1. Answer comprehension questions.
- 2. Solve problems.
- 3. Summarize.
- 4. Write a letter, telegram, postcard, or a message related to the listening passage.
- 5. Debate, interview, discuss, roleplay things associated with the passage heard.
- Rank items in order of importance/preference.

E. Teaching Listening

Model Listening Lesson (1)

Objectives: To extract specific information.

Level: Elementary +

Materials: Blackboard/Slips of paper.

1. Pre-Listening Stage

- a) Move the students into the world of books by telling them, "I'm a great reader. I always have a book on me. Do you like to read? What have you read recently? Give me the titles. Did you enjoy the book? Why?"
- b) Write the following book titles on the blackboard and ask students to copy them down:

The Jungle Book

Around the World in Eighty Days

Beauty and the Beast

Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves

Alice in Wonderland

The Lion, the Witch and the Wardrobe

The Wizard of Oz

2. Listening Stage

- a) Set the scene by telling students you are going to travel to London.
- b) Instruct them to listen to the following dialogue.
- c) Act out the following dialogue playing both roles.
 - A So when are you off to London?
 - B On Tuesday. That reminds me. I need to borrow a couple of books to read on the plane. Have you got any?
 - A Well I could give you a book I read last year called **The Lion**, **The Witch and The Wardrobe**. I think you'd like that. There's also **The Wizard of Oz**, But you know what, it's a bit frightening so forget about it. There's a better one called **The Jungle Book**. You'd love that. It's all about Mowgli. You've probably already seen the film. And you know what? There is this book I read

when I was in bed with flu last month. My aunt brought it over. What was it called? Let me think. Oh yes 'Around the World in Eighty Days'. You'll enjoy that. It'll keep you busy all the way to London.

3. Listen and Respond Stage: SMART TASK

- a) Ask students to listen and place a check mark next to any of the book titles they hear mentioned in the dialogue.
- b) Ask students to place the titles in order of appearance.

4. Feedback Stage

Instruct students to compare answers with a partner.

Alternative Listen and Respond Tasks:

- a) Ask students to check the titles the person in the dialogue DIDN'T take.
- b) Give students slips of paper with half of the book titles, i.e.,

Around the World

in Eight Days

- c) Each student gets half a book title, listens to the dialogue, walks around, finds his other half and stands next to him.
 - Obviously step (b) of the pre-listening stage should be skipped for this activity.
- d) Write up the first part of book title as follows:

The Jungle.....

Around the.....

The Lion,....

Ask students to listen to the dialogue and write down the missing part of the title.

Model Listening Lesson (2)

Objectives: To extract specific information

To identify contextual clues.

Level: Lower Intermediate.

Materials: Worksheets containing 5 pictures of blank faces (see Appendix A).

1. Pre-Listening Stage

- a) Revise the grammar items <u>have got</u>, <u>have got</u> on, <u>colors</u>, and descriptive words covered the day before by walking into class and telling students the following: I'm thinking of a girl in this class who has got blonde hair and blue eyes. She's got on a blue T-shirt and blue jeans. She hasn't got a jacket on. Class, who am I thinking of? Who is it?
- b) Accept guesses and congratulate the winner. Then have the students play the game in pairs.
- c) Move the students into the world of crime by asking them to build a network around the word **crime**.

Following is a sample network:

	kill hide	
court		killer
judge	CRIME	blood
stab	run	cry

d) Try to elicit the words which appear in the listening text.

2. Listening Stage

- a) Distribute worksheets (See appendix A).
- b) Tell students to listen while you set the scene by telling them the following: These are the faces of the 5 criminals who robbed a bank in Hamra street last week. The police need help in finding them. Listen to the descriptions so that you can draw these wanted men and post their pictures on the school walls.
- c) Read the five descriptions the first time. Students simply listen.

Text For Descriptions

Here is an important announcement: The police are looking for five dangerous criminals who robbed a bank in Hamra Street last week. If you see any of these men, please go to the nearest police station.

Here are the descriptions of the men. The first criminal is Hani. He is quite bald and has only got a little hair on the sides. He's got glasses on, and he has a large scar running down his left cheek. His forehead is full of lines. The second criminal, Fouad, has also got glasses on. He's got a small beard, black curly hair and an earring in his left ear. The third criminal is quite young and looks fairly harmless. Ramez, who's got a beard, usually wears a cap. The fourth criminal, Ghaleb, looks like a pirate. He, like Hani, has got a scar, but his scar is on the right side of his face. He's got black teeth, two moles on the left side of his face and a scarf around his neck. We have no description of the fifth criminal.

- d) Read the four descriptions again and ask students to listen and draw in the details on the blank faces.
- e) When students are through, ask them to compare their drawings.
- f) Ask students to pair off and write a description for the fifth face.
- g) Have each pair read out their description to another pair while this pair draws the face.

3. Post Listening Stage

Activity: Back to Back

Aims: Skills: speaking, listening comprehension.

Language: descriptive sentences (clothes, appearance), stating whether something is right or wrong.

Other: observation, memory. Level: Upper elementary

Organization: Pairs

Preparation: Cassette recorder with music tape or radio

Time: 10 - 20 minutes

Procedure: Step 1: While the music is playing or the teacher is clapping, everybody walks around the room observing other people's clothes, hairstyles, etc. As soon as the music stops, each student pairs up with the person standing nearest him and they stand back to back. Taking turns, each of them makes statements about the other's appearance, e.g. Student A: 'I think you've got a yellow blouse on.' Student B: 'That's not right. I've got a blouse on, but it isn't yellow'.

Step 2: After a few minutes, the music starts again and all partners separate. When

the music stops a second time, the procedure described in Step 1 is repeated with a different partner. Three or four description phases are sufficient.

Variations: A student is allowed to keep making statements as long as they are correct. As soon as he mentions something that is wrong, it is his partner's turn to start describing him.

Assignments and Activities For Trainee Teachers

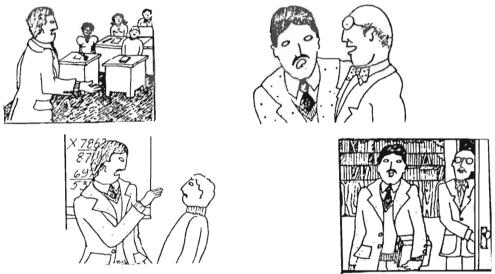
Level: Lower Elementary

Time: 30 minutes

 Prepare a set of instructions for a micro-lesson on a <u>Listen and Do/Make</u> activity. Some such examples are listen and make a paper boat, paper hat, a basket made of plasticine, etc.

Write up the list of instructions to be used with students along with the steps of the lesson and the classroom language which features in the lesson.

2. A teacher used the following dialogue for listening:



Mr. Hameed: I don't want any more excuses. You're half an hour late, so you'll have to stay for half an hour after school.

Hadi: But my mother

Mr. Hameed: No excuses. You've broken a school rule. If I don't punish you today, the whole class will be late tomorrow.

Principal: Oh, Mr. Hameed. You teach Hadi Abiad, don't you?

Mr. Hameed: Yes, I do. He's a very good student, but he was late this morning.

Principal: I can explain that. His mother's sick and has gone to hospital. His father just phoned.

Mr. Hameed: Oh really? I'd better talk to Hadi, then.

The teacher first told the class to simply listen. Then she asked the students some questions. The students couldn't answer any of them. What could the teacher have done to make this listening experience more meaningful and purposeful? Begin by examining the text and analyzing its problems, i.e., weak forms. Then design at least one pre,mid and post activity.

3. Select a listening text.

Plan a listening activity for an elementary class. Decide what you would do before, during and after the listening. Think of appropriate ways of preparing your students for the listening stage, and assign meaningful feedback and follow up work.

4. Prepare a listening lesson based on this modified version of Jack and the Beanstalk. Following is the text:

Jack And The Beanstalk

Once upon a time, Jack and his mother had a cow, but they had no money. Because they were poor, they sold the cow to a farmer. The farmer had no money, so he gave Jack some beans instead. When Jack's mother saw the beans, she threw them away. But, the beans grew and grew and grew into an enormous beanstalk. One day Jack climbed up the beanstalk. At the top he saw a horrible giant who ran after him and chased him down the beanstalk. When Jack reached the bottom he brought an ax and chopped down the beanstalk. The horrible giant died.

See Appendix C

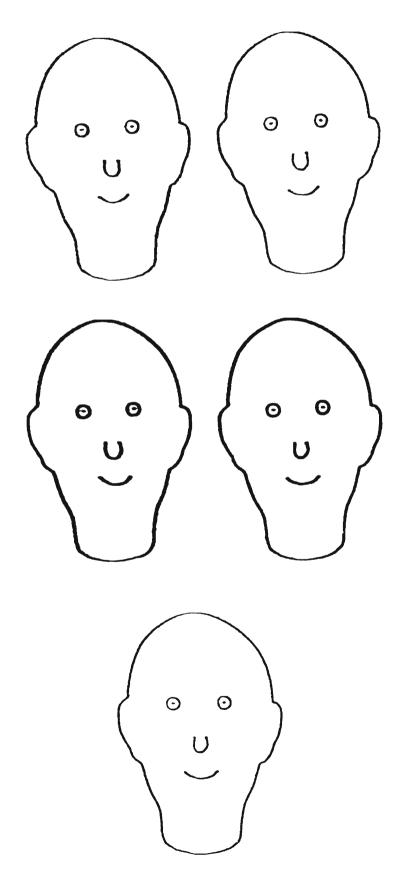
Note: The lesson itself must include the following 3 types of "Listen and Respond" activities.

- 1. Listen and physically respond i.e, point with your fingers, raise your hand, color, etc.
- 2. Listen and put in order (sequence of events, list of words, etc.)
- 3. Listen and paraphrase (re-tell in your own words, do a jigsaw, etc.)

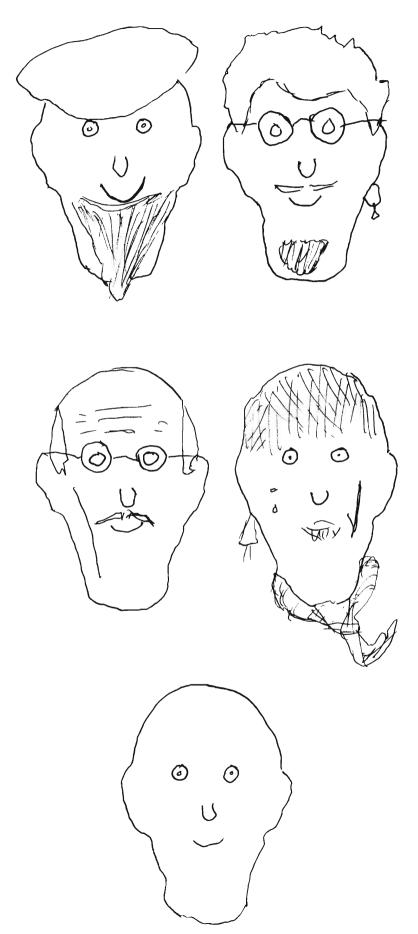
The lesson plan must include full details on the classroom language you will use throughout the lesson. Prepare all visuals needed (pictures, charts, etc) to supplement the lesson.

Demonstrate the lesson in class. Let your classmates play the role of students. Ask your classmates and instructor to provide feedback on your mini-lesson.

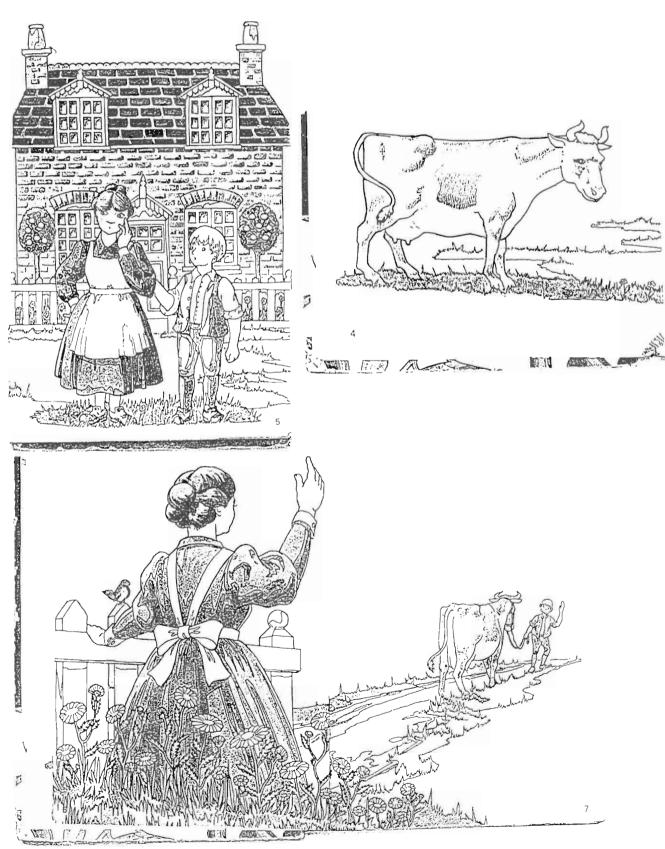
Appendix A

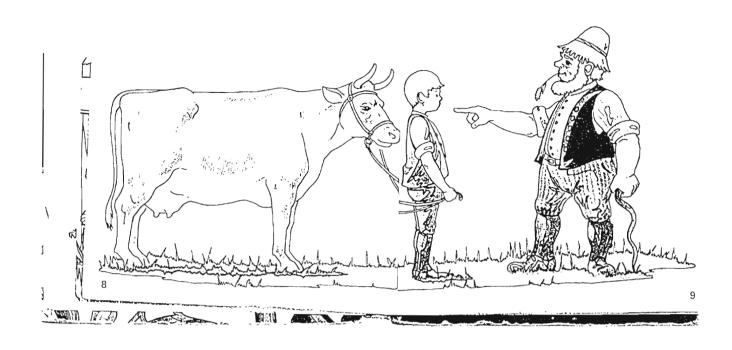


Appendix B



Appendix C JACK & THE BEANSTALK











CHAPTER FOUR

Teaching Oral Communication

Aims of the unit:

- To explore the language functions appropriate in the pre-secondary cycles.
- To raise trainees' awareness of some of the features of real communication.
- To describe the competencies that learners must acquire to become effective speakers of English.

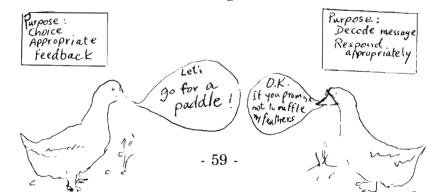
A. The Nature of Oral Communication:

Communication among human beings is a highly complex interactive process. The complexity derives from the fact that oral communication is not static. On the contrary, patterns of speech continuously evolve as a direct result of social dynamics. However, there are certain features that typify most communicative exchanges and the examination of these is of particular relevance to the learning and teaching of languages.

