TEACHING ENGLISH AS FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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PREFACE

This book gave the comprehensive of language and teaching learning process in English subject. The readers will know the concept of teaching speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Besides that, process of teaching needs of the multimedia and technology.

Most language teaching has not been concerned with these issues. It teaches language – a standard native homeland monolingual variety believed to be good for all purposes and all people. It cannot be assumed that all students of English now need it as a hypercentral language, or that all English children need French as a local language for visiting France, or that all learners of Chinese are heritage learners; and so on. We need to see how language teaching can better prepare people for use of second languages in the diverse situations in which they find themselves in the twenty-first century.

Radical educators argue, however, that teaching that effects real change towards more equality in society requires structural change. This means educational systems and the people within them need to problematise what seems normal. Within that the notion of how knowledge is perceived at all needs to be re-examined. This chapter has described and highlighted a range of radical pedagogies that purport to do this. The field is awash with terminology which at first seems to be articulating very similar positions. Such a perception is further complicated by the limited amount of cross-referencing between the different thematic
strands. For example, we have seen the failure to connect environmental education in school and in later life.

In teaching learning process needs a innovation using multimedia and technology. Multimedia technology in language teaching is to promote students motivation and learning interest in the English language. In the non-native English speaking context, this can be a practical way to get them involved in the language learning. To achieve this goal, the language teachers must use multimedia technology in class.

We should create a favorable environment for English language teaching, which should be based on the availability of information and teaching materials. While using multimedia technology in teaching if students are not too dependent on their mother tongue, they should be motivated to communicate with each other in English. The process of English learning should be more student-centered and less time-consuming. The language teachers should maintain the students communicative competence through multimedia technology. The utilization of multimedia technology can fully improve the students thinking and practical language skills. This will ensure and fulfill an effective result of English language teaching. Despite some disadvantages of using multimedia technology in teaching, multimedia technology can be used effectively in the English language teaching classrooms. Overall, the non-native speakers of English as language teachers can teach English more efficiently if they use multimedia as an innovative tool in teaching methods.
CHAPTER 1
LANGUAGE, LEARNING AND TEACHING

A. LANGUAGE

Sophisticated statement: Language is complex, specialized skill, which develops in the child spontaneously, without conscious effort or formal instruction, is deployed without awareness of it’s underlying logic, is qualitatively the same in every individual, and is distinct from more general abilities to process information behave intelligently.

This observation ied Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) to describe “good” language.

1. Find their own way, taking charge of their learning
2. Organize information about language
3. Are creative, developing a “feel” for the language by experimenting with it’s grammar and words
4. Make their own opportunities for practice in using the language inside and outside classroom
5. Learn to live wit uncertainty by not getting flustered and by continuing to talk or listen without understanding every word
6. Use mnemonics ang other memory strategies to recall what has been learned
7. Make errors work for them and not against them
8. Use linguistic knowledge of their first language, in learning a second language
9. Use contextual cues to help them in comprehension
10. Learn to make intelligent guesses
11. Learn chunks of language as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform “beyond their competence”
12. Learn certain tricks that help to keep conversation going
13. Learn certain production strategies to fill in gaps in their own competence

Language is the main mediational tool in all social human learning, particularly in language learning, where it constitutes the end as well as the means. The main principles, aims and findings of the cognitive enterprise, but would nevertheless like to refer to the following assumptions and implications of the discipline of cognitive linguistics as set out by Rudzka-Ostyn (1993: 1):

1. As one domain of human cognition, language is intimately linked with other cognitive domains and as such mirrors the interplay of psychological, cultural, social, ecological, and other factors.
2. Linguistic structure depends on (and itself influences) conceptualization, the latter being conditioned by our experience of ourselves, the external world and our relation to that world.
3. Grammar is motivated by semantic considerations.
4. Language units are subject to categorization which commonly gives rise to prototype-based networks; much of it critically involves metaphor and metonymy.
5. Given the interaction among language subcomponents as well as the interaction between language and other domains of cognition, the various autonomy theses and dichotomies
proposed in the linguistic literature have to be abandoned; a strict separation of syntax, morphology and lexicon is untenable; furthermore, it is impossible to separate linguistic knowledge from extra-linguistic knowledge.

The applied linguist is a Jack of all trades. Real-world language problems can seldom be resolved by looking at a single aspect of language. Since applied linguistics is interdisciplinary, the applied linguist is expected to know a little about many areas, not only of language, but also of philosophy, sociology, computer programming, experimental design and many more. In a sense, applied linguists are not only Jack of all trades but also master of none as they do not require the in-depth knowledge of the specialist so much as the ability to filter out ideas relevant to their concerns. An applied linguist who only does syntax or discourse analysis is an applied syntactician or an applied discourse analyst, not a member of the multidisciplinary applied linguistics profession. In other words multidisciplinarity applies not just to the discipline as a whole but also to the individual practitioner (Wei & Cook, 2009).

The applied linguist is a go-between, not an enforcer, a servant, not a master. The problems that applied linguistics can deal with are complex and multi-faceted. As consultants to other people, applied linguists can contribute their own interpretation and advice. But that is all. The client has to weigh in the balance all the other factors and decide on the solution. Rather than saying ‘You should follow this way of language teaching’, the applied linguist’s advice is ‘You could try this way of language teaching and see whether it works for you.’ Alternatively the applied linguist should be responding to problems put forward by language teachers, not
predetermining what the problems are; the applied linguist is there to serve teacher’s needs, a garage mechanic interpreting the customer’s vague idea of what is wrong with their car and putting it right, rather than a car designer (Wei & Cook, 2009).