The following generalizations can safely be made:

- 1. People communicate for a reason. Apart from certain occasions where a person is obliged to speak, a speaker usually takes it upon himself to initiate an oral exchange. In other words, the speaker has in the back of his mind a definite communicative purpose. For example, a speaker will address a friend in order to get some information regarding a homework assignment. Even when a speaker addresses a friend in order to socialize with him, he wants something to happen in response to his initial utterance.
- 2. Once the communicative purpose has been established, the speaker must select the appropriate language to achieve his communicative goal. For this, he selects from the store of language he possesses while, at the same time, he takes into consideration the fact that he is speaking to a specific **person** within a specific **context** and **time**. In other words, he has the ability to select the language that is appropriate for a particular purpose.
- 3. The listener is likewise participating in a conversation because he is interested in the message. He, too, will be actively engaged in decoding the message and in responding.

Figure 1 illustrates a typical communicative exchange.
Figure 1
Communicative Exchange: Even Ducks Do It!



4. After the speaker initiates the communicative exchange in order to get some information the listener possesses, he knows he has successfully communicated if the listener actually gives him the information he requires. Thus, when a speaker receives his feedback in the form of the required information, we can say that he has achieved his communicative goal.

B. Language Functions:

When we say that a student 'knows' how to speak English, what exactly do we mean? Obviously 'knowing' English entails learning words and phrases to express meaning, learning the sound system and stress and intonation patterns, knowing something about how to join sentences to produce connected speech, and manipulating grammatical structures. A student who has learnt all these components should, in theory, be able to function effectively in the language. However, unfortunately, this does not usually amount to knowing how to communicate in English. Effective communication involves not only producing language correctly but using language for a particular purpose. We call this ability to select language to fit a specific communicative purpose the FUNCTION of language.

Here are some examples of common English structures and the functions they express:

Structure

There's a toy shop in the town center.

I'm going to study Arabic. You can go home now. May I ride your bike? **Functions**

Describing

Expressing intention Giving permission Asking for permission

(Note that communicative function can be expressed by a range of different structures, e.g. intention can be expressed by 'I'm going to', 'I'm planning to', 'I intend to', etc.).

People communicate for a purpose. However, more often than not, this purpose is not clearly stated. In this case, the listener is required to read between the lines and work out what is implied by the speaker's utterance. He has to do this (decode the message) before he selects an appropriate response to the speaker. Following are two examples of oral communications which require the listener to infer (guess) the message:

Example One

A The phone's ringing.

(Implied message: I'm busy, so I expect you

to answer it).

B I'll get it.

(Correct interpretation of message).

A Thanks.

(Appropriate response).

Example Two

A Is that the door bell, Fouad?

(Implied message: Can you see who it is?)

B I'll go see.

(Correct interpretation of message).

A Thanks.

(Correct response).

If learners are able not only to produce and understand structures like the ones above, but also use them to express the communicative functions they need, we can say that they have acquired communicative competence in the language.

C. Pedagogical Implications for the Teacher

Obviously, one major implication for the teacher is the need to increase student's awareness of the functions of language by incorporating this component into grammar lessons. Recognizing the importance of functions will give a grammar lesson direct focus in that students will be made more aware of why they are practising certain structures. For example, the teacher does not introduce there is/are for its own sake, because it is a useful structure, or just because it's in the coursebook. Rather, she/he will focus the lesson on how to describe places and in doing so will practise there is/are as well as other necessary structures (e.g. place prepositions). Moreover, since foreign language teaching should help students achieve some kind of communicative skill in the foreign language, all situations in which real communication occurs naturally with the use of there is/are have to be taken advantage of, and many more suitable ones have to be created.

Two devices help the teacher make up authentic communicative activities: information gap and opinion gap. By applying the principles of information gap and opinion gap to suitable traditional exercises, the teacher can change them into more challenging communicative situations. Thus, the well-known procedure at beginner's level of having students describe each other's appearance is transformed into a communicative activity as soon as an element of guessing (information gap) is introduced (see Back to Back in the chapter on teaching grammar). However, not all exercises can be spruced up like this.

Needless to say, in order to promote effective communicative skills it is important for the teacher to strive for a classroom in which students feel comfortable and confident, free to take risks and have sufficient opportunities to speak. Therefore, one of the teacher's concerns is to maintain a healthy balance between student talking time (STT) and teacher talking time (TTT).

Language students are considered successful if they can communicate effectively in their second or foreign language, whereas two decades ago the accuracy of the language produced would most likely be the major criterion contributing to the judgement of a student's success or lack of success. There is little doubt now that these developments in language teaching – called the "proficiency movement" by some and the promotion of "functional" or "communicative" ability by others – have moved us away from the goal of accuracy toward a focus on fluency and communicative effectiveness. Thus, the teaching of the speaking skills has become increasingly important.

However, this does not mean that a focus on accuracy has no place in the communicative classroom. It is clear that the focus shifts depending on the stage of the lesson, i.e., whether the students are at the mechanical, meaningful, or communicative output stage of the lesson. Obviously, the instructor should endeavor to incorporate oral fluency activities into each teaching component. While a considerable amount of oral practice will be conducted during grammar lessons, reading, writing, and vocabulary lessons offer enormous potential for integrating and promoting meaningful oral communication. For example, teachers should allow time for activities in which students are encouraged to contribute their personal opinions of/attitudes towards/ and reactions to the contents of any reading selections.

Naturally, the teacher needs to encourage students to speak by presenting them with meaningful activities which create a need for them to interact with their peers and express an opinion, an attitude or an idea. By definition, meaningful activities are those activities which draw on the students' own background knowledge and therefore provide them with a chance to say something meaningful

D. A Typology of Controlled, Semi-Controlled, and Communicative Speaking Activities

The dialogue frame is a highly versatile classroom technique which enables students to carry out a mini-conversation. In the initial stage, the 'conversation' is completely controlled: in fact, the entire exchange is memorized. In the second stage, the students substitute words or phrases in the original dialogue with alternatives provided. At this stage, it is really an extended drill. In the final stage, the practice is personalized and students genuinely converse and exchange information, although their conversation is limited to the patterns in the dialogue frame. The dialogue frame is an ideal way to practice two or more patterns in combination. It is easy to set up classroom activities that require the students to manipulate patterns and structures. Teachers can quickly gauge students' progress in the more controlled and structured activities. Once they have determined that students are sufficiently competent to move into another stage, they then set up semi-controlled and free communicative speaking activities.

Following is a typology of dialogue-building activities that progress from fully memorized dialogues to role-play:

1. Memorized Dialogue-Audiolingual Method Example:

Dialogue-Pattern Practice

Salwa: Good morning, Samer.

Samer: Good morning, Salwa.

Salwa: How are you?

Samer: Fine, thanks, and you?

Samer: I'm going to the post office.

Salwa: I am too. Shall we go together?

Samer: Sure. Let's go.

Procedure

- i. Teacher acts out the full dialogue in front of the class. She should preferably have adequate audio-visuals. (The full dialogue should be written on the blackboard.)
- ii. Teacher reads out the dialogue line by line. Students repeat chorally.
- iii. Teacher plays the role of person A, Salwa and students play the role of person B, Samer. Teacher reads out Salwa's lines and the students chorally repeat Samer's lines.
- iv. Teacher reads out Samer's lines. Students repeat Salwa's lines.
- v. Teacher divides up the students into two groups. Group A plays Samer's role and Group B plays Salwa's role.
- vi. Teacher pairs off students. She then asks them to act out the full dialogue (one pair at a time) in their seats or in front of the class.

2. Directed Dialogue

Example

Situation: Soha and Nadim go to the same school.

Nadim has been absent from school for 2 days. Soha gives him a call. How does Nadim answer the phone?

3. Cued Dialogue

Students work on their own or in pairs, but the dialogue is clearly guided.

Example: At the gift shop.

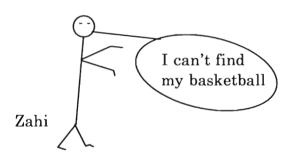
Student A-customer

- a. greet the shopkeeper
- b. ask for price of the gift of your choice
- c. exclaim how pretty it is
- d. agree to buy gift
- e. express thanks

Student B-shopkeeper

- a. respond to greeting
- b. give price
- c. explain where it comes from
- d. explain how to use it
- e. say goodbye

4. Bubble Dialogue





Complete the dialogue between Zahi and Mona.

5. Maintaining a Conversation

- A. My birthday is on Friday. I'd like you to come.
- B. Asks a question about the party.
- A. Responds to B's question.
- B. Asks another question.
- A. Responds to the second question.
- B. Asks a third question.
- A. Responds to the final question.

Following is a typology of freer more meaningful oral activities:

I. Personalization Activities

This drill is both relevant and meaningful since it requires students to become fully involved by having them express their own personal opinions and attitudes about various topics. The procedure is as follows:

WHAT I LIKE ABOUT YOU IS...

Procedure

- 1. Get everybody to sit in a circle. If there is only one group, join in the circle yourself.
- 2. Starting with the person on your left, Student A, say something that you like about

the person such as, "What I like about you is the colour of your hair and your laugh."

- 3. This continues in an anti-clockwise direction with each person in turn saying something that they like about Student A. When everyone has said something, then student A says something she/he likes about her/himself.
- 4. Student A starts the next round by saying something he likes about the student on his left and so on round the circle as before.
- 5. This continues until everyone has been talked about by everyone including you if you are in the circle.

Variations:

Any of the following opening lines can be used to set the personalized chain in motion:

- 1. At school I like to.....
- 2. I'm afraid of
- 3. I hate to eat.....
- 4. Two things I like about myself are.....
- (*) Taken from Dellar, S. (1990). Lessons from the Learner. Suffolk: Longman Group U.K. Limited

II. Meaningful Drill - Easy Debates

Once again, the concept behind this activity is to engage students in meaningful use of language. The topics are of immediate interest to students. They encourage them to consider two sides of an issue and to reply to spontaneous challenges.

Procedure

1. Write a list of simple contrasting items on the blackboard.

Batman - Mickey Mouse

Dogs - Cats

Riding a Bike – Riding a Donkey

Summer - Winter

Fire - Water

Vegetables - Candies

- - "I think fire is better than water because..."
- 3. The teacher asks for an opposing argument. A student on the other team responds with, "No, I think water is better than fire because....:
- 4. Many reasons should be made up to support each argument. Tell the students it isn't necessary that they believe in their own argument, but rather make up possible reasons why one is better than the other. Many arguments should be given on each side before changing the debate topic.

III. Meaningful Practice Activity

This activity has the same principle as regular dominoes with identical pictures that students are required to place next to each other. However, it differs from the regular domino game in one respect: the dominoes can only be placed next to each other

if students can come up with a convincing/plausible reason for the two dominoes to be placed side by side.

Following are some examples of possible connections:

- 1. Apples and bananas are fruits.
- 2. A man can drink milk.

See Appendix A for a complete set of domino cards

IV. Performance Activities

Role Play What is role play?

According to Ladousse (1987), when students assume a role, they play a part (either their own or somebody else's) in a specific situation. 'Play' means that the role is taken on in a safe environment in which students are as inventive and playful as possible. A group of students carrying out a successful role play in a classroom has much in common with a group of children playing school, doctors and nurses, or Star Wars. Both are unconsciously creating their own reality and, by doing so, are experimenting with their knowledge of the real world and developing their ability to interact with other people. In this situation there are no spectators and the occasional eavesdropper (a parent or a teacher) may not even be noticed. None of the risks of communication and behavior in the real world are present.

Why use role play?

Here is a list of the main reasons for using role play in language classes:

- 1. A very wide variety of experiences can be brought into the classroom through role play. The range of functions and structures, and the areas of vocabulary that can be introduced, go far beyond the limits of other pair or group activities, such as conversation, communication games, or humanistic exercises. Through role play we can train our students in speaking skills in any situation.
- 2. Role play puts students in situations where they are required to use and develop those phatic forms of language which are so necessary in oiling the works of social relationships, but which are so often neglected by our language teaching syllabuses. Many students believe that language use involves only the transfer of specific information from one person to another. They have very little small talk, and in consequence often appear unnecessarily brusque and abrupt. It is possible to build up these social skills from a very low level through role play.
- 3. It is helpful for students to try out and experiment with language they will require in the real world in the safe and friendly environment of a classroom. For students, role play is a very useful dress rehearsal for real life. It enables them not only to acquire set phrases, but to learn how interaction might take place in a variety of situations.
- 4. Role play helps many shy students by providing them with a mask. Some more

reticent members of a group may have a great deal of difficulty participating in conversations about themselves, and in other activities based on their direct experience. These students are liberated by role play as they no longer feel that their own personality is implicated.

5. Perhaps the most important reason for using role play is that it is fun. Once students understand what is expected of them they thoroughly enjoy letting their imaginations take flight. Although there does not appear to be any scientific evidence that enjoyment automatically leads to better learning, most language teachers would probably agree that in the case of the vast majority of normal people this is surely so.

Finally role play is one communicative technique which develops fluency in language students, promotes interaction in the classroom, and increases motivation. Not only is peer learning encouraged by it, but also the sharing between teacher and student of the responsibility for the learning process. Role play is perhaps the most flexible technique in the range, and teachers who have it at their finger-tips are able to meet an infinite variety of needs with suitable and effective role play exercises." (Ladouse, 1987, p. 5)

Following is a sample role play suitable for intermediate students:

Role Card

Your Role: Son or Daughter

You are eleven years old. Your friends are going to see the film Rocky 3 at the cinema on Saturday evening. You want to go with them, but you've never been to the cinema without your parents before. You have to get permission from your mother. You know she doesn't like you going out at night, and you know she hates violent movies.

Role Card

Your Role: Mother

Your eleven-year-old son/daughter wants to go to see Rocky 3 at the cinema on Saturday evening. All his/her friends are going, but she/he has never been to the cinema without you before. You don't like him/her going out at night and you HATE violent movies. Your son/daughter is going to ask for your permission to go, but you definitely don't want him/her to. You will not give in to his/her request.

Role Card

Your Role: Son/Daughter's Friend

Listen to the conversation between your friend and his/her mother. He/She is going to ask for permission to go and see Rocky 3 with you, but his/her mother will probably refuse. You want to help. You know that mothers don't usually like to embarrass their children in front of their friends. When the moment is right, join in the conversation and try to help out.

Procedure

Set the scene
 Tell the students the following:
 You're 11-year-old children.

Talk about things your parents let you do, things they won't let you do and things you have to get permission to do.

- 2. Put students into groups of three and let them decide if they want to play the role of the mother, son/daughter, or friend.
- 3. Distribute role cards.
- 4. Encourage students to ask questions.
- 5. Let students decide who sets the ball rolling, i.e., who starts.
- 6. Stipulate that the role play should have a final result or conclusion.
- 7. Let students decide when the role play is over.
- 8. Debrief by asking students to discuss the following questions in their groups.

What happened in your role play?

How did it go?

How did you feel about it?

What was the outcome in your group?

V. Communicative Activities

Communicative activities have the following three features:

Information Gap:

The student needs to communicate with someone because that person has some information the student is unaware of.

Choice:

In order for the communication to take place, the student should select a suitable utterance from his language store.

Feedback:

If the student has made the right choice of language, the listener will respond with the required information. If not, the speaker must reformulate his utterance to ensure comprehension.

Following is an example of an authentic communicative task which incorporates the three features described above:

Pyramid Discussion

Materials:

Barbie doll, Ninja Turtles, remote control car, toy bicycle, ball, Leggo set, Grindizer (bring pictures if the actual objects are not available).

Objectives:

Giving reasons; expressing preferences.

Procedure:

Identify the objects.

List them on the blackboard.

On an individual basis ask students to select the three objects they would like to receive as a birthday present. They must rank these three in order of priority, e.g.

- 1. Bicycle
- 2. Ball
- 3. Leggo

They should also give reasons for their choices.

Students pair off and compare lists. They try to persuade their partner that their list is the best and he should therefore forget about his list and opt for his partners'. Pairs come up with a new list of three items.

Students get into groups of four and compare the two lists. They follow the procedure described in preceding paragraph and draw up a new list that they all agree on.

Teacher can move into a role play between a mother, father and son centering around a discussion regarding a birthday gift.

VI. Conducting Feedback Sessions

1. The Teacher as Facilitator

Errors are a natural part of the learning process and can be a sign of progress. Indeed, they often indicate that students are struggling to establish a certain degree of competency. Students will eventually fine-tune their language following additional exposure to the target language. It thus follows that teachers should not paralyze oral production by zeroing in on micro-errors. They should, on the contrary, tolerate errors. The bottom line is as long as students are comprehensible and able to convey their message, there is no need for teacher intervention. However, the minute a breakdown in communications occurs, the teacher will often be required to step in and re-establish channels of communication.

2. The Teacher as Monitor

When students are actively engaged in communicative activities, the teacher can gain a lot from circulating among the teams and eavesdropping on their oral exchanges. She can make a mental note of any structure(s) which students do not seem able to manipulate effectively. If this kind of problem is global, much could be gained from conducting a feedback session at the end of the activity. In this session the teacher could focus on the trouble spots and if necessary reteach them. She should view these errors positively as an indication of what she needs to re-teach.

3. The Teacher as Corrector

The teacher's role as corrector should not be undermined. During accuracy activities the teacher needs to select a few basic features of the language that students are using incorrectly and provide on-the-spot correction. However, she should bear in mind that error correction should be handled as sensitively as possible in order not to embarrass students or shatter their self-esteem.

Paraphrasing, peer-correction and wait-time for self-correction are some of the more humanistic strategies that can be employed. Ultimately, the teacher's role is to encourage oral communication. Students are more likely to experiment with language if they are operating in a safe, comfortable and non-threatening environment. It follows that students should be handled with great care and unnecessary criticism should be avoided.

Assignments and Activities for Trainee Teachers

- 1. What are the major differences between memorizing a dialogue and participating in a role play?
- 2. Decide on a structure you would like students to practise in a controlled dialogue.

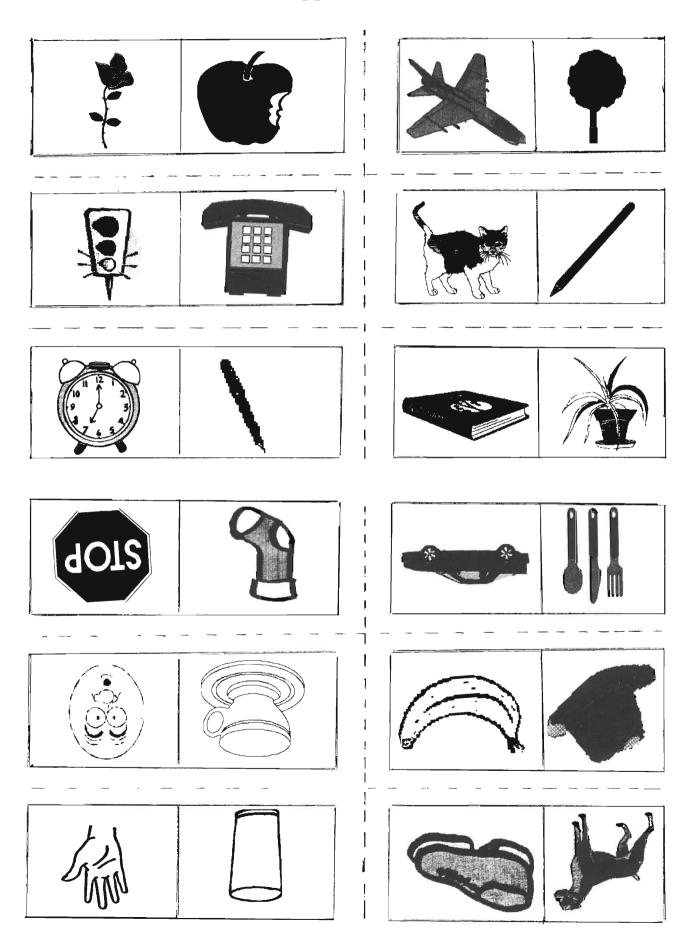
Think of a situation in which this structure would naturally occur. Write down the situation, the first line and last lines of the dialogue and work out the directions you would give students to enable them to successfully complete this task.

- 3. Refer to **Meaningful Drills: Easy Debates** on page of this chapter. Prepare 5 new sets of topics for comparison. Be sure to choose topics that are high in interest for Lebanese students.
- 4. Create a pyramid discussion activity which would generate classroom talk on the topic of designing a new school playground.
- 5. Think of a situation which fifth elementary students could role play. Bear in mind that a successful role play has at least three characteristics and centers around a conflict that has to be resolved one way or the other. Once you have hit upon a meaningful conflict, write the role cards and decide on how best to set the scene for presentation purposes.

Reference

Ladousse, G.P. (1987). Role Play. New York: Oxford University Press.

Appendix A



CHAPTER FIVE

READING

Aims of this unit:

- 1. To develop trainees' awareness of the interactive reading process.
- 2. To present effective models for teaching reading.
- 3. To explore various strategies used by good teachers.

The Reading Process

Reading is an interactive process between the readers' background knowledge and the text. To derive meaning as effectively and efficiently as possible, readers need to use text clues (words and linguistic makers) as well as their own world knowledge (past experiences). Thus, the readers' world knowledge (also known as frames, scripts or schemata) interacts with the text to create meaning.

Schema Theory

Schema theory is concerned with human cognition. Basically, schemata (the plural of schema) are the files in the brain in which previous information is stored in an organized manner. Once information has been meaningfully stored in an organized manner, it can be activated and retrieved. Thus, the mere mentioning of a word such as "football" activates the relevant football files in the brain. These files contain vocabulary associated with the topic of football, personal experiences and situations, visual images of football fields, stadiums and players as well as additional relatable knowledge.

Several researchers have adopted and/or expanded a schema theoretic view of the reading process. For example, Carrell (1984) has maintained that comprehension is a two-way product of interaction between the readers' background knowledge and the text. In this sense, comprehension is determined by the readers' knowledge of the linguistic code, world knowledge, and ability to use effective strategies to process and store information. The classroom implications of this view of the reading process focus on developing the linguistic proficiency of readers, enhancing their world knowledge, and training them in applying strategies as they read.

The Levels of Reading Comprehension

The most basic level of comprehension is the literal or factual level. A reader with literal level reading competence can skim and scan a text to comprehend ideas and information that are explicitly stated. Such a reader can also recognize words accurately, identify the main ideas and supporting details, recognize sequence or cause/effect relationships, and use context clues to identify unknown lexis and recognize mainstream organizational patterns (narration, description etc.). Once students become proficient readers at the literal level, they need to be trained in interpretive comprehension. To read interpretively means to possess the ability to make inferences, determine the author's aim/tone/attitude, differentiate between fact and

opinion, and recognize biased language and propaganda. This necessitates reading between the lines by associating what is written in the text with one's own world knowledge (schemata) in order to determine the author's intended meaning.

The third level of comprehension - the applied level – is even more cognitively demanding than the interpretive level. Basically, the applied level focuses on the reader's emotional and intellectual response to what he reads. Thus, the reader must read beyond the lines and make value judgements about the content. He/she must also analyze how an author creates a certain effect through the use of figurative language (simile, metaphor, clichés, etc.). Moreover, at the applied level a reader must make judgements based on certain criteria and relate concepts in the text to his/her own experience.

Vacca's Levels of Comprehension (1981, p. 120)

(a) Literal	Levels of Comprehension Interpretive	Applied
(b) Getting the information drift	Levels of Comprehension Literal	Reading the lines
Combining information and making inferences	Interpretive	Reading between the lines
Using information to express opinions and form new ideas	Applied	Reading beyond the lines

Levels of Reading Difficulty

Most readers of any age experience varying degrees of difficulty when they read the daily newspaper or a weekly magazine. Success in reading is determined by such variables as the complexity of the material, the familiarity of the vocabulary, and prior knowledge of the topic. Estes and Vaughan (1978) identified three levels of reading:

- 1) Independent reading is the level at which a reader can completely understand material without outside help. That is, the reader is familiar with the vocabulary of the text, has the necessary skills to understand the ideas, and can grasp the concepts being given. In other words, the reader shows: a) more than 90% correct word recognition; b) at least 90% comprehension for oral reading, and for silent reading, "a rate of comprehension higher than that for oral reading", c) freedom from tension; and d) fluent reading.
- 2) The instructional reading level is the level at which the reader is unable to understand underlying concepts without the help of the teacher. Thus, instruction

- can bridge the gap between the student's abilities and those necessary to read with satisfactory understanding. A reader at the instructional level shows: a) at least 75% comprehension for oral reading and for silent reading "a rate of comprehension substantially higher than that for oral reading", b) at least 75% correct word recognition; c) ability to anticipate meaning and d) freedom from tension.
- 3) The frustration reading level is the level at which the reading material is so difficult for students that a reasonable amount of instructional assistance will not be sufficient to bridge the gap between the students' abilities and the author's assumptions. This means that the concepts, the skills, and the vocabulary of the text do not match the concepts, the skills and the vocabulary the student has and that even with the help of the instructor, the student will not get the meaning. A reader at the frustration level shows: a) comprehension below 50%; b) 50% or less correct word recognition; c) slow, halting reading; and b) signs of tension.

The Charecteristics of Good Readers

Good readers have the following characteristics:

- 1) At the outset, good readers activate their prior knowledge of the subject under study and make plausible predictions about the content of a text. When reading, they seek confirmation of their predictions. Should the predictions prove false, they revise them and then read on to seek confirmation of their adjusted predictions.
- 2) Good readers use effective strategies for thinking with, thinking about, and responding to a text. In other words, they initially attack a text by surveying the layout: the title, illustrations, and first/last lines in order to obtain a 'picture' of the topic. Once the topic is determined, they activate the relevant schemata (what they already know) to better understand the text by making new connections and associations. Thus, they constantly relate incoming information to previously stored knowledge. Clearly, good readers are completely 'engaged' in the reading process and as they proceed through the text, they continue to use other strategies and to set themselves different purposes for reading. For example, if they simply need to locate specific dates and places in a text, they skim quickly rejecting irrelevant information in order to zero in on what they are looking for. If, however, they need to find out what happened to a character in a story, they scan for more detailed comprehension.
- 3) Good readers monitor their own comprehension and know what to do when they do not understand. When the reading passge is difficult, they re-read more slowly or continue reading expecting the text to become easier. They use what they know to understand the unknown. For example, they use the context to make intelligent guesses of meaning of unfamiliar words. That is to say, they combine their knowledge of phonics, word elements (affixes) and context clues to analyze words and figure out their meaning. If these strategies fail, they ask themselves questions and try to find the answers in the text. Should comprehension break down completely, they resort to asking the help of others.
- 4) Good readers check their own comprehension at regular intervals. In other words, they stop reading and paraphrase texts in their own words or confer with a peer to check that both have understood the same thing.
- 5) Good readers are not afraid to take chances. On the contrary, they are not paralyzed

by a difficult text but are willing to guess the meaning and form, test hypotheses, and reformulate them should they prove to be false.

6) Good readers do not read in a word-by-word fashion but rather process print in saccades (eye sweeps), selecting the most relevant language cues to aid comprehension. They also maintain sufficient speed to avoid the pitfalls of tunnel vision, i.e., pointing at each word in turn, subvocabularizing and concentrating on the individual parts of a sentence rather than on the global meaning of the whole.

For example, good readers see the following sentence for the first time:

The semi-final was the best match in the European Cup.

They read the sentence in the following way:

The semi-final was the best match in the European Cup.

However, poor readers would read it as:

The semi-final was the best match in the the European Cup.

7) Good readers are flexible; the speed at which they read depends on the complexity of the text, their familiarity with the topic and their purpose for reading.

Pedagogical Implications

The interactive reading model discussed in the earlier parts of this chapter has the following implications:

- 1) Time must be spent on developing and expanding students' bottom-up skills. First, students need to engage in training exercises whereby they are required to rapidly and accurately identify lexical and grammatical forms. For example, rapid word and rapid phrase recognition exercises in which students match identical forms in timed exercises are vital for developing good decoding (identification) skills at a rapid rate. Beginning readers need a lot of practice in order to develop rapid recognition of recurring words and syntactic structures.
- 2) Teachers should build on the strong foundation of children's prior knowledge about their world (schemata). This can easily be effected by explicitly exploring the topic under study before students embark on reading. Students are encouraged to activate their existing schemata, while the teacher expands content vocabulary by preteaching and exposes students to new aspects of a given topic. Thus, when students begin reading, their attention is focused on the topic and their knowledge of the topic itself has expanded. When they begin to read per se they are able to integrate information in the text with what they already know. The textual information and the reader's schemata act together to produce meaning. Once understanding of the passage has been achieved, the teacher should continue schema building by capitalizing on students' overtly expressed interest in the topic and setting post-reading assignments such as mini-research projects and oral presentations.
- 3) Students need to develop a deeper and more detailed understanding of how text is constructed. To do this the teacher can provide tasks which involve students in focusing on finding main ideas, supporting details, word referents, cohesive devices, sequential order, and vocabulary in context. Moreover, they need to practice manipulating information, i.e., from prose to non-prose.
- 4) Readers, in general, perform with varying degrees of proficiency depending on the

demands of the particular topic. According to Estes and Vanghan (1978), material at the independent level is generally suitable for recreational reading. Of course, at times the child should be allowed to independently read material that is below and/or above this level. Material at the independent level may also be used for certain instructional purposes. For example, if the child is weak at phrasing or mechanical skills such as the proper use of voice in oral reading, material at the independent level would be suitable for instruction. The instructional level indicates that the material is suitable for use under the teacher's direction; serious errors are not numerous and comprehension is adequate. The material presents some challenge so that new skills can be acquired. That material at the frustration level is too difficult is indicated by numerous serious errors, inadequate comprehension, lack of fluency, and symptoms of tension or anxiety. Following is a summary of appropriate uses for selected levels of reading:

Level of Reading

Independent

Instructional

Frustration

Appropriate Use

Homework; extended learning activities; basic for discussion of concepts.