Sheer description of any area of language is not applied linguistics as such but descriptive linguistics. Some areas concerned with the description of language are regarded as applied linguistics, others are not. Make a corpus analysis of an area or carry out a Conversation Analysis and you’re doing applied linguistics; describe children’s language or vocabulary and it’s first language acquisition; make a description of grammar and you’re doing syntax. Overall making a description is not in itself solving a problem, even if it may contribute to the solution (Wei & Cook, 2009).

Outside language teaching, applied linguists have taken important roles behind the scenes as advisors to diverse governmental and EU bodies, for example Hugo Baetens Beardsmore’s work with bilingualism. But they have had little impact on public debate or decision-making for most language problems, the honourable exceptions being the work of David Crystal and Debbie Cameron, whom many might not consider primarily as applied linguists. Problems are not solved by talking about them at applied linguistics conferences; the solutions have to be taken out into the world to the language users. Take the political correctness issue of avoiding certain terms for reasons of sexism, racism and so on. This is based on one interpretation of the relationship between language and thinking: not having a word means you can’t have the concept, as George Orwell suggested with Newspeak. Yet applied linguists have been reluctant to contribute their expertise to this
debate, despite the extensive research into linguistic relativity of the past decade. Public discussion of language issues is as ill-informed about language as it was fifty years ago at the dawn of applied linguistics (Wei & Cook, 2009).

This is not to say that the language element has to dominate or that linguistics itself has to feature at all but that it does not count as applied linguistics of language teaching:

1. If there is no language element. This does not mean it could not justifiably be studied as language teaching methodology, applied psychology and so on. But why call it applied linguistics if there is no language content?
2. If the language elements are handled without any theory of language. The theory of language does not need to come from linguistics but might be philosophy or literary theory: crucially applied linguistics cannot treat language as if there were no traditions of language study whatsoever. Nor can the methods of language description be based solely on folk ideas from the school tradition of grammar or the practical EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teaching tradition, which would be rather like basing physics on alchemy or folk beliefs. Doubtless some aspects of these may be interpreted in a more up-to-date and scientific fashion, but this applies equally to alchemy.
3. If the research base is neither directly concerned with language teaching nor related to it in a demonstrable way. That is to say, a theory from outside language teaching cannot be applied without a clear chain of logic showing how and why it is relevant. An idea from mathematical theory,
computer simulation or first language acquisition needs to show its credentials by proving its link to second language teaching through L2 evidence and argument, not imposing itself by fiat, by analogy, or by sheer computer modelling. If one were, say, to adopt knitting theory as a foundation for the applied linguistics of language teaching, one would need to demonstrate how warp and weft account for the basic phenomena of language acquisition and use by showing empirical evidence of their applicability to second language acquisition.

Over the years the applied linguistics of language teaching has had its most important relationships with linguistics and psychology. Applied linguists have designed syllabuses and tests used around the world; some have ventured into coursebook writing. Most of this has been based on general ideas about language learning, going from the early influence of structuralism and behaviourism that led to the audiolingual teaching method, the influence of Chomskyan ideas about the independence of the learner’s language and of social arguments by Dell Hymes that jointly led to the communicative syllabus and communicative language teaching, and the wave of cognitivism in psychology that contributed to task-based learning. By and large this has been application at a general level, not based on detailed findings about second language acquisition. It is hard to find teaching drawing on, say, specific information about sequence of phonological acquisition or studies of learners’ errors (Wei & Cook, 2009).
1. The Origins of Language Learner Strategies

The first feature of a language learner strategy that has become an issue is in the relationship between knowledge and action. We have conceded in an earlier section that being able to do something requires you to have the knowledge to do it. In her definition of a strategy, Wenden (1987) included the knowledge that learners have of themselves as learners. It seems logical that, in order to have knowledge of oneself as a learner, one needs to have knowledge of the strategies that one might use even if one doesn’t use them. If I am driving a car, I have the knowledge that I can use my indicator lever in order to indicate. Now, I might develop the bad strategy of not always indicating, but in order to indicate I must have the knowledge that the indicator lever exists and what it does.

This knowledge–behaviour relationship in a strategy has become an issue because of the theory of ‘proceduralization’ (Anderson, 2000) or automaticity. If we do something so often that it becomes automatic, do we still ‘know’ about the behaviour? Does it still form part of our ‘declarative knowledge’? In other words can a strategy be subconscious behaviour? Over the years, this issue has been the focus of some debate but the general consensus has emerged that strategies are conscious behaviours (see Cohen, 2007) because in order to be strategic they need to have a goal. I have recently argued (Macaro, 2006) that, since strategies are conscious behaviours, they must be operationalized in working memory, although through extensive repetition they may become subconscious. This means that the learner is no longer aware that they are using them. However, given that a strategy has to have a goal and a learning situation (or be related to a learning task) then,
at certain moments in a new situation or with a new goal, an important ‘feature’ of a strategy is that it can be brought back to working memory and given the attention it needs in order to be evaluated against that new situation.

The next feature that has been a subject of considerable debate is whether strategies are ‘big’ or ‘small’. The issue here is how does one put a boundary round an example of strategic behaviour? We noted above that the good language learner was described as using ‘big strategies’ such as ‘focusing on communication’ or as ‘having an active approach to learning and practice’ (Naiman et al., 1978: 225). But are these large strategies tenable as constructs? Is it possible to mix mental behaviour (cognition and metacognition) with physical action (motor behaviour)? Do these large strategies actually tell us anything worthwhile about the learner.