Discussions in class with directed help through instructions; homework after appropriate 'bridging of the gap' instruction. None

- 5) Beginning ESL students enjoy fables, fairy stories, simple narratives, descriptions, cartoon strips, etc. These authentic materials should also include texts with local settings on topics that students are familiar with. Most texts belong to a specific genre (type of literature). Therefore, once students have developed an awareness of story schemata and the redundancies inherent in this type of literature, their ability to interact with texts improves dramatically.
- 6) The teacher's ultimate aim is to get students "hooked on books" in such a way as to become life-long readers. By instilling a positive attitude towards reading, the teacher is, in effect, opening up new horizons in the areas of fantasy, adventure, general knowledge and culture. Another pivotal role is to bridge the gap between home and school as well as between the English language and other school disciplines (Maths, Science, Social Studies, etc.) by promoting an interdisciplinary approach to learning. More specifically, this implies encouraging students to bring in books from home and to have their parents read to them on a daily/weekly basis. The teacher should devote time to reading aloud to students on daily basis as well as to having students read silently on their own at scheduled periods of the day. As far as English across the curriculum is concerned, the teacher should seize the opportunity to link concepts and ideas acquired in English to related concepts in Science, Math or Social Studies. For example, when describing locations in English, students can also draw on their knowledge from Social Studies to describe the locations of certain cities on the map of Lebanon.
- 7) The types of questions the teacher formulates to check comprehension are of vital importance for the development of students' literal, critical and applied reading skills. Obviously one should start with global understanding and move towards detailed understanding rather than the other way around. Throughout, the teacher should be aware of the need to raise the level of challenge by moving from literal type

questions to questions which are more cognitively demanding. Similarly, the teacher should gradually introduce questions where there is no single straightforward answer and require students to exercise their powers of judgment and appreciation. As a general rule, questions should be flexible and varied; a balance should be maintained between explicit questions and those where students are required to interpret meaning by bringing their own experiences to the fore.

8) Teachers should set a purpose for reading. The general aim is to provide students with reading to learn activities. Although comprehension questions are inherently valuable, much can be gained by introducing more cognitively complex tasks which give students maximum opportunity to interact with the text. In practice, students should learn how to manipulate text-content by solving problems set up in a text, linking ideas presented in one reading passage to those introduced in another, and relating information and ideas to similar elements or experiences in their own lives.

The Stages of a Reading Lesson

A typical reading lesson is generally divided into three stages: pre-reading, midreading and post-reading.

The Pre-reading Stage

The objective at this stage is to activate or build up the students' background knowledge of the topic they are going to read about. This can be done through exploring visuals, discussing the topic, or brainstorming words associated with the topic. If the reading passage is relatively complex, the teacher may decide to preteach some key vocabulary items and concepts to facilitate comprehension. Once relevant schemata have been activated and expanded, students should preview or survey the text by examining illustrations, titles, opening lines, etc. Finally, students should be encouraged to formulate "wonder questions", i.e., questions they hope to get the answers to while reading.

The Mid-reading Stage

The goal at this stage is to help students comprehend the content of the text. This is generally known as the silent reading phase – the time when students are reading with the specific purpose of gleaning the gist of the text. Different tasks can be set up for this purpose; namely, pre-set questions, true/false statements, and graphic devices such as flow charts, story frames, and graphs to fill in. This technique should enable students working in teams to interact closely with the text and to be responsible for paraphrasing an individually assigned section. Once each individual has summarized his part, the team meets as a whole to reconstruct the entire text. Obviously, the teacher is best able to select tasks which not only promote active involvement but also develop specific reading skills.

The Post-reading Stage

The final stage of the reading lesson can be used for summarizing what has been acquired and relaying it to the students' personal experiences. It is equally important to use this stage for further schemata expansion if students show a genuine interest and desire to learn more about the topic under study. Bottom-up skills which focus on discrete elements such as specific grammar points, vocabulary items, word analysis and discourse patterns can also be addressed here. Moreover, this strategy is appropriate to

re-organize text content into new forms such as role-plays, creative writing and art work.

The three-stage reading lesson plan outlined above is simply a guideline for classroom instructors. It should be used judiciously and selectively. For instance, if students already have the required schemata for handling a particular topic, they may skip or gloss over the pre-reading stage.

The Cloze Procedure

In 1953, Wilson Taylor introduced a technique for measuring how well students could read a particular text or reading selection. He called it the cloze procedure. The cloze procedure may be defined as a "method of systematically deleting words from a prose selection and then evaluating the success of the reader in accurately supplying the words deleted" (Robinson, 1971, p.2). Since then, the cloze procedure has been intensively researched and applied in many ways. One of its most frequent uses has been as a method of determining the appropriateness of reading material for a particular group of students. However, the real value of cloze procedure lies in the fact that it is a global test; it assesses receptive and productive skills as well as the underlying knowledge of lexical and grammatical systems.

Consider the following sentences. As you read, try to replace the words which have been omitted:

Their accounts may be ———, but many consumers write ——— anyway

merchant turns — the check.

The degree to which you were successful in replacing the exact words deleted from the sentence can be considered an index of your ability to read the material from which it was taken. (The words deleted were empty, checks, recession, often, get, money, and in).

The followings steps are recommended in the construction of a cloze passage:

- Select a reading passage that your students have not yet read. It should be approximately 300 words in length.
- 2. Type the first sentence intact. Starting with the nth (n = 7 + 2) word in the second sentence, delete every nth word. Replace each deletion with an underlined blank fifteen spaces long.
- Finish the sentence in which the nth deletion occurs. Type one more sentence 3. intact.

Once a cloze test has been constructed, it is a simple matter to demonstrate it in a classroom. To guide you in this, follow these steps:

- Provide directions which might read. "You are to fill in the blanks in the following selection with the word that has been left out. Try to supply the exact word the author used. Only one word has been deleted from each blank. You will have as much time as necessary to complete this exercise."
- If the students are unfamiliar with the task, show them some examples prior to handing out the activity sheet.

- The students are not to use any books or materials when completing the activity.
- 4. Let students know that they should try to use context clues to determine what word fits each blank.
- 5. Allow them as much time as necessary to complete the task.

Sample Exercises on the Cloze Procedure

Directions: Choose the best words from the list below to complete the meaning.

The New House

Mrs Alexander was trying to fix dinner. First, though, she had to find where the boxes marked for the kitchen had ————. The boys had unloaded the station wagon in a hurry and ———— back to the old house to get the final load of boxes.

"What's the use?" she said aloud. "Put the food in the bedroom. Put the pots and pans in the bathroom. Put the underwear in the refrigerator". Her voice rose along with her —

"Mom, I don't have the ———." Little Mark looked around at the boxes. "How come we have to put it in the refrigerator?" Why do we have to do everything different? Mark started to cry while he talked and peeled — off boxes. "Can't we have drawers in our bedroom in this house? I don't like new houses. I like old apartments. I can't have my friends, can't ride elevators, can't have drawers for my stuff. And I'm hungry, too. No milk or apples in the refrigertor in our new house."

- 1. a passed
 - b. burned
 - c. gone
 - d. left
- 4. a. bucket
 - b. underwear
 - c. newspaper
 - d. flashlight

- 2. a. rushed
 - b. spread
 - c. jumped
 - d. paddled
- 5. a. tape
- - b. heat
 - c. coffee
 - d. thunder

3. a. esteem

- b. prestige
- c. frustration
- d. appropriation

The Language Experience Approach

The Language Experience Approach considers learning to read as part of the process of language development. It recognizes the close relationship among reading, speaking, writing, and listening. It realizes that progress in reading is determined by the extent of the child's experiences in all these language media, prior to and during his early school years. Supporters of this approach clearly see that a child cannot be expected to deal with ideas of language in reading that are much more advanced than those he can speak or write.

Within such a philosophical framework, books become a source tool rather than a basic device to teach children to read. Books and readers help supply the many experiences, the depth of meaning for the words which the child needs to express his ideas in oral and written work. Many other classroom and extra-classroom activities, plus teacher instruction and demonstration further this development of concepts which will be translated into words. Learning to read then, in the Language Experience Approach, is interpreted as development in thinking and expression of language.

In this approach to reading, the level of language at which the beginner experiences frustrations is not highly significant. He may be language-deprived, or able to use the language easily. Progress becomes an individual matter whereby each child moves towards more complex language patterns which help convey his thoughts.

To summarize, the Language Experience Approach is designed to develop the language competencies essential for the promotion of reading. It provides each child with opportunities to:

- experience communication in various situations
- study aspects of communication
- relate the ideas of others to self.

Four types of activities integral to the development of these experiences are included: language acquisition, language prediction, language recognition, and language production.

Linguistic Rationale

- 1. The beginning reader must be taught to view reading as a communication process.
- 2. The beginning reader is a user of language.
- 3. The beginning reader should understand the reading process as one consciously relating print to oral language.
- 4. The beginning reader should incorporate the learning of writing with the learning of reading.
- 5. The beginning reader should learn to read meaningful language.
- 6. The beginning reader should learn to read orally with smooth, fluent expression.

Philosophy

- * Field trips
- * School activities
- * Personal experiences
- * Directions, observations, answers to questions, and imaginative stories.

Procedure

- * Share experience
- * Discuss experience
- * Find title
- * Suggest details in the story
- * Write the resulting sentences on the board
- * Call attention to capitalization and punctuation
- * Read written ideas aloud
- * Make copies for everyone
- * Divide students into groups
- * Prepare activities and go over them in class
 - Match words and phrases
 - $\ Recognition$
 - Comprehension

Advantages

* Motivation

- * Meaningful comunication
- * Good self-concept
- * Remedial work

Limitations

- * Lack of sequencing of skills
- * No systematic reflection
- * No systematic presentation of new words
- * Availability of time for full activity
- * Limited experiences of learners.

Implications

The Language Experience Approach can be used with students of all ages and abilities. It provides a total language arts curriculum that can be implemented with a single group, a whole classroom, or across a whole school.

Whole class activities are suggested for the following:

- a. Reading aloud to or by children,
- b. Oral discussion of topics of interest,
- c. Oral composition of stories,
- d. Films, filmstrips, and other audiovisual presentations,
- e. Introduction and demonstrations of games or learning centers,
- f. Seminars on various skills
- g. Singing, rhymes, choral reading, or unison reading.

Group activities are suggested for the following:

- a. Teacher giving dictation to one child,
- b. Children working, reading, or playing games with each other,
- c. Teacher reading with individuals or groups,
- d. Meeting a group's skill needs,
- e. Completing work initiated with class,
- f. Editing manuscripts for publication
- g. Planning and rehearsing dramatizations

Individual activities are suggested for the following:

- a. Conferring with students about writing individual stories,
- b. Conferring with students concerning their progress,
- c. Helping with spelling or word recognition,
- d. Giving dictation to individuals for whom sharing would be inappropriate.

Language Experience Approach-A Model Lesson

Objective:

To teach children to recognize the word where; to understand the function of where in forming a question; and to reinforce the question mark(?) as punctuation for a question.

Materials:

Big piece of paper, several selected color pictures, paper, black marking pen, easel, and construction paper.

Steps:

- 1. Start the lesson by saying, "Today we are going to study another magic word that helps us ask questions. Watch me write it for you". (Write **where** in the center of the paper) & "Can anyone read this magic word for me?" (if no response, say the word for the children).
- 2. Next, read a statement and then say, "Using our magic word where I can make a question out of my statement. Listen carefully. The statement is 'Your book is on my desk'. Now the question I make will begin with where... 'Where is your book?' Now, I will write it for you to see." (Write "Where is your book?" on the paper on the easel.)
- 3. Ask students to volunteer statements; then change them into where-questions and write them down. Ask the child whether the transformed statement is correctly punctuated, or what punctuation mark should go after the last word.
- 4. Repeat step three until you run out of space on the big paper. Then stop.
- 5. Reread all sentences several times. First let the children read with you, and then they read as a group.
- 6. Ask the children to think of something to draw and to entitle their drawing with a where question about the picture. Demonstrate this idea by showing several pictures, encouraging children to ask questions about each picture's content, and write their question on a second sheet for them to see. Later, circulate around the room to help anyone who needs to have the title written.

Model Pre-Reading Activity

Three-Level Guide to "The Surprise" Story (following page):

I. Directions:

Check the item you believe expresses what the author is talking about. Sometimes the exact words will be used; other times other words may be used.

- 1. His mother worked as a magician.
- 2. His mother worked outside.
- 3. He had a sister.
- 4. The door to the house was locked.
- 5. He wanted a second-hand bicycle.
- 6. He robbed some money from his mother's room.
- 7. He kept the secret of his discovery.

II. Directions:

Put a check on the line beside any of the statements below which you think are reasonable interpretations of the author's meaning.

- 1. He admired his mother.
- 2. His mother knew how to economize.
- 3. He was a very sensitive boy.
- 4. He felt that his mother owed him a present.
- 5. The family was rather poor.
- 6. The narrator took a decision.

7. He will pretend to be very surprised on Christmas day.

III. Directions:

To apply what you read means to take information and ideas from what you have read and connect them to what you know. Place a check in the blank beside any statements below which are supported by statements in Level 3 and by previous experience or study. Be sure you can defend your answers.

- 1. Mothers are always ready to sacrifice to make their children happy.
- 2. Being loved is a wonderful feeling.
- 3. Lying makes other people happy.
- 4. Secrets are hard to keep.

A Three Level Guide Demonstration

The Surprise By Russell Baker

(My mother) was a magician at stretching a dollar. That December, with Christmas approaching, she was out to work and (my sister) Doris was in the kitchen when I barged into her bedroom which opened onto a community hallway. She kept the door locked, but needing the pin, I took the key from its hiding place, unlocked the door, and stepped in. Standing against the wall was a big, black bicycle with balloon tires. I recognized it instantly. It was the same secondhand bike I'd been admiring in a Baltimore shop window. I'd even asked about the price. It was horrendous. Something like \$15. Somehow my mother had scraped together enough for a down payment and meant to surprise me with the bicycle on Christmas morning.

I was overhelmed by the discovery that she had squandered such money on me and sickened by the discovery that I had robbed her of the pleasure of seeing me astonished and delighted on Christmas Day. I hadn't wanted to know her lovely secret; still stumbling upon it like this made me feel as though I'd struck a blow against her happiness. I backed out, put the key back in its hiding place, and brooded privately.

I resolved that between now and Christmas I must do nothing, absolutely nothing, to reveal the slightest hint of my terrible knowledge. I must avoid the least word, the faintest intonation, the weakest gesture that might reveal my possession of her secret. Nothing must deny her the happiness of seeing me stunned with amazement on Christmas Day.

A Model Reading Lesson

The Reading Passage

Lara listened to the tape that the teacher was playing to the class. "So fast," she thought. She was upset. She listened to every sentence, but could understand only one or two words in each. Suddenly the tape stopped and she heard the teacher call on her saying, "Please repeat the first sentence, Lara."

She did not remember the first sentence, and that made her feel panicky and

ashamed. She put her head down on the desk, looked at the floor and said nothing.

The teacher let the class go to lunch, but asked Lara to stay for a minute. "What is the matter, Lara?" she asked.

"I didn't understand any of the reading," Lara said.

Pre-and Mid Reading Tasks

I. Pre-questions and Key Words and Phrases

- 1. Teacher stimulates student interest by telling them that the story they are going to read is about a schoolgirl with a problem. The problem involves a tape recorder, sentences, and understanding. The teacher asks students to listen for answers to the following questions:
 - a. What is the problem?
 - b. What happens to the people in the story?
 - c. Can you think of any way(s) to help solve the problem?
- 2. Before the students see the passage, the teacher reads the first part to them, stopping and asking questions on selected points.
 - a. The teacher stops after line 2 and asks: What does **upset** mean? Why do you think Lara was upset?
 - b. After reading the next sentence, the teacher asks: How do you think Lara felt?
 - c. After reading lines 5 and 6, the teacher asks: What do you think Lara did?

The teacher does not confirm students' answers as right or wrong. After getting possible answers from students, she asks them to open their books and read the story silently in a specified amount of time, say 45 seconds to one minute. When the time is up, the teacher discusses the questions again with the class, acknowledging which of the early answers were closest to the story, but also acknowledging the great number of other possibilities which might have been true in a real life situation.

II. Post-reading

Tasks - Information, Inferential, and Interpretative or Open-Ended Questions:

1. The teacher asks the following questions, expecting short answers:

Information: Who is the story about?

What happened to her?

Inferences: Why did Lara put her head down on the desk?

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CHAPTER SIX

Teaching Vocabulary

Aims of the Unit:

- To underscore the importance of vocabulary as a skill.
- To provide techniques for introducing and demonstrating the meanings of new words.
- To explore basic techniques for presenting new vocabulary.
- To show trainees how to reinforce and reactivate newly-acquired lexis.
- To present strategies to help students meaningfully encode new words.

I. Definition of Vocabulary

We use vocabulary to express ourselves and to function in society. Vocabulary, therefore, has a communicative purpose in that we select specific words from our repertoires to complete a communicative exchange. Obviously, a person who does not have the required vocabulary at his disposal will fail to communicate his message. But what do we actually mean when we say that a person "knows" a word? Knowing a word means being aware of the following:

- a) Knowing what a word means (for example, the meaning of the word "table").
- b) Knowing how it is connected to other words which mean similar things (e.g. desk).
- c) Knowing what other meanings it can have (e.g. "I'm learning the two times table" or "The teacher gave us our new time-table" ot "There is a table of figures on page 5.")
- d) Knowing how the word changes depending on its grammar.
- e) Knowing the grammar of the word (e.g. you place an object, on, beside, a table.)
- f) Perhaps most importantly, knowing what kind of situations the word is used in and who might use it.
- g) Knowing how to analyze words by dividing them into their root forms and forming derivatives by adding appropriate affixes.
- h) Knowing that you can guess at the meanings of unfamiliar words by using clues available in the context.

All this information is part of "knowing" a word: it is information that native speakers of the language have without even realizing it.

II. Goals of Vocabulary Teaching

One major goal in teaching vocabulary is to help students master a variety of skills that will help them communicate effectively in and out of the classroom (speaking and writing). As he learns words from a variety of sources in a number of ways, the student becomes ready to communicate his needs in realistic situations rather than in artificially contrived ones.

Another major goal is for the student to realize that the more precise his choice of words is, the clearer his ideas will be. Similarly, the more root words he acquires, especially those whose origin is either Greek or Latin, the better his understanding and communication will be.

The natural place for learning new vocabulary is through reading. To read effectively, the reader must know the meanings of enough of the words in a sentence for it to make sense. He must also know how to combine individual word meanings within a sentence. Once the student is past the initial stages of reading, he spends a large percentage of his time encountering new vocabulary.

Words are tools which one ought to learn how to operate or use in the right place at the right time. That is why words are sometimes referred to as explosive tools in communication.

Learning words is therefore directly related to the needs of the student and his particular desire to understand what is being read or spoken at a specific time. It becomes evident that when the student is involved in something relevant and meaningful to him, he will be able to learn new words and use them effectively. A pre-selected vocabulary list of "frequently" used words will not necessarily ensure mastery of meaning and comprehension of texts. People need a lot of words to read well, and they ought to read extensively to learn new words.

For the native speaker of English, the most common form of vocabulary building is guessing from context and/or word formations. Possessors of this skill in reading and listening are those who are somehow adjusted to encounter low frequency (often quite unfamiliar) vocabulary items and to somehow work out a meaning for them in the context in which they are ENCOUNTERED...

In short, the basic skill in vocabulary expansion is the habit of guessing from the context, using both grammatical and pragmatic clues. This habit appears to be normal in listening to and reading the native language, for those who really listen and read. It is not automatic in dealing with a foreign language. (Twaddell, 1972, p. 174)

In referring to vocabulary development, Nagy (1989) suggests that learning occurs both incidentally and directly. That is, much of students' knowledge about words will occur through wide and frequent reading as well as through informal word play and word exploration: "Increasing the volume of students' reading is the most important thing teachers can do to promote large-scale vocabulary growth" (Nagy, 1989, p.32). The balance of word learning will occur in direct teaching contexts in which the teacher presents information. They must further exercise this knowledge in writing.

Fundamentally, vocabulary development can be considered in items of elaboration – the growth of existing concepts associated with particular words, and expansion – the development of new concepts and the new vocabulary that represents them.

III. The Teacher's Role in Facilitating the Acquisition of Vocabulary:

In order for the student to master new words, it is advisable that the teacher help him in the acquisition process. This he can do in a number of ways:

- 1. Help students become aware of the words that they do not know.
- 2. Guess at the meaning of words from context or word parts.
- 3. Create a need for them to want to use words to exchange information in any communicative activity.
- 4. Select those words which are appropriate to their level and interest.
- 5. Consider the range of usefulness and the frequency of occurrence of the words to be learnt.

6. Anticipate pronunciation, grammatical, spelling, and other problems that might hamper mastery of words. Example:

 $\underline{\mathbf{ch}}$ alk, $\operatorname{com}\underline{\mathbf{b}}$

homework not homeworks

chalk not chalks played but paid leisure but believe

science but receive

etc.

7. Consider teaching word attack skills

(roots and affixes)

Example:

pose: sup-pose

im-pose

pre-pos-ition com-pos-ition

com-pose

Obviously, knowledge of roots and affixes in English is invaluable. Hence, a study of this vocabulary component is productive for EFL students. They learn that prefixes change the meaning of the stems, whereas suffixes change their parts of speech. This is one sure way of guessing at the meanings of words without having to depend on the use of a dictionary. Examples:

Prefixes
un-: Not
de-: Down
im-: Not
sub-: Under

Suffixes
-tion: noun
-ize: verb
-ive: adjectives
-ly: adverb

- 8. Consider the types of words to be taught:
 - Function words (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliaries, etc.) needed to operate the structures of language.
 - Content words or lexical units which refer to our experience of reality (words: book, polite, on, etc.)

parts of words: un-de-ment, etc.

compound words: classroom, postman, newspaper, etc.

Content words are important for one to communicate basic needs, to request the things one would like to have, or to specify the actions one wants done/not done. (These can be selected on the basis of the importance to one's students.)

- 9. Consider the fact that NOT all words in a lesson need become ACTIVE. Some will remain PASSIVE. One's active vocabulary is very small compared with the passive one. A student usually recognizes more words than he can produce.
- 10. Consider concentrating at the beginning level on function words, the most frequently used words which are related to the environment and experience of the students, and cognates (coffee, sugar, algebra, magazine, etc.) which are easy to teach. AVOID teaching or even referring to the multi-meaning of words such as fast. For example, Moslems fast in Ramadan.

A fast reader.

11. Initially, emphasize the denotative meaning of the word (its dictionary meaning) rather than its connotative meaning, that which we attach to words through our emotional experience. Examples:

A rose is a flower.————Denotative Suha is a rose.————Connotative

12. Consider teaching the distinction between the specific and the general and between the general and the vague:

SPECIFIC Volley-Ball

GENERAL

VAGUE Extra-Curricular

Sports

Activities

13. Remember that IDIOMS are important elements of the English language. However, they often confront the learner with obscurity and unintelligibility.

Example 1 Run: to move quickly

- a. The colors in the dress ran when it was washed. (spread colors over materials).
- b. A thought ran through my head. (passed quickly)
- c. To run a karate club is quite challenging.
- d. As the story runs (to go or proceed) everything seams to be fine.
- e. To **run** into debt (to be in a state of debt), is one of the worst things that might happen.
- f. To run out of money is not the end of the world (finish).

Example 2:

- a. Ahmad is a real dark horse. He never shares his secrets.
- b. Hold your horses! I haven't finished yet.
- c. Of course, it's true. I heard it form the horse's mouth.
- d. Don't make a mountain out of a molehill. I'm sure the exam will be easy.
- e. It's raining cats and dogs. Don't leave without your umbrella.

IV. Building Vocabulary

1. Kinds of Context Clues

Students should be trained to understand the meaning of a certain word without having to resort to the dictionary at the outset. They should learn to guess at the meaning through reference to a number of clues in contexts, such as:

- A. Definition or direct explanation
- 1. Walid had no feeling of hatred, or dislike in his heart.
- 2. The Red Cross aids people in an emergency.
- B. Contrast
- 1. Betty likes to **peer** in the aquarium to watch the fish, but Lily doesn't often look at the aquarium.
- 2. Finally we reached the **jagged** top of the mountain, then we trudged down to the flat plain below.
- C. Experience
- 1. Last week May fell down on the ice-covered bridge. This morning she is walking cautiously across that bridge.
- 2. When Munir misbehaved again, the teacher had to punish him.

D. From the action performed

Those who were seriously hurt in the air crash hoped that the medicine they were given would lessen their suffering.

E. Clues in another sentence

Tom repaired the hole in the fence. Father was very pleased he had mended it.

F. Clues provided by example

Politeness means having good manners and being considerate of others. A polite man gave up his seat to an elderly woman.

G. Understanding words through their parts (analysis):

Sometimes long words make a student hesitate in his reading and lose the sense of what is stated as a result.

Obviously, it is necessary to train them how to divide the word into its base and parts.

Example: polite - ness
un - able
teach - er
un - believe - able

In addition one can increase the student's vocabulary count by relating the newly acquired words to his accumulated fund of knowledge – to what he/she will have learned and experienced or gained firsthand or through reading. Reading enlarges one's horizons and breadth of understanding. It is worth mentioning here that one should avoid improper reading habits; that is, skipping over unfamiliar words without bothering to guess at their meaning from context. If he/she can restate in his/her own words what he reads, he/she can then claim mastery of words.

- 2. The dictionary is a very useful source to which students should be referred for a number of considerations, especially those that relate to:
 - singular and plural of nouns, regular and irregular verb forms,
 - pronunciation, syllabication, parts of speech,
 - etymology, meaning, etc.

It should be pointed out to students that a word has more than one meaning, but one must be able to decide which meaning applies to which context. One useful technique is to determine its base and affixes which have definite meanings that provide clues to the new word. This is like "carrying a master key to unlock a hundred doors instead of carrying a separate key for each lock". It is worth mentioning at this stage that because the ability to use a dictionary is so important in helping the student teach him/herself, teachers should have many exercises to train their students to become familiar with it.

3. The use of pictures and drawings as well as the ability to dramatize are practiced techniques that lend themselves to vocabulary acquisition. In this context, teachers are urged to teach vocabulary items that are conducive to communication: those that are used in talking to people about events, places, activities, and the like; those that make students respond to routine, classroom directions and commands; those that classify, describe, and compare people, animals, countries, etc, and those that are particularly useful for a specific academic interest.

V. Organizing the Teaching of Vocabulary.

Young children are quick to learn words which have tangible and immediate meaning. Indeed, vocabulary is best learned when the meaning of the word(s) is illustrated, for example, by a picture, an action, or real object. The children should then meet and use the word(s) in relevant contexts in order to "fix" them in their minds. This helps establish their relationship to other words, so that a vocabulary network is built up. Once the instructor has made a decision as to what items to teach she/he has to decide on an appropriate technique. Whether engaged in teaching adults or children it seems logical that different techniques are needed for teaching different item types: e.g., idioms, sets of related words.

The underlying assumption is that different techniques are appropriate for different words and that the technique used depends to a large extent on the objectives the teacher has for teaching the vocabulary.

Although there are many different ways to teach vocabulary items, it is possible to recommend one general approach which can be used. The easiest and clearest way to present this approach is in a formula which, though not rigid, can be used as a guide (Celce-Murcia 1979). The approach recommended by Celce-Murcia allows the teacher to present five or six selected words in about twenty minutes. It is the most general of the techniques presented and can be applied to teaching almost any word.

- Step 1: Lead-in. The teacher establishes a context in which to teach the word. This can be done by asking questions or by simply making statements.
- Step 2: Convey meaning. The teacher can convey the meaning of a word through various devices such as definition, active demonstration, visual aids, synonyms and antonyms, mime or translation. These devices are self-explanatory and often two or more can be used to clarify the meaning of the word. Once the meaning has been understood, the word should be used in a model sentence which will further convey the meaning.
- Step 3: Repetition of the word. The students should repeat the word in isolation until they have no difficulties pronouncing it. A difficult word should be repeated often enough so that most of the students can say it correctly if called upon.
- Step 4: Verification. The teacher needs to verify that the students have understood the word. This can be done by asking a question in which the students' response will show whether or not they have understood the meaning. The students are not yet required to use the word.
- Step 5: Use. The teacher asks the students some open-ended questions which will allow for varied student answers; each question should explore the use of the word in context and allow the students to practice using it.
- Step 6: Model sentence. A model sentence using the word should either be put on the blackboard or directed to the students. The model sentence should be constructed so that when the students read the model sentence after class, they will understand the meaning of the word from the context of the sentence. Periodically, the students' notebooks should be collected to check over their sentences.

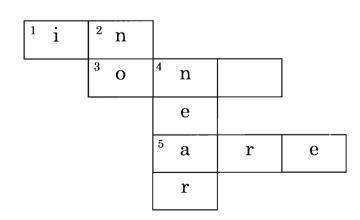
An example will clarify the above approach. The item being taught is the meaning of the word **stubborn**.

- Step 1: Lead in. Mr. Khoury is very stubborn.
- Step 2: Convey meaning. Mr. Khoury is so stubborn that once he has made up his mind no one can make him change it.