The problem resides (metaphorically) in the DNA of the good language learner. We will leave for later the whole theoretical discussion about what we mean by good and successful learners. For now let us focus on strategies. Does the good language learner only use good strategies? If that is the case, then there must exist bad strategies and these are very likely being used by ‘bad language learners’. If, on the other hand, the good language learner simply ‘uses strategies’ or ‘uses lots of strategies and often’, then the corollary must be that the poor learner doesn’t use strategies at all, or uses a very limited number fairly often, or uses quite a few different strategies but not very often (Wei & Cook, 2009).
2. The Good Language Learner Reborn

Does the good language learner belong to the high proficiency category? Clearly not. They may have taken many years to get to that level of proficiency and spent a fortune on private tuition. Thus the strategies they are using may not be the crucial ‘value-added’ factor leading to high proficiency and we should therefore not necessarily be advocating his/her strategies when considering other learners. Clearly the good language learner cannot easily be associated with the ‘successful’ learner as I have described them above. Success in a single task or even a single skill does not necessarily equate with being good at language learning generally and over a prolonged period. Is the good language learner someone who is a high achiever as described above? As long as we have enough data, it does at least appear so from the evidence before us as teachers or researchers. They seem to be doing better than others even though they have received, and are receiving, the same language learning experience. It is therefore likely that what they are doing with their learning experience, their strategic behaviour, is something quite special, especially if their achievement is sustained over time (Wei & Cook, 2009).

4. Groups of Language Users

The first group is people using their first language with each other in the local language geographical territory. This is the sole group to contain only monolingual native speakers of the language. A monolingual Londoner, Berliner or Parisian can get by on their first language alone. The second group consists of permanent residents using a central second language to communicate with the wider
community outside their local language group, in Siegel’s terms a dominant L2 setting (Siegel, 2006). The third group consists of people using a supercentral language across national or linguistic borders for a specific range of functions of language rather than for all functions; the closest correspondence in Siegel’s scheme is coexisting L2 settings (Siegel, 2006).

Language focused, content-based tasks hold much promise in this regard. They can be carried out by learners themselves, and can help them help each other to address their L2 needs. Although there is an abundance of tasks commercially and readily available for classroom use, many of these tasks are designed for learners to practice L2 communication rather than to focus on L2 form and content learning. In other words, they are designed for learners to talk but not necessarily to talk about language.

Any course of language instruction must provide the learner with an appropriate knowledge and skills base. This necessarily means addressing four problems:

Selection and presentation The language elements that learners most need must be identified and made available for learning. establishment of a knowledge base The forms and use of these elements must be fixed in learners’ long-term memory. development of recall and deployment New material, once learnt, must become efficiently retrievable for comprehension or production. Where language use involves not only recall but also computation (for example applying a morphological or syntactic rule, matching a grammatical form to a meaning or situation), learners must acquire the ability to perform the operations required with reasonable accuracy in real time. course architecture The
syllabus components – the different language elements and skills selected for teaching – need to be fitted together into a coherent smoothly functioning package: a course (lyster, 2007).

**B. LEARNING**

Kimble and Garmezy (1963: 133) statement definition are:

1. Learning is acquisition or “getting”
2. Learning is retention of information or skill.
3. Retention implies storage system, memory, cognitive organization.
4. Learning involves active, conscious focus on and acting upon event outside or inside organism.
5. Learning is relatively permanent but subject to forgetting.
6. Learning involves some form of practice, perhaps reinforced practice,
7. Learning is a change in behaviour.

*Examination Coffield (2000)* statement type of learning are:

It is possible to classify his types into a smaller number of categories:

1. Personal development – personal development, self-evaluation, centrality of learning;
2. Utopian – social learning, structural change;
3. Planned development – social control, skills growth, reformed system of education, local learning societies;

Theory of learning (Brown, 2000);
1. Process, human being universally engage in association, transfer, generalization and attrition. We all make stimulus-response connection and are driven by reinforcement. We all possess, in varying proportion, abilities in seven intelligences. Process is characteristic of every human

2. Style, are those general characteristic of intellectual functioning (and personality type, as well) that pertain to you as an individual, and that differentiate you from someone else.

3. Strategies, are specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information.

1. Method

Learning languages is a notoriously complex business, involving the mastery of several different kinds of knowledge and skill. Over the years, language teachers have developed numerous ways of imparting these various aspects of language competence, drawing on research, individual exploration and the accumulated wisdom of the profession. Since learning and competence are difficult to measure, there is inevitably substantial room for differing opinions about the value of one or other method of achieving a particular goal. Such opinions range from the general to the particular. Some claims seem intended to apply to all of the multifarious activities that constitute language instruction: ‘The mother-tongue must never be used in foreign-language teaching’; ‘Learning can only be effective if it involves genuine
communication’. ‘Comprehensible input provides all that is necessary for effective acquisition’. Others relate to more specific aspects of a language teacher’s work; for instance the belief that learners need training in reading skills; or that linguistic regularities are best learnt inductively; or that new lexis must always be contextualized; or that teaching phoneme discrimination by the use of minimal pairs helps to improve pronunciation; or that recasts are (or are not) more effective than explicit correction (Wei & Cook, 2009).

Research on language learners who spend a period of residence in a country where their language is spoken brings a new dimension. In the following example, Lynn is a ‘language person’ who has learnt French for some 10 years, from the age of 11. She has just spent a year living in France and is speaking about the experience a couple of months after returning to England. She shows signs of wishing to ‘convert’ to a French identity, but also believes this is not possible because one has to be ‘born’ French. She has a theory of ethnic and national identity and socialization which arises from her experience. She has a notion of using physical appearance to indicate ethnicity – choice of hair style and of dress – and it has the desired effect. Her theory coincides with academic research which emphasizes the significance of specific boundary markers (Barth, 1969) as indicators of ethnic identity. She also, however, shows signs of developing an international identity as a consequence of her tertiary socialization (Wei & Cook, 2009).