 (The teacher might use the gesture of pounding a fist on a table to dramatize the meaning.)
- Step 3: Repetition. Stubborn, stubborn....
- Step 4: Verification. When your father kept on refusing to buy you a bicycle for no particular reason, was he stubborn?
- Step 5: <u>Use.</u> Do you think it's good for teachers and parents to be stubborn? Who is usually more stubborn, your mother or your father? (Varied answers).
- Step 6: Model sentence. When my mother first forbade me to watch television, I thought she would change her mind, but she was stubborn about it.

It is important to consolidate new vocabulary by systematically engaging in followup activities which allow students to activate newly-acquired lexis. This is the only way to ensure that real learning takes place and that the new words are meaningfully encoded in long-term memory. Following are samples of vocabulary activities which provide for meaningful consolidation of newly acquired lexis:

- 1. **Fill-in:** Write the statement as a definition or with context clues and let each blank stand for one letter of the word. To make it easy, provide half the letters of the word. Examples:
 - a. **definition:** A geometric figure is a **-q-a-e-**. (square)
 - b. context clues: The sun sets in the --st (west)
- 2. **Topics for discussion:** Introduce a topic for discussion and ask students to give vocabulary which can be used to discuss the topic. This is an exercise in word association. Students could be given questions which, when answered, use vocabulary related to the topic. Proficient students should be encouraged to provide topic vocabulary with little help from the teacher. Topics chosen should have been introduced in reading class beforehand.
- 3. **Crossword Puzzles:** Though crossword puzzles are usually difficult for the non-native speaker of English they are, however, a source of interest and challenge to both old and young. In this component of the course teachers are called upon to provide relatively easy-to-manage puzzles in order for students to activate their use of words. Crossword puzzles are made easier through the use of definitions or context clues:



ACROSS: 1. I live-Beirut.

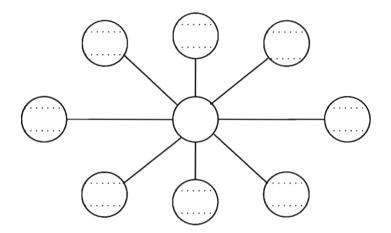
3. Put it-the table

5. part of the verb 'to be'

DOWN: 2. negative......

4. not far.....

- 4. It is generally accepted that vocabulary is best learned (and taught) in groups of related words. Such groups are sometimes referred to as 'lexical sets' or 'word families' which draw students' attention to the relationship between words.
 - a. Categories: Give students a list of words which they must put into two or more categories, for example FRUITS or VEGETABLES: bananas, carrots, apples, oranges, potatoes, beans, pears, strawberries.
 - b. *Networking:* The teacher writes the new word under study in a circle on the blackboard, e.g. HORSE. She then asks students to come up with words associated with the word **horse.** She records them on the network in the following way:



- c. Make lists of:
 - 4 jungle animals
 - 4 zoo animals
 - 4 things that have two legs
 - 4 things that are made of wood
 - 4 things you find on the beach
- d. Odd Man Out: Here are three sets of words. In each set there is one word that does not belong in that set. Find it and write a sentence that tells why it is different. (After each member of your group has done this, compare your answers with those of the other members of your group).
 - 1. book/magazine/cucumber (cucumber is different, because people don't read it.)
 - 2. coffee/rice/juice (—— is different, because people don't ——— it).
 - 3. paper/tennis/football

Cloze: Write paragraphs (the shorter, the easier) leaving blanks (the more blanks, the more difficult) for words you wish to test. At first, give the students the list of words (not in order) at the end of the paragraph and they must fill the blanks with the correct word. To make it a bit more difficult, give more words than blanks. Finally, give no words and let the students provide them.

Hani is my friend———. He is———years old. He———to school with me. We like———class the best. It's great fun. (brother, ten, goes, English).

6. Use cards on which the student puts relevant information to remember the word.

Word Sentence to show its meaning

Meaning(s)
Miscellaneous information

Side 1

Side 2

- 7. Here are six English words for things. Write a sentence about the most common or ordinary use of each thing. Then list three other possible uses.
 - 1. Spoon

We use a spoon for eating. Other possible uses for a spoon are (1) digging a hole, (2) carrying an egg from the stove to the sink, and (3) taking a fly out of a bowl of soup.

Do the same with the words below;

2. pencil

4. pillow

6. umbrella

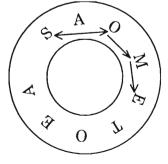
3. tablecloth

5. toothbrush

- 8. Teachers should regularly provide exercises which train students to make active use of context clues to work out the meaning of new words. This kind of training will eliminate the panic that usually arises whenever a reader encounters a new word when he is reading. Moreover, it will gradually do away with overdependence on the dictionary or the teacher as sources. Furthermore, this kind of training develops self-confidence and independence, both of which are important survival skills in the academic world. Following are examples of exercises which train students to guess meaning from context.
 - 1. The little girl was so **curious** that she opened the box as soon as her mother's back was turned.
 - 2. **Disaster** struck the town when the hurricane arrived with violent winds that shattered everything in their path.
 - 3. Most frogs sleep during winter and awaken again in early spring.
 - 4. Hania was astonished when it snowed in August.
 - 5. What is that tiny **creature** crawling over my desk?
- 9. Word games provide students with the opportunity to experiment with new words and create new combinations. Moreover they help students realize that certain words are important because, without those words, the object of the game cannot be achieved. Guessing games, for example, create conditions in which the use of the target vocabulary is vital for leading the students to correct guesses.

Following are some examples:

a. Make as many words as you can from these letters in the clock. Move clockwise only.



Ex	ample <i>so</i>		
	some etc.		
	met, etc.		
b.	Word Magic		
	When one letter of a word	changes to another letter,	, a new word is sometimes
	formed. Change one word i	nto another by following	this process:
	Тор		
	map		
	mat		
	hat		
c.	Unscramble the following	words:	
	e.g. k o b o book		
	sohue	lcabk	
	osclho	npe	
	rngeao	hitwe	
	gbi	nos	
	ornth	sye	
d.	Make as many words as yo		E
	e.g. let, at, tea, tale, eat, at		
e.	Put parts together to make		
		DEN	THER
	ELE	FA	SOME
	CAP	KET	TAIN
	BAS	GER	ER
	HAND		PHANT
f.	Write words which rhyme	with:	
	1. Pen —		
	2. Pack ————		
	3. Feel ————		
	4. Red —		
g.	Write words that rhyme an	id have	
	1. The same spelling as:		
	_	sight	
	2. Different spelling but sa	* *	
	prize buys wise lies sig	ghs	
h.	Write words that end with:		
	1ft left		
	2ment	——— measurement	
i.	Give words that contain do	ouble letters:	
	1. pp ———— co j		
	2. tt written — —		
	3. cc — accent —		
	4. gg beggar —————		
j.	Give words in which the le	etters listed below follow e	each other:
-	ak		

– steam

st -

k.	In place of "P" in "PINK" write:
	S W
	Th ———— St —————
l.	Fill in the blanks to make meaningful words which are spelt with "ea" or "oa"
	"ai/ay" or other pairs.
	Used for wearing: c — t — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —
	The mouth of a bird: b k
m.	Use one or two consonants to complete these words:
	to — football — ay
	to go to s ool
n.	True or false. Put T if the sentence is true; F, if false:
•	1. I bought a pair of milk.
	2. Samia works very hardly.
	3. The Mona Lisa is a famous song.
	4. To precede someone is to go after him.
_	5. I do a mistake in spelling.
Ο.	Fill in the missing letters to complete the definitions:
	1. q - a - e is a geometric figure. (square)
	2. to $-\mathbf{u}$ – to obtain in exchange for money (buy)
	3. b — t — u — lovely, pretty or pleasant (beautiful)
p.	Unscramble these words whose definitions are given:
	1. b r o d a — wide
	2. s e y a — not difficult
	3. u e r f s e — turn back what is offered
q.	Alphabet Games:
	S1 says: I bought an apple.
	S2 says: I bought an apple and a book. (a,b,c)
	S3 etc.
	T. I am thinking of — (things in the classroom, library, kitchen)
	S1 Asks: Yes/No questions to know the answer.
	(Use of prepositions of place)
	S1 Is it on the table? on the shelf? in the drawer? etc.
r	Antonyms
1.	T. My mother encourages me to speak English all the time, but my sister———
	me.
	S. discourages
~	
s.	How many words can you make using letters in the KEY word. You may use
	each letter only once.
	KEY: beautiful dreamt elementary
t.	ANAGRAMS: An anagram is a word or phrase made by re-arranging the letters
	of another word or phrase. Complete the following:
	Arts star
	War raw team meat
	Won ——— tale late
	Pear ———
u.	Pronounce these words from right to left:

Pronunciation Reversals: (sound, not spelling)

read	dear
tap	dean
feel	tail
mail	peek
peel	ten
mate	cab

v. Add CONSONANTS to the following VOWEL GROUPS:

– ea –	– ee –	a - e
-i-e	a-g	a
- 00 -	– u – e	a e -

w. Missing letters

AEIOU

Use these letters to make the words:

- 1. r ng 2. r 3. J rd n 4. h rs 5. p n 6. r p - t a fruit a country a n animal We write with it. to say over and over
- x. Making Words: Make as many words as you can by taking a letter from each column:

1. Beginning	Middle	End
dr	i	te
el	a	ng
1	u	st
st	0	p
h		mp
		n
		w

2. Make as many words as you can. Follow the procedure described in x-1

g	ir	t
t	ur	ns
n	ou	se
b	a	d
sh		1
pr		st
		V

y. Use Al or AY to make each group of letters into a word. Pay special attention to your spelling.

1. I ——d	11. holid ——
2. st — d	12. br — n
3. l——	13. pl — n
4. r —— l	14. dr — n
5. p — n	15. str — ght
6. st — ed	16. m — or

7. r — n	17. w ——
8. s ——	18. m — nt — n
9. tr —— l	19. compl — n
10. ag — nst	20. reg —— n

See Appendix A for further examples of vocabulary activities

Assignments/Discussion Questions for Trainee-Teachers

- 1. Apply the Celce-Murcia 5-step procedure to teach the word friendly. Then describe in detail what you would actually say in each step.
- 2. Study the following words: get up, late, rush, the clock, hungry, horrible, and laugh. Consider a variety of ways of teaching this group of words in a meaningful way to students. Discuss in groups at least three techniques for introducing the words and then present your ideas in the form of a mini-lesson.
- 3. You have just taught students classroom vocabulary (blackboard, chalk, desk, etc.). Devise five follow-up activities which provide you with feedback on how well students have absorbed these new lexical items.

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Appendix A

1. Fill in the blanks with the correct word from the list given below:

bathrooms	shelves	garage	stove
bedroom	dresser	sink	refrigerator
dining room	floor	stairs	coffee table
1. You sleep in yo	ur ————	 .	
2. People usually	eat in the ———	 .	
3. A librarian puts	s books on ———	 ,	
4. A housewife kee	eps milk in a ———	 ,	
5. My mother cool	ks on a ————	 .	
6. She washes dish	nes in the ———	 ,	
7. People take sho	wers in ———	 .	
8. One keeps clothes in a ————.			
9. In winter we pu	t rugs on the ——	 .	
10. A mechanic rep	airs cars in a ——	 ,	

2. TWENTY QUESTIONS

Students try to guess something that you have chosen, using 20 yes-no questions or less. Students could ask about:

- 1. Something you have in a bag or box (a good way to introduce anything that you are bringing to class).
- 2. Something in the room that everyone can see.
- 3. A person/place/thing from a recent lesson or that everyone knows about Sample practice structures:

"Is there a/Are there some/any (noun) in the box/bag?"

"Do you have a/any (noun/s)?"

"Are you thinking of ———?"

"Is it/Are they (adj)?"

"Does it/Do they (verb)?"

"Can I (verb) it/them?"

You may want to bend the rules and include certain wh-questions:

"What color is it?"

"Where can I find it?"

"When would I use it?"

"Why would I have it?"

"How big is it?"

"How much does it cost?"

"How many are there in your bag?"

Almost any question would be fair except, of course, "What is it?"

3. WHO AM I?

Each student has the name of a famous person or character taped to his/her back. Student must ask the others yes-no questions to guess who he/she is. You might have one student at a time come up in front of the class to ask, or have a

"mill-around" period of about 10 minutes where students all get up, look at each others' names, ask, and answer. The teacher should be careful to choose names that are familiar to all the students.

HANGMAN

Think of a word which is familiar to the class and put the appropriate number of spaces on the board. (Five spaces for a 5-letter word, seven for a 7-letter word, etc.): For example:

Draw a "hangman's scaffold" next to it, like this:

Students must guess the letters in the word, and eventually, the word itself. A correct guess is rewarded by a letter in the correct blank.

An incorrect guess is penalised by putting one part of the "man" on the "scaffold". Students try to guess the word before you complete the "man". For long and difficult words, you can extend the game by adding more and more detailed features to your man: fingers, toes facial expressions, etc.

____h____e

This is a good 5-10 minute filler at the end of class; good for revising new vocabulary or spelling problems.

5. Fill in the blanks to make meaningful words.

All the words are spelt with **EA** or **OA**. They have a long **E** or long **O** sound.

- 1. Used for washing
 - s p
- J. Who always goes to bed with shoes on?

A horse

K. When is a cook bad?

When he beats an egg.

- L. X. What is the outside of a tree?
 - Y. I don't know.
 - X. BARK, Sami, BARK.
 - Y. (After a pause): Bow, Bow, Bow.
- t ----- d 2. A little frog r ----- d 3. People travel on it. c ----- t 4. You wear it in winter. 5. A wild animal 6. It rhymes with "SEE." _____ ch 7. EVERY student is here. cr — m 8. I put — on my jello.
- pl ——— se 9. Polite way of asking for a favor
- s t 10. Sit on your — in class

Jokes

A. Why do ducks fly south in winter?

Because it is too far to walk.

- B. X. Mother, will you do my arithmetic homework for me?
 - Y. No, Bob, it won't be right.
 - X. Well, you could try.
- C. Ever have **trouble** with appendicitis?

Only when I try to spell it.

D. Wish I had lived a thousand years ago.

Why?

Think of all the history I wouldn't have to learn.

E. Name two pronouns.

Who? Me?

Correct!

- F. Tell me two things you can never eat for BREAKFAST. LUNCH & SUPPER.
- G. What kind of dog has no tail?

A hot dog

H. Why did the little boy throw the clock out of the window? Because he wanted to see time fly.

I. What goes up when the rain comes down? An umbrella.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Teaching Writing

Aims of the unit:

- To raise trainees' awareness of the nature of the writing process.
- To delineate the writing skills that should be focused on at the pre-secondary cycles.
- To examine a variety of approaches to the teaching of writing.
- To explore a variety of controlled to free writing activities.
- To investigate problems encountered by learners and teachers in dealing with writing.