Related to the effort of recognizing students’ learning strategies, there are four major classification successfully constructed by Rubin (1981), O’Malley, Chamot, and Walker (1987),
and Oxford (1990). Rubin (1981) focuses on two processes which contribute directly and indirectly to learning. Meanwhile, O’Malley, Chamot, and Walker (1987) highlight the three types of learning strategies. They are metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective strategies. Then, Oxford (1990) classifies the strategies into direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are the “strategies involving mental process and directly influencing the target language” and indirect strategies are “those supporting and managing language” but not directly concerning the target language (Oxford, 1990). In addition, the direct strategies cover memory, cognitive, and compensation whereas the indirect one emphasizes on metacognitive, affective and social strategies (Tanjung, 2018).

Social strategy is taken into account as one of strategies for learning English. Moreover, the university students think that through practicing their language skills with other people, their language skills can be improved continuously. Another strategy used by the participants is compensation strategy. They utilize this strategy because it allows them to guess the meaning of texts they are reading about or dialogues they are having with, make use of gestures to help them deliver the message to their partners in conversation, or make up new words if they do not know the correct words to utter. The previous explanation directly refers to Aunurrahman, Kurniawati, and Ramadhiyanti (2013) research result that compensation strategy is one of the frequent strategies used by college students.

As shown earlier in findings, it can be stated that students use a combination of indirect and direct learning strategies namely metacognitive, social, and compensation strategies. Thus, it
conforms Oxford (1990) report that indirect and direct strategies are interrelated each other since students generally combine them in the process of learning language.

2. **The frequent learning strategies based on ages**

To answer the question about the frequent learning strategies used by university students regarding their ages, the explanation starts from the younger age to the older ones. The students with the age of under 20 years old, the age of between 20-21 years old, and the age of between 22-23 years old belong to the groups of university students who make use of metacognitive strategy frequently because they can plan, control, and evaluate their learning process. Briefly, this strategy is considered to empower students to have more opportunities in planning the whole process of their language learning. Unlike the earlier mentioned group, the students with the age of between 24-25 years old prefer using social strategy. They employ this strategy because they learn English through asking frequently on every occasion they get difficult with the words which should be used, practicing the language regularly, and learning the culture of English speakers continuously.

Additionally, due to the data, there are some interesting points about the frequent strategies used by the university students. The first point is the similarity of learning strategies but different position. As being known, the students with the age of under 20 years old, those with the age between 22-23 years old and those with the age between 24-25 years old have same strategies to learn English. Nevertheless, they share dissimilar position for social and
cognitive strategies at which for the first group of age put social and cognitive as the second and third frequent strategies whereas the second group of age put cognitive as the second strategy followed by social strategy. Differently, the third group of age put social as the most frequent learning strategy and rank metacognitive and cognitive strategies in the latter positions. On the other hand, the students with the age between 20-21 years old use compensation as one of the strategies since the other two strategies (metacognitive and social) are also utilized by the other groups of age (Tanjung, 2018).

4. Lecturers’ strategies and students’ various language learning strategies

Learning strategies is very important for students. It can improve their autonomy as learners. Moreover, it benefits university students because the generation, who will lead the future of one nation, they have to be independent not only in obtaining information but also in managing information they’ve got. As part of Asian and world community, Indonesian university students should prepare, manage or control and evaluate their learning process. Thus, learning strategies is one of crucial things to recognize, use and improve in order to reach high achievement theoretically and practically (in all four language skills). To have those ideal conditions, lecturers should play their roles effectively in the process of developing students’ awareness and improving the learning strategies they have already been using. Considering the need of teaching learning strategies, followings are several stages that can be implemented to help students aware of and utilize their own
strategies optimally to learn English. First, lecturers and the academic community at the department can discuss and evaluate their instruction right before and after the teaching program runs for a semester. It is very important since it can provide the information about students’ progress. Moreover, through these kinds of activity, the lecturers and the community can consider about inserting LLS instruction in the curriculum (Weinstein & Underwood, 1985; Brown, 2000; Yang, 2002; Cesur, 2011; Gerami & Baighlou, 2011), considering the course overview, course content, instructional methods, and evaluation data (Weinstein & Underwood, 1985), and implementing it for teaching-learning process inside or outside the classroom. It is fruitful as Indonesian students are dependent on their lecturers (Aunurrahman, Kurniawati, & Ramadhiyanti, 2013). Therefore, after they are taught about LLS then it is expected that they become independent and more responsible for selecting appropriate strategies related to the set of their learning goals. More importantly, Brown (2000) states that teaching LLS can enable students to develop autonomy and self-regulation and they result in students’ language proficiency.

Second, the stage for implementing LLS instruction is through the usage of certain models. Chamot (2008) states that there are three models such as Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI), Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), and the model proposed by Grenfell and Harris. The SSBI model (Cohen, 1998) put the lecturers as the helpers of their students to learn new strategies regarding their learning styles. Hence, this model emphasizes on effective lecturers’ role. On the contrary, lecturers and students have equality in playing their roles
using the CALLA model during the teaching-learning process (Chamot, 2005). Meanwhile, the Grenfell and Harris model (Grenfell & Harris, 1999) asks students to be more independent as they have wide chance to make identification and determination on their own learning strategies. Certainly, all those models are applicable. However, related to the university students’ needs, the CALLA model is feasible because it conforms the purpose of making them more autonomous and self-regulated (Brown, 2000). Another consideration is that Indonesian class size is large so if the students are taught well using the CALLA model then the students do not have to be directed all the time. In fact, they can do evaluation and self-reflection simultaneously.

Third, lecturers are required to have awareness in designing their instruction (Hakan, 2015). It is quite necessary because it affects students’ improvement not only their proficiency but also their preference on learning style so the meaningful and practical learning is created. Related to the idea of instructional design, lecturers can consider about using eclective methods (Weinstein & Underwood, 1985). This method is applicable because in designing methods, there are two things have to be taken into account namely students’ competency and proficiency (Sadiqah, 2015). Further, lecturers should be aware that there is no single method which works effectively for all members of learning group (Li, 2012). Therefore, if the lecturers are aware of their students’ proficiency and understand what learning strategies they use for language class they enroll then lecturers get easier in order to determine the methods they use during teaching-learning process. The key, then, is on recognizing the students’ needs and learning strategies, setting
the learning goals together, developing suitable materials, formulating the available methods to be applicable for all, giving treatment to the students, and evaluating the teaching program (Tanjung, 2018).