I. Definition of writing

Writing is the formation of graphic symbols. The arrangement of these symbols depends on certain conventions in order to form words, groups of words, sentences and whole texts. The writing process involves the encoding of a message by the writer and decoding by the reader. It is an attempt to communicate something, or can be considered a purposeful activity that entails a writer who has something to say, organizes it and writes it well for a real audience. It is viewed as a way to explore and develop students' own ideas; it is an expression of thought. A composition that a student puts together is writing words in related sentences to communicate meaning or ideas in a social context.

To be considered appropriate, the written product must incorporate the following elements:

WRITING: Spelling, punctuation, styles handwriting (print or cursive) etc. (See Appendix A)

WORDS: correct word forms, idioms, phrasal verbs, denotative-connotative meaning.

RELATED SENTENCES: correct organization of ideas (paragraph structure, coherence and cohesion).

COMMUNICATION OF MEANING/IDEAS: This explains or shows the writer's purpose: to inform, to persuade, to describe etc.

SOCIAL CONTEXT: This indicates to whom or for whom the writer writes on a certain subject in a certain situation.

II. The Nature of Writing at the Elementary Level

A child writing for the first time faces many problems, especially those pertaining to the choice of the right words, the appropriate grammatical structures as well as ways of expressing his own ideas; in other words, he is faced with WHAT to say and HOW to say WHAT he wants to say. If left on his own without any guidance, the student is bound to produce pieces of writing that are incomprehensible and full of mechanical errors. This situation results in many red marks on the student's paper (a burden on the

instructor), and the student himself ends up being discouraged and could develop a negative attitude towards this skill. The solution to this situation is for the teacher to help control and guide his student's writing at the beginning stages.

It is therefore necessary to point out that one major emphasis throughout this chapter is on training the student to write correct sentences which will eventually lead to organizing them into simple compositions at more advanced stages.

However, learning to produce grammatically correct sentences does not in itself constitute good writing. The art of good writing involves much more than that. It is only recently that research into writing has offered thought-provoking ideas about what good writers do when they write. Of particular importance is the finding that writing is a form of problem solving which involves such processes as generating ideas, planning, monitoring and evaluating what is going to be written as well as what has been written, and searching for language with which to express exact meaning. The writer does not proceed in a linear fashion from point A to point B but writes, re-reads, revises and rewrites. Throughout, he develops a certain autonomy by learning to assess his own written product. This whole process engages the writer in a very effective learning and developmental experience.

This learner-centered approach encourages the students to gradually take control of their own writing and assume responsibility for **what** they write and **how** they write it. This involves the following steps:

- 1. Identify WHY they are writing. Purpose.
- 2. Identify WHOM they are writing for. Audience.
- 3. Gather INFORMATION through observation, brainstorming, reading, etc.

 ———— Content.
- 4. Plan how to ORGANIZE this information. Organization.
- 5. Write a first draft, read it critically, revise it, prepare a final draft, and proofread for errors. ———— Drafting.

It is essential that elementary students be exposed to the basic elements of the writing process in order for them to develop into proficient writers at the intermediate level.

III. Problems Involved in the Teaching of Writing

On the whole, students find writing difficult for a number of reasons:

- 1. They lack background information on a number of subjects on account of little or no supplementary or extensive reading.
- 2. They lack the vocabulary required to express themselves specifically.
- 3. They are unable to organize information logically and clearly or to specify the audience that they write for (unlike speech, the composition of ideas needs to be organized).
- 4. They often lack a real mastery of mechanics (punctuation, spelling, sentence structure, etc).
- 5. Their handwriting is often illegible.
- 6. Their use of inappropriate connecting devices usually leads to poorly combined sentences.

7. Since, in traditional approaches, writing is a solitary activity, the psychological problem due to the absence of interaction with another person emerges and creates difficulties for the students.

IV. Approaches to the Teaching of Writing

As it is true of teaching other language skills, there is no royal road to acquiring writing skills; in other words, there is no ONE best way of developing one's writing ability. One should not disregard tried out methods. It is a gross error to throw away an approach in favor of another just because it is fashionable to do so.

On the contrary, the teacher needs to be well-grounded in all the mainstream approaches so that he/she is knowledgeable enough to select the right approach for specific students who are at a particular stage of development. Following is an overview of some approaches to the teaching of writing:

The Controlled-to-Free Approach

In the 1950s and early 1960s the Audio-lingual Approach dominated second and foreign language learning. Speech was primary and writing served to reinforce speech. The controlled-to-free approach in writing is sequential:

- sentence exercises.
- paragraphs to copy or to manipulate grammatically.
- controlled compositions.
- free compositions (at an intermediate level of proficiency).

This approach stresses three main features i.e. grammar, syntax and mechanics. It emphasizes accuracy rather than fluency.

The Free-Writing Approach

Some teachers and researchers have stressed the quantity of writing rather than the quality. They assign vast amounts of writing on given topics, with minimum correction. The emphasis here is that students should put content and fluency first and not worry about form. Once ideas are down on the page, grammatical accuracy, organization and the rest will gradually follow. A technique for reducing anxiety in writing is to ask students to write as much as they can on a given topic in five minutes (or 10 minutes) without worrying about grammar or spelling. This can prove difficult at first because of learning traditions that demand accuracy. These pieces of writing should not be corrected, but possibly read aloud and the content commented upon. This technique increases learners' awareness of the importance of content and regard for the audience.

The Paragraph-Pattern Approach

This approach stresses organization of language, rather than accuracy of grammar or fluency of content. Students copy paragraphs, study the form and then imitate. This can be practised by using identification exercises, by inserting, deleting or adapting sentences.

The Grammar-Syntax-Organization Approach

This approach makes use of writing tasks that lead students to pay attention to organization while also working on the grammar and syntax that is necessary to carry

out a task. For example, to write a set of instructions on how to operate a machine of some sort the writer will need:

- the appropriate vocabulary
- instructional forms of the verbs
- an organizational plan based on chronology
- sequence words such as first, then, finally
- sentence structures such as when... then...

With this approach learners see a connection between what they are trying to write and what they need to write.

The Communicative Approach

The Communicative Approach stresses the purpose of a piece of writing and the audience for it. Student writers are encouraged to ask themselves two questions:

Why am I writing this? Who will read it?

In this approach, teachers try to extend the readership to other students in the class who not only read the piece but also do something with it, such as respond, rewrite in another form, summarize, make comments – but not correct. Readers outside of the classroom may be specified, thus influencing the content, the language and the levels of formality.

The Process Approach

This most recent development in approaches to writing has begun to move away from emphasis on the written product to emphasis on the process of writing. How do I get started?

Students need to realize that what they first put down on paper is not the final product, but a beginning. If a learner is given time to work on what he/she wants to write, and to take feedback and comments from others into account then invariably new ideas, new sentences and new words will be discovered and can be included in a second or later version. Prewriting activities such as discussion, reading, debate, brainstorming and list-making are all an asset. This approach leads to an exploration of a topic through writing. Teachers who want to use this approach must give their students two very important forms of support: TIME and FEEDBACK.

V. Stages in the Development of Writing skills

At the beginning stages, elementary students need to engage in activities which are controlled to avoid error, yet meaningful enough to offer some challenge and sense of achievement. Writing classes are closely coordinated with grammar by using grammatical forms in guided exercises at the sentence level in order to build a basis of fluency in forms. These forms serve as a foundation for their practice in composing. As students' writing competence progresses, assignments become less structured and less teacher-guided. The ultimate goal is to help students use the language with little dependence on the teacher.

The elementary writing program comprises several major types of writing activities which are suitable for the various developmental stages:

Type 1:

- a. Learning the alphabet: Left-to-right direction, printing or cursive, alphabetizing, basic spelling patterns, rules for capitalization and sentence punctuation (see Appendices A, B & C).
- b. Copying of letters and words. This is necessary for learners who are not familiar with the Roman script. A lot has to be learned-imagine yourselves learning to write Chinese. A valid beginners' exercise is to get students to draw horizontal lines across the page (from left to right). Then they should draw rhythmic patterns corresponding to movements in Roman script. The following examples appear in Hubbard (1983):

elle rocco vivivi 00000
VVVVV mmm IIIII
77777

Then whole letters and words can be copied. This may seem boring and unchallenging to you, but to someone who has to master a new script it is work that requires a high degree of precision.

c. Copying combined with another language purpose. e.g. vocabulary sorting: dog coffee tea glass cat jug girl daughter bov white three mother frog blue water cup car plane man red train two sister four

Example:

tea coffee water.

- d. Copying after having made a decision about meaning. Students are given a picture and three sentences. They have to choose which sentence describes the picture accurately, and copy it.
- e. Classifying and copying according to lexical sets

Animals: cow, dog, cat

Clothes: hat, shirt

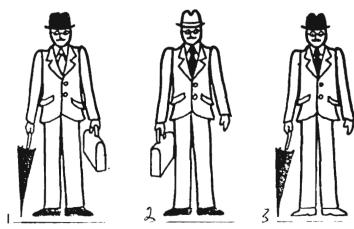
Drinks: juice, tea, milk.

Type 2:

a. Copying and adapting content. The following example appears in Hubbard (1983):

What are their names?

Mr. Smith is wearing a white shirt. His hat is black and his tie is white. He's carrying a black umbrella in his right hand. His shoes are black. Mr. Jones is wearing a white shirt. He's wearing glasses. His tie is black and he's carrying a bag. He isn't carrying an umbrella. His shoes are black.



- b. Copying with a choice to be made as far as a specific grammatical structure goes: e.g.
 - Teacher (T) to Student(S) A: Ask your classmate questions and write their answers:
- c. Copying and alphabetizing things in real life and of interest to students, such as: famous fairy story characters, names of students in class, etc.
- d. List objects in a given picture.
- e. Make a monthly calendar. List classmates' telephone numbers, chart birthdays, etc.
- f. Write five words that begin with letter P.
- g. Write five girls' names that begin with R.
- h. Make lists of antonyms and synonyms from the vocabulary learnt in reading.
- i. Writing from Frames

This helps students become aware of word substitution in patterns, and shows them how they can substitute in the patterns they know. It is the least mechanical type of exercise as the students are involved in making intelligent choices. Initially, all choices are correct and the main purpose is to produce copious sentences of one type.

EXAMPLE

S	V	O1	O2
The King	gave	the old man	a gold ring
Marwan	showed	the postman	a medal
The officer	sent	his sister	a car
The general	promised	my brother	a letter of thanks

The following examples (j-1) were taken from Junior Composing Book 1, by Bernard Smith.

j Look at the picture. What can you see? Where are they?



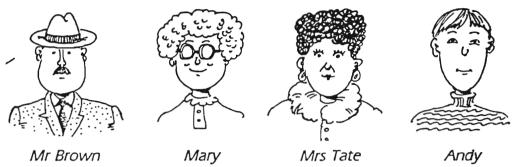
- 1. There is a bird in the tree. I can see its head. It is yellow. (Color it yellow).
- 2. There is a man under the car. I can see his boots. They are brown. (Color them brown).

Now complete these sentences and color the things in the picture.

- 3. There is a in the grass. I can see its . It is . (Color it.)
- 4. There is a cat — — . I can — and . It is . (Color it.)

5.	There is ———		•
	They —————	(Color them.)	

k. Introduction: reading and discussion



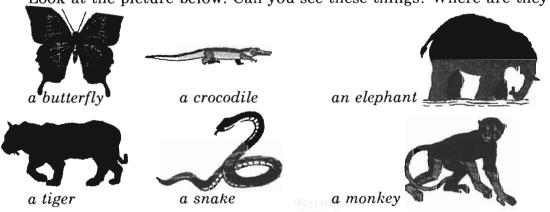
Read these sentences about the people in the pictures. Can you guess why they do these things?

- 1. Mr. Brown always wears a hat. Why?
- 2. Mary always sits at the front of the class. Why?
- 3. Mrs. Tate never travels by boat. Why?
- 4. Andy never goes out on Tuesday evenings. Why?

These pictures may help you:



1. Oral Practice: question and answer
Look at the picture below. Can you see these things? Where are they?



Practice with your teacher, and then with other pupils.

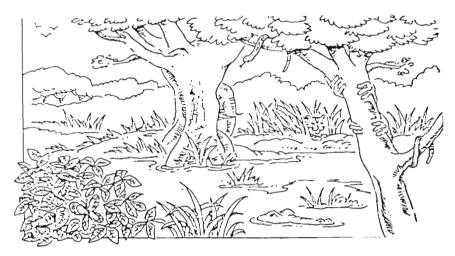
Example: Can you see a butterfly?

Where is it?

Yes, I can see its wings.

It is on the bush.

Composition Practice



Color the butterfly, the elephant, the tiger, the crocodile, the monkey and the snake. Then write about the picture.

Example: There is a butterfly in the picture. It is on the bush. I can see its wings. They are yellow and blue. There is a							
		<u> </u>					

\boldsymbol{m} . Sentence Combining

- 1. Use a coordinating conjunction to combine each of the following pairs of simple sentences into a meaningful compound sentence.
 - Sana went shopping. She bought a dress.
 Sana went shopping, and she bought a dress.
 Sana went shopping, but she bought nothing.
 - b. You may take your friend with you. You may stay home. You may take your friend with you, or you may stay home.
 - c. I left home early. I was late.
 I left home early, **but** I was late.
- 2. Arrange each of the following groups of words into a meaningful sentence: e.g. last Rami home went night Rami went home last night.
 - a. morning early I every up get
 - b. Our her likes teacher English students.

Type 3:

To give students more freedom of choice of vocabulary and sentence structure

while maintaining motivation, teachers are advised to apply less control and give more guidance in writing. A few activities of this type are suggested for consideration.

а.	Open-Ende	d Dialogues
a .	Open-Bluce	u Diaiogues

This type of exercise calls on the students to provide appropriate responses to what is given.

Example 1:

Α	Hello	Sami	This	is	ล	nleasant	surprise!	
Λ.	TICHO,	Dailli.	11112	19	a	picasani	sui pi isc.	

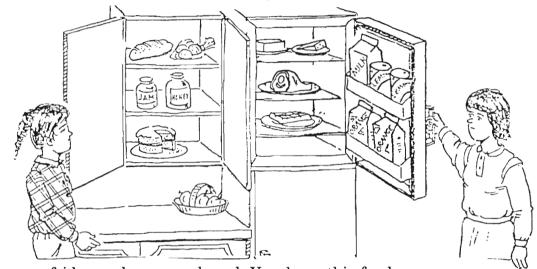
B _____

A. How long have you been there?

A. How long have you been there:

A. ————

В. –



- b. This is your fridge and your cupboard. You have this food.
 - 1. Draw the food in the fridge and the cupboard. Put it where you want.
 - 2. Two of your friends are coming to see you, but you must go out for a short time. You must take your little sister to a party.

				-											
3.	Write	a	note	to	your	friends.	Say	where	you	are,	and	tell	them	to	have
	someth	nin	g to e	eat	and di	rink. Tell	l ther	n where	e the	thing	gs are	е.			