C. TEACHING
1. Definition

Teaching itself has traditionally had a number of different meanings, as the Concise Oxford English Dictionary shows:

1. To give systematic information to a person, (about a subject or skill).
2. To practise this professionally.
3. To enable a person to do something by instruction and training (to swim; to dance).
4. To be an advocate for a moral principle (my parents taught me forgiveness).
5. To communicate, instruct in a moral principle.
6. To induce a person by example or punishment to do or not to do a thing (that will teach you to sit still; that will teach you not to laugh).
7. To make a person disinclined to do a thing

Lecturing and teaching are both activities invariably associated with the system of formal education. For some, the era of postmodernism is also the era of ‘post-education society’ (Evans, 1985). Formal education systems worldwide are said to have failed to bring about the kinds of economic, social and political changes which they were once supposed to help achieve. New policies for lifelong learning are needed in order to bring education more closely
into line with the world that is coming into existence. Many international organisations have produced policy proposals for lifelong learning or the learning society, according to which the role of education systems, although still vital, have to be put into much broader learning contexts (EC, 1996; OECD, 1996; UNESCO, 1996).

Being an effective lecturer, with an appropriate range of skills, therefore continues to constitute much of the content of the training of teachers for further, higher and adult education. Understandably, trainee teachers tend to lay particular stress on their need to develop effective classroom skills as part of their professional preparation. As a result, there has been a focus in professional training upon:

1. Types of learning theory (behaviourist, cognitive, social, experiential and so on).
2. Names of learning theorists (Pavlov, Skinner, Thorndike, Gagne, Dewey and so on).
3. Professional discourses of learning (objectives, outcomes, styles, support, assessment and so on).

Unsurprisingly, trainee teachers have often failed to make connections between these, except in the most superficial way and unrelated to the actual learning of actual learners (Jarvis, 2006:93). I will teach you to concept of teaching report make clear. In the latter, we read: While the Dearing Committee was concerned that the image of the professor sitting high above his students had to be eradicated, the committee did not really consider the concept of teaching itself, although it did include distance education within its deliberations. In the previous chapter we outlined the meanings to the concept given by the Concise Oxford English Dictionary but in
order to demonstrate how even the dictionaries differ, in this chapter we record the meanings given by Collins Dictionary. It offers us a number of different ways of viewing teaching: to help to learn, to show; to give instruction or information; to cause to learn or understand; to teach someone a lesson. Perhaps this final one shows us something of the paradox of teaching, but the many definitions from both dictionaries illustrate that it is hard to define teaching. Indeed, Pratt (1998) offers five different approaches to it: transmission (effective delivery), apprenticeship (modelling ways of doing), developmental (cultivating ways of thinking), nurturing (facilitating self-sufficiency), and social reform (seeking a better society). Pratt is actually suggesting five different aims of teaching rather than five different conceptions of it. Nowhere does he actually offer a definition, since he recognises that people, like the dictionaries, have a variety of perspectives on the subject. Neither does he try to distil out common elements from these perspectives in order to provide a conceptual framework for understanding the concept (Jarvis, 2006:32-33).

Many years before this, Hirst and Peters (1970, p. 80) tried to delimit teaching by suggesting that ‘teaching had to indicate or express some content, that pupils are intended to learn’, and this for them was the thing that distinguished teaching from other similar activities. It certainly fits the pattern of the professor, as described by Bourdieu and Passeron, and it is also in accord with curriculum theory where content is one of its central elements, but if this is the essential nature of teaching it is hard to locate facilitation within it. In these contexts, it is perhaps no wonder that writers such as Carl Rogers (1983, p. 119) can claim that teaching is
an over-rated function. But Rogers was a teacher! But not one who sought to control the content of what is taught and so Hirst’s and Peters’ approach is not applicable to all forms of teaching. Perhaps, an even more inclusive definition is required (Jarvis, 2006:33).

Brown and Atkins (1998, p.2) actually offer a simple and almost self-evident definition of teaching: it is ‘providing opportunities for students to learn’. Kidd (1973, p. 292) would agree with this and he suggested that we need a noun that captures the idea of ‘he (sic)– who-assists-learning-to-happen’ – which is rather like the idea of animation. Yet this approach is not as self-evident as it might seem. For instance:

- What happens if the students do not take the opportunities – is providing them with opportunities still teaching? One could claim that it is, but Freire (1998) would claim that there can be no teaching without learning. Nevertheless, if teachers cannot attract their learners they might be considered poor teachers rather than nonteachers. Yet poor teaching might not be the only reason why the students do not learn – it might simply be that they do not want to learn, or that they consider the subject irrelevant to their lives. It is possible to take a horse to the water but it cannot be made to drink.

- Does there have to be a relationship between the teacher and the learners for teaching to occur, as there is in the traditional classroom – or has the realignment of time and space in late modern society meant that the teacher’s role has changed in dramatic ways? Clearly as teachers now prepare material on-line there can be no face-to-face
relationship in these instances, but neither did the professor seated high above his students have much of a relationship with his then? In on-line teaching a relationship might emerge, although its nature will have changed, and an opportunity to learn has still been provided.

- Writing a book or a journal article might be viewed as providing an opportunity to learn, but is authorship per se teaching? It certainly provides opportunities for learning but authors are not necessarily teachers in the formal sense of the word, they might not regard themselves as teachers, nor might they regard their writing as teaching. Yet in writing material for print-based distance education, there is an intention to provide opportunities for learning, so that certain forms of authorship are teaching. Consequently, teaching might be seen as an intended activity.

It may be seen that it is extremely difficult to get a definition that delimits teaching from other similar activities. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this chapter, teaching is regarded as an intentional activity in which opportunities to learn are provided, and this is broad enough to include all the types of teaching mentioned above. Now the question posed by the title of this chapter might be addressed (Jarvis, 2006:33).

1. Method of teaching

The focus of teaching is reading and writing, especially reading. And the most common mode is 'lockstep', which is "the class grouping where all the students are working with the teacher, where all the students are 'locked into' the same rhythm and pace,
the same activity." The teacher acts as 'controller' and 'assessor' (Harmer 1983, p. 205). This learning mode has its own advantages. For example, everyone can hear what is being said; students can get a good language model from the teacher, etc (Zhou & Nin, 2015).

Language teaching has to be clear whether it is teaching;

1. A local language to people who want to take part in a monolingual local language community, whether Finnish in Finland or Basque in Spain
2. A central language to people who want to take part in a multilingual community where the language is used, say English in London or Delhi
3. A supercentral language to people who want to use it for specialist cross-national uses, say French for diplomacy
4. A hypercentral language to people who want to use it for a range of purposes across the globe.

But most language teaching has not been concerned with these issues. It teaches language – a standard native homeland monolingual variety believed to be good for all purposes and all people. It cannot be assumed that all students of English now need it as a hypercentral language, or that all English children need French as a local language for visiting France, or that all learners of Chinese are heritage learners; and so on. We need to see how language teaching can better prepare people for use of second languages in the diverse situations in which they find themselves in the twenty-first century (Wei & Cook, 2009).

Language teaching is not just teaching language, as Richards and Renandya remind us in their list (2002: 2) of ‘Key issues that shape the design and delivery of [English] language teaching’:
Understanding learners and their roles, rights, needs, motivations, strategies, and the processes they employ in second language learning understanding the nature of language teaching and learning and the roles teachers, teaching methods and teaching materials play in facilitating successful learning understanding how English functions in the lives of learners, the way the English language works, the particular difficulties it poses for second language learners, and how learners can best achieve their goals in learning English understanding how schools, classrooms, communities, and the language teaching profession can best support the teaching and learning of English (Wei & Cook, 2009).

2. Language Teaching and the Need for Methods

The main problem with large-scale language teaching approaches (‘methods’ in the wider sense) is not, it seems to me, that they fail to take into account the complex nature of society, culture, human psychology or interpersonal relations. It is that they do not take into account the complexity of language itself. Discussion of methods can only be really constructive if given a tighter focus, looking at separate aspects of language and asking for each ‘how can this best be taught?’ Just as one can talk about good and bad ways of putting a hinge on a door, organizing a tennis tournament or training a sheepdog, one can talk about good and bad ways of teaching German technical vocabulary, demonstrating Chinese tones, introducing English question formation to beginners, organizing role play in groups, planning a three-week intensive Spanish course for tourist guides, or indeed teaching the French for he had. Language is very many different things, very many different
types of activity are involved in learning and teaching it, and considerations of method are relevant to all of these. Teachers, where they are not too influenced by theoretical fashion, are of course generally well aware of this; few teachers seem persuaded that methods are dead (Thornbury, 1998; Block, 2001; Bell, 2007).

In conducting teaching-learning process, the power of lecturers and students must be equal. They share materials to be constructed and result in the form of knowledge (Freire, 1970). However, the knowledge construction between lecturers and students would not run well as long as the lecturers who make an effort solely to engage the students in learning process. Thus, students are also needed to be actively engaged through making use of some strategies in learning the materials taught by the lecturers. On the contrary, in Indonesian context, mainly for EFL program, students are not well familiar with learning strategies and dependent on their lecturers (Aunurrahman, Kurniawati, and Ramadhiyanti, 2013). In fact, they should play their important role in obtaining and sharing the information regarding the effective teaching-learning process. One of the challenges they have is they do not recognize their learning strategies, even make use of appropriate learning strategies to have sufficient proficiency. The root of that challenge is because they are not taught formally about learning strategies. Thus, although Indonesian students have already been learning English subject for multiple years, they have low level of proficiency (Lie, 2007; Marcellino, 2008; Imperiani, 2012, Larson, 2014; Oktaviyanti, 2017).
• **Communicative Language Teaching Approach**

  Daisy (2012) stated that CLT is an approach to the teaching of second and foreign languages that emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. And Richards and Rodgers (2001) wrote that, CLT “aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication” (p. 155). CLT approach is believed to be the most effective theoretical model in English language teaching since early 1970s. Richards and Rodgers further emphasized that in the light to the concept of this approach, language carries not only functional meaning, but also carries social meaning. Thus, both learning the linguistic forms and understanding their potential communicative functions and social meanings are equally important. In other words, the language learners should be competent enough to associate the linguistic forms with appropriate non-linguistic knowledge so as to account for the specific functional meaning intended by the speaker (Littlewood, 1981). Littlewood (1981) further proposed that one of the most typical features of CLT approach is that it lays stress on both functional and structural aspects of language.

  CLT is based on Hymes’s (1966) concept of communicative competence which is an extension of Chomsky’s (1965) concepts of linguistic competence and performance. Hymes (1966) posited that it is not enough for the learner to be competent in linguistics or grammar alone to use language in a given cultural social context. Therefore, the situation in which language has to be used becomes relevant for language teaching. Howatt (1984) stated that "The
Communicative Language Teaching stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use English for communicative purposes and attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching" (p. 27). In the light of this approach, both instructional and learning goals are aimed at communication. It assumes that language does not occur without a social context. Based on this concept, therefore, both language teaching and learning should be accomplished in its context. Learning emphasizing communicative competence is now commonplace in the world.