- c. Decide what the best answer is by selecting from among the choices given to you in the boxes that follow:
 - * Samia called Sami. She is a photographer reporter publisher reader

	be a TV star.
	take snapshots.
	report the news.
k	She wants to find out if he's ————.
	gifted
	happy
	interested
	concerned
	Sami is supposed to ————.
	give her an appointment next year.
	call her the other day.
	marry her as soon as possible.
	think of her when he's free.
k	She has — for him to sign.
	an offer
	an invitation
	a contract
	a letter
	~

d. Picture Composition

The students are asked to write a story of one short paragraph based on a picture sequence. The purpose of this is to allow the students to give their full attention to the correct use of language.

e. Writing invitations to birthday parties and writing acceptance/rejection answers:

X has the pl	leasure of inviting you to his bir	thday party.
Where —		
When —	Time	
R.S.V.P		

- f. 1. Recognizing topic sentences in paragraphs
 - 2. Writing topic sentences
 - 3. Adding concluding sentences
 - 4. Deleting irrelevant sentences
 - 5. Producing meaningful titles
 - 6. Using transitions
- g. Correcting Written Work

Read this passage about Sami. There are five spelling mistakes; seven capital letters, two full stops, and five commas are missing.

Sami is the director of a school in sidon. The name of the school is ittihad national institution Sami plaips voley-ball and he likes reading waching television and listening to popular musick. He is married and he has three shildren. He is twenty-eight years old he speaks arabic french and English.

VI. Organizing the Teaching of Writing

The teaching of guided writing at the paragraph level can be organized within the following framework.

MODEL

1. Teacher elicits orally ideas or information from his students.

- 2. Teacher writes this information on the board.
- 3. Teacher and students work together on organizing the information.
 - a. Topic sentence
 - b. Support and details in the correct order
 - c. Concluding sentence
- 4. Students write from the board.
- 5. Teacher checks for errors.
- 6. Students rewrite, if necessary.

Alternatively, students are given a model paragraph. They are asked to identify the topic sentence, the details, and the concluding sentence. Students are then asked to write a similar paragraph. However, this is a product-oriented approach which proceeds from point A to B and more often than not tends to produce rather formulaic, stereotyped pieces of writing.

In direct contrast to this approach, the process-oriented approach focuses on the process of writing rather than on the product itself.

According to Patricia Hedge (1988):

"Perhaps the most important insight that recent research into writing has given us is that good writers appear to go through certain processes which lead to successful pieces of written work. They start off with an overall plan in their heads. They think about what they want to say and who they are writing for. They then draft out sections of the writing and as they work on them they are constantly reviewing, revising, and editing their work. In other words, we can characterize good writers as people who have a sense of purpose, a sense of audience, and a sense of direction in their writing. Unskilled writers tend to be much more haphazard and much less confident in their approach.

"Classroom writing tasks need to be set up in ways that reflect the writing process of good writers. We need to encourage our students to go through a process of planning, organizing, composing, and revising."

In an attempt to facilitate the process of writing for his/her students, the teacher is expected to play a very active role in order to motivate the students to write.

Initially, he/she will invite them to choose topics that interest them, get them to generate ideas about the topic, elicit the proper sentence structures that fit the organization of the message and brainstorm the appropriate vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, or phrasal verbs that fit the particular rhetorical mode.

In this way the students acquire the skill of using language as a system of communication, both orally and in writing. They become aware of the fact that writing is a purposeful activity that entails a WRITER who has SOMETHING to say, ORGANIZES it and writes it well for a real audience. This step will definitely pave the way for the writer to explore his own ideas and develop them. In process writing, the first piece of writing is considered as a first draft which will be re-read, revised and edited. The key to process writing is the idea that all writers revise in order to become more proficient. Throughout, the teacher provides feedback in the form of constructive comments on how to improve the initial draft. Ideally, over time, students develop into critical readers who are able to edit, revise, and review their own paragraphs.

In summary, the process approach can be broken down into the following stages:

- 1. Brainstorming, gathering ideas and getting started.
- 2. Writing a first draft, providing a title, a topic and concluding sentence.
- 3. Revising and reviewing following either teacher or peer feedback.
- 4. Writing the final draft and receiving a final grade on it.

This approach leads to an exploration of a topic through writing. Teachers who want to use this approach must continuously provide their students with two very important forms of support: TIME and FEEDBACK. Following is a list of types of feedback that the teacher can provide for students' written work:

- 1. Teacher corrects all errors.
- 2. Teacher conducts selective marking of major errors which interfere with communication.
- 3. Teacher conducts minimal marking using correction symbols.
- 4. Teacher provides written feedback on content.
- 5. Teacher conducts conferencing: one-on-one dialogues whereby the teacher and student sit together and discuss the paragraph in detail.
- 6. Peers provide feedback. Students exchange papers and comment on them using a set of guidelines.

To summarize, at the early stages of writing, most activities are concerned with grammatical accuracy and precision. Initially, students are asked to write correct sentences. Later, they are taught how to combine sentences and produce coherent paragraphs that express or communicate their ideas. To achieve this goal, teachers should help students feel comfortable in the writing class. They should be genuinely supportive, understanding and encouraging in selecting topics of interest to students, engaging the students in free, oral discussions, and work with them to outline the logical sequence of ideas. They also teach students to begin generating ideas and then help them see the organizational options open to them. Though writing is usually considered to be difficult because it begins with disorganized ideas, it is nevertheless gradually organized by the writer who learns to impose order as the writing progresses.

Finally, as guided writing progresses from controlled to less controlled, the composing process becomes important. This assumes that students progress in linguistic skills, and therefore the emphasis shifts from using grammar as the basis for writing to making choices about the organization of a piece of writing.

Assignments/Discussion Questions for Trainee Teachers

 Compare and contrast the differences between spoken language and written language. Fill out the following chart

Spoken language	Written language	
 is universal, 		
	and write.	
2. —————		
3. ————		
1		

5 -	 		
υ.			
6 -	 	 	
٠.			
7	 	 	
8	 	 	
0			
9	_	 	
10			
IV.			

- 2. Select a sequence of pictures suitables for the upper elementary level. Make sure the pictures tell a story. Then delineate the lesson steps required to present this picture sequence as a full lesson, i.e., the steps involved in the pre, mid and post writing stages.
- 3. Correct this passage using the following correction procedure:
 - 1. Correct all errors: mechanics and content.
 - 2. Give the students some constructive written feedback on the content and major mechanical problems.

Living in a city is hard. A city is to noisy cars roar like thunder and drums. They honk they're horns all day.

City buildings are very tall some are over 40 floors high they are full off people. There is no place to be alone.

Everything moves fast in a city. Something is allways happenning. There are so many things to do a city has zoas and parcks it has also beautifull, new buildings.

References

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Appendix

EVALUATE YOUR HANDWRITING

- 1. Is your slant irregular?
 Use your slant guide until your handwriting improves.
- 2. Does your writing go up or down?
 Use lined paper and keep your writing on the lines.
- 3. Is your spacing uneven? Write each letter right after the one before it. Don't draw long lines between letters. Leave a space the size of one letter between words.
- 4. Are your letters different sizes?

 Try to write each letter in approximately the same amount of horizontal space.

 Letters which go above and below the lines should be even with each other.
- 5. Are your loops too skinny or too fat? Loops must be slender and graceful.
- 6. Do you leave your closing open?

Close all letters. Otherwise they look like other letters.

7. Do you loop letters that should be retraced?

Retracing means writing again in exactly the place you wrote before.

8. Do you point letters that should be rounded?

Cursive is chiefly curved.

9. Do you take your pen off the paper and thus slow down your writing?

Pen on paper proves proficient.

10 . Do you make fancy endings?

Fancy endings are considered adolescent.

Appendix B

SPELLING RULES

PLURAL - (N) 3rd PERSON - (V)

- CH add -ES church + es speech + es beach + es	S/-SS add-ES class + es princess + es actress + es	-X add -ES box + es fox + es	-Z add -ES
BUT	radio + s	video + s	
piano + s		video + s	
SIMPLE FORM OF	Y VERB ENDS IN: add	"-ES"	
	add =		
pass dress	=	passes dresses	
cross	=	crossess	
01000		Crobbobb	
"-SH"	add	"-ES"	
wash	=	washes	
rush	=	rushes	
wish	=	wishes	
# GTT#		II DOII	
"-CH"	add	"-ES"	
catch	=	catches	
match scratch	=	-es	
		-es	
"-X"	add	"-ES"	
fix	=	fixes	
mix	=	mixes	
"-Z"	add	"-ES"	
quiz	-Z	-es	
buz	- Z	-es	
CONSONANT +O	ADD	"-ES"	
go	=	goes	
do	=	does	
do	+	es	
potato	+	es	
tomato	+	es	
COMPARATIVE Y i	+	1 syllable Adjective ER	e: consonant + vowel

busy	=	bus-i-er	big-g-er				
dirty	=	dirt-i-er	thin-				
happy	=	happ-i-er	fat-				
easy	=	eas-i-er	hot-				
casy		Cub-1-Ci	IE/EI				
I BEFORE E EXCEPT AFTER OR WHEN PRO AS IN NEIGHBO	NOUNCED LIKE /a y	7/	113/111				
thief field chief belief ceiling deceive	believe						
	More than two syll	ables: do not double					
re mem ber in ha bit	+ ed =	remembered					
PECII	I AD WEDDG ENIDING	TIN CII ENIT E. AAA	only D				
promise - d	LAR VERBS ENDIN	3 IN SILENT E: add	only -D				
THE LETTERS V	W, X, and Y at the en	d of words are VOW	ELS. Add only "-ING"				
play	=	play + ing					
buy	=	Prof8					
draw	=						
ADD -ING							
grow	+	-ing					
throw	+	****6					
	ABLE VERB ENDS I LE THE CONSONAN	_	preceded by a SINGLE				
sit	=	sit-t-ing					
stop	=	stop-p-ing					
run	=	stop-p-mg					
win	=						
WITH TWO VOWEL LETTERS BEFORE THE LAST CONSONANT IN ANY WORD, DON'T DOUBLE.							
look	=	-ing					
eat	=	-ing					
read	=	-ing					
ADD -ING	No change						
	(2 vowels before the	ne last consonant)					
dream	=	dreaming					
explain	=	-					

Rule: IF THE VERB ENDS IN A SILENT "E", DROP THE "E" AND ADD- "ING"

write = writ-ing dance = danc-ing change = chang-ing

SPELLING RULES

Final E

Rule: DROP SILENT "E" before adding a suffix that begins with a vowel.

describe describ-ing arrive arriv-al

KEEP FINAL "E" if the suffix begins with a consonant.

love love-ly

PLURAL of NOUNS ending with

Y preceded by a consonant Y preceded by a vowel Y preceded by a consonant Y preceded by a vowel

+ ES -S

Appendix C

Punctuation/Capitalization

Only those rules and examples relevant to this course are listed. Mastering the use of punctuation marks is necessary for one to understand and be understood – in reading and writing.

The Period

Use it at the end of a statement, be it imperative, declarative or negative:
 e.g. Go home.

Charlie broke the window.

Lina did not write her homework.

After abbreviations:

e.g. Mr. Dr. Mrs. St. U.S.A. (Not Miss)

After initials in names:

e.g. I visited Mr. A.M. Murad.

The Question Mark

(?) Use it at the end of a question:
 Where did you go last Thursday?
 Are you interested in English?

The Exclamation Mark

(!) Use it after a sentence expressing surprise:
 What a lovely day!
 Oh!

The Comma

(,) Use it after "Yes" and "No" in answers.

e.g. Yes, Sami is at home.

No, Samia is not sad.

Use it before AND, OR, BUT, YET, SO and FOR

when they join two simple sentences:

- e.g. I did not write any homework, but I reviewed all the assignments for the test.
 - You must obey the orders of the doctor, or you will be taken to hospital.

Use it after a noun in address:

e.g. Beirut, the capital of Lebanon, is an ancient city.

- Makram, please sit down.
- Please sit down, Makram.
- Use it to set off an appositive:

e.g. I enjoy reading, swimming, and listening to music.

Use it to separate items in a series:

e.g. I enjoy reading, swimming, and listening to music.

Use it to separate items in a date:

e.g. On November 22, 1943, Lebanon became independent.

- Use it to separate items in an address:
 - e.g. The Bristol Hotel, Beirut, Lebanon, has been repainted.
 - I live at 25 Hamra St., Ras Beirut, Lebanon.

Quotation Marks

- " " Use them to enclose the exact words of the speaker.
 - e.g. My mother said, "Keep your clothes clean."
 - "The test will be put off till next week," said the instructor.

The Colon

- (:) Use it to separate the hours from the minutes.
 - e.g. I'll see you at 1:25.
- Use it after salutation:
 - e.g. Dear Sir: Ladies and Gentlemen:

The Hyphen

- (-) Use it in expressions like:
 - e.g. a four-door car

a two-year-old boy

for twenty-one days

The Apostrophe

- (') Use it in contractions:
 - e.g. I'm Isn't don't won't I've
 - Use it show the possessor of something:
 - e.g. Sami's house dogs' tails
 - Mother's Day ladies' dresses
 - Use it to show the plural of letters or numbers:
 - e.g. four A's and two B's
 - Dot your I's and cross your T's
 - Divided into 2's and 5's

Underlining

- (____) Use it to show titles of books, magazines, and newspapers.
 - e.g. I read **Dracula** last year.
 - Sami reads **Beezer** everyday.

Capitalization

- Capitalize the first word of every sentence:
 - e.g. The doctor examined his patient.
 - Are the employees at work this morning?
 - Men do not like to gossip.
 - The driver asked, "Are you going to the park?"
- Capitalize proper nouns or names of people:
 - e.g. Beirut Sidon Tripoli Ziad Rahbani
 - Mrs. E.L. Madi.
 - I saw the picture of Sir Winston Churchill.
- Always capitalize the pronoun "I":

e.g. • What am I?

- Sami and I are friends.
- I am a taxi driver.
- Capitalize names of:

rivers: e.g. The Litani River

lakes: e.g. Lake Kiraoun

mountains: e.g. Mt. Everest Mt. Sanneen countries: e.g. Lebanon Canada Brazil

cities: e.g. Paris London Nabatiyyeh

states: e.g. California Michigan N.C.

streets: e.g. Hamra St. Solh St. Fifth Ave.

buildings: e.g. Commodore Starco Sofil ABC

Capitalize the names of religions, religious terms and the word God:
 Protestant Catholic Sunni Shiite Druze

God Christian Moslem Jew Buddha

Capitalize:

days of the week: Wednesday

months of the year: April

not seasons: spring summer autumn winter

names of holidays: Labor Day Independance day Christmas Ramadan Adha

names of nationalities: Lebanese American Canadian Russian

names of schools or institutions: Rawda High School American University of Beirut.