- **Fluency Emphasis at the Expense of Accuracy**

  Communicative language teaching sets as its goal the teaching of communicative competence. That is developing fluency. Fluency is natural language use occurring when a speaker conducts meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence. As a consequence, the CLT Approach has come under attack from teachers for being prejudiced in favor of native-speaker teachers, or those teachers who give up the traditional teaching method---grammar-translation method (Chang, 2011). Harmer (2003) believed that the CLT Approach is often seen as having eroded the explicit teaching of grammar with a consequent loss among students in accuracy in developing fluency. Communicative language teaching methodology under communicative approach over emphasises fluency at the expense of accuracy. Its attitude towards learners’ errors is a typical example. Traditionally, errors are usually seen as signs of failure on learners’ and teachers’ parts.
However, communicative language teaching approach emphasises on communication efficiency. Fluency is put much more emphasis than accuracy. It perceives learners' errors as a sign of progress in internalising the language system. According to communicative language teaching approach, the errors may provide us with insights into how language learners process language data. Errors may be caused by interference from the mother tongue when the learners 'fall back' on their existing knowledge of the first language to solve problems in the target language, when they have not mastered enough knowledge of the target language. Or they may be caused by over-generalisation when learners try to apply what they have gained in the target language. It is evident that both transfer and generalisation are important learning strategies that can be employed in second and foreign language learning (Zhou & Nin, 2015).

Therefore, it seems attempting to conclude that no one method is perfect for every teaching situation. Like Widdowson says, “different approaches to language teaching have tended to emphasise one rather than, and often at the expense of, the other.” (1990:157). Thus, for different teaching settings, different methods/methodologies ought to be adopted, ideally, integrated, for they compensate for each other. In general, although to completely achieve communicative teaching in foreign language teaching is always pursued as the ultimate goal, we are still experiencing an indispensable stage involving the integration of the grammar-translation method and the communicative method. The two approaches are just different sets of language teaching and learning principles. We may find in each of them strong points and
weak points. Therefore, we should encourage language teachers to fuse the two methods to meet the goal of foreign language teaching so as to cater to the actual needs of our language learners, since the two can complement each other.

The nature of teaching might, therefore, change both with the nature of the knowledge being examined and its means of dissemination. At the same time, since it is learning that is now being encouraged rather than teaching, it might first be necessary to redefine teaching away from the definitions provided in the Concise Oxford Dictionary – for instance, teaching might be regarded as an activity designed to foster human learning. But then it might be asked is any activity designed to foster human learning the process of teaching? Are managers, for instance, who create a situation where any of their staff learn in the work place teachers? Clearly, however, as the nature and status of knowledge has changed, so teaching has changed – from demonstrating scientific truth through word or action. It is difficult to consider the idea that the nature of knowledge has changed and in order to illustrate this a little more we need to look at some different ways of understanding knowledge.

• **Evaluating the teaching process**

Since the emphasis of teaching has been placed on instrumental rationality, it is little wonder that one of the ways of measuring teaching success has been on the outcomes of the process. Teachers must be effective if they produce students who gain good grades – a measurable outcome. But there is no direct evidence to indicate that the teaching process has actually been the
cause of the measurable outcome! It might have been, but we do not necessarily know whether it is the teaching process, or the teachers’ personality or the learners and their efforts, which help achieve the success. But there is at least one other problem: students can learn from many other sources and it might even be that poor teachers drive good students to the libraries. But so does the fear of failure! Our professor sitting on high might actually be communicating relevant knowledge but fear of failing his course might mean that his students spend hours in the libraries and then it is their study skills that are as, or more, important than the lectures that they attended (Jarvis, 2006:37-38).

The other way of assessing the teaching process is to observe it and in some way record it. In this numerical world, we have seen teachers graded, and in some places the grade is used in helping to determine whether, or not, teachers should be promoted. But as we know from all the research on marking essays that there is a tremendous difference between different markers and how much more is this likely to be when each teaching event is unique and when it is not really possible to re-visit the event and re-consider it? We are all aware that students’ evaluations of the same lesson do not all agree, and a similar disagreement might well be found if experienced lecturers all assessed a teaching process. Indeed, many years ago we tried an experiment in a workshop when we asked thirty teachers to assess a video of someone cleaning a pair of shoes – there was considerable variation in their assessments! This is not to claim that bad teaching cannot be identified, only that it is more difficult to do than many of the oversimplistic methods that are often employed in many situations.
With distance education materials, we can only evaluate the content and the way that it is produced and presented, but the writer of the material may not actually be the person who designs the format or produces the final structure. In this sense, the writer as academic can be evaluated but the presentation of that material is a skill that might other professionals might possess, so that teaching itself becomes a team activity with at least one partner not necessarily being an academic. However, it is also clear from this discussion that distance education has changed the nature of teaching; it is about content, process and design which captures the spirit of the technological age. It is an ultimate form of manufacture; it comes much closer to being a technology and a science of production than does classroom teaching. Like other occupations, the uniqueness of the person is removed. The human relationship of the classroom is displaced by impersonal transmission of knowledge and individual learning and achieving. However, in certain forms of on-line learning we are beginning to see the possibilities of relationship and individuality emerge in distance education – it is a more human and a neo-Fordist approach to education.

What we have begun to question in each of these points is the idea that teaching is just about technique. It is a technology but is this all it needs to be to provide learning opportunities intentionally? Is the teacher merely the instrument choosing the right methods, communicating the ‘correct’ knowledge and getting the desired results? In this process the students are treated as passive and are moulded like materials in other production processes – but this does not exhaust the process of teaching since
students need individual help, need to be motivated, and so on. Learning and teaching needs a personal relationship in order to achieve the best outcomes.

As teachers, it can be useful to be reminded about the unique qualities of each of our students. Keeping this in mind will provide a useful backdrop for the next chapter, in which we address the question of methodological choice (Freeman, 2000).
A. Language Teaching Approaches

The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching emphasized on spoken language teaching in the beginning. The target language is the language of the classroom. New language points are introduced and practiced situationally. The Grammar-Translation Method focuses on developing students' appreciation of the target language's literature and teaching the language. Students are presented with target-clanguage reading passages and answer questions that follow. The Audio Lingual Method is based on the behaviorist belief that language learning is the acquisition of a set of correct language habits. The learner repeats patterns until able to produce them spontaneously. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) stresses the need to teach communicative competence as opposed to linguistic competence; thus, functions are emphasized over forms. Students usually work with authentic materials in small groups on communicative activities. Total Physical Response (TPR) begins by placing primary importance on listening comprehension, emulating the early stages of mother tongue acquisition, and then moving to speaking, reading, and writing. The Silent Way is the theoretical basis of Gattegno that teaching must be subordinated to learning and thus, students must develop their own inner criteria for correctness. All four skills reading, writing, speaking, and listening are taught from the beginning. Community Language Learning (CLL) psychological counseling techniques to learning, which is known as
Counseling-Learning. Community Language Learning represents the use of Counseling-Learning theory to teach languages.

Suggestopedia is Lozanov's method that seeks to help learners eliminate psychological barriers to learning. Dialogs are presented to the accompaniment of music. Students just relax and listen to them being read and later playfully practice the language during an “activation” phase.

The Direct Method (TDM) allows students to perceive meaning directly through the target language taught from the beginning because no translation is allowed. Visual aids and learning materials are used to clarify the meaning of vocabulary items and concepts in real life language.[1, 6] Each method/approach has its own strength; however, in most classroom learning situations, teachers play the important roles in implementing the methods they have been trained to use as well as deciding which one to use and when to use it.

B. METHODS

Methodology is systematic and scientific way of teaching any subject. It guides teacher "How to teach" and "How his teaching may be effective". It is very necessary for teacher to know various types of methods and techniques of teaching English. Method may also be defined as: "The process of planning, selection and grading language materials and items, techniques of teaching, etc." Anthony (1963) defines the term 'Method' as: "It is a particular trick, strategy or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Types of Methods:
1. **The Grammar-Translation Method**

The Grammar-Translation Method is the oldest method of teaching English. This method is also known as the Classical Method. The Grammar-Translation Method dominated European and foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s. It modified form it continues to be widely used in some parts of the world today. The Grammar-Translation Method was used for the teaching of English in the beginning, under the influence of classical languages like Latin, Greek and Sanskrit. In The Grammar-Translation Method the students first study the parts of speech and syntax in detail. The sciences in English and the mother tongue were compared and contrasted side by side. The Grammar-Translation Method was the offspring of German scholarship. It was first known in the United States as the Prussian Method.

2. **The Direct Method**

The Direct Method was quite successful in private language schools. The Direct Method overemphasized and distorted the similarities between naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language learning. This method represented the product of enlightened amateurism. Direct Method is a method of teaching a foreign language, especially a modern language through conversation, discussion and reading in the language itself, without the use of the pupil's language, without translation, and without the study of formal grammar. The first words are taught by pointing to objects or pictures or by performing actions. Enthusiastic supporters of the Direct Method introduced it in France and Germany. It becomes widely known in the United States through its
use by Sauveur and Maximilan Berlitz in successful commercial language schools.

3. The Bilingual Method
   In the Bilingual Method, two languages, that is the mother tongue and the language to be learnt are used. In this method, the mother tongue is used only to explain the meanings of difficult words. Mother tongue equivalent of English words are given and the use of the mother tongue is gradually dropped as the students' progress in learning the language. Thus the Bilingual Method recommended a restricted use of the mother tongue only by the teacher and not by the pupils. It also provided for intensive practice of patterns in English, helping the formation of correct language habits.

4. The Reading Method
   English language was the need of the time because it was the language that provided the easy channel for communication with the international community. In his opinion the Indian were learning English to open the window of the world to look in the advancement in the field of science and technology. These all information is available in English language. To get this knowledge, speaking is not necessary but reading is necessary. He emphasized the silent and loud reading. This approach is also known as situational language teaching. British applied situational approach developed by linguists. It dated from 1930s to the 1960s and which had an impact on language courses. Many teachers are still using this approach. This approach is based on the structural view of
language. In this approach speech is emphasized as the basis of the language and structure is very important for developing speaking ability. In this method there is direct bond between speech and expression. This approach suggests to present different structures in meaningful situations. Learners are to know the situation in which different structures are used for transmitting message or expressing ideas. The American psychologist also insisted this approach. British linguists Firth and Halliday gave the idea that structure must be used in different situations in which they could be used. So they gave its distinctiveness to Situational language teaching.
CHAPTER III
CURRICULUM, SYLLABUS, AND LESSON PLAN

A. CURRICULUM

Curriculum, a noun for the subjects comprising a course of study in a school or college, is one of the most important things on the education world. Kitchen, Parker, and Pushor (2011) state that Connelly and Clandinin (1988) professed that “there is no better way to study curriculum than to study ourselves.” Furthermore, they reasoned that understanding the lives of students is an important undertaking, one which recognizes that there is no test that tells teachers what is most important and that “this realization will come about as you ask yourself very hard narrative questions. Your curriculum is a metaphor for understanding your students’ curriculum.” We and the other authors in this volume take this notion seriously and it underlies the ways in which we educate teacher candidates. We do this first by following Connelly and Clandinin’s (1988) central view on understanding curriculum:

It is simply that all teaching and learning questions – all curriculum matters – be looked at from the point of view of the involved persons. We believe that curriculum development and curriculum planning are fundamentally questions of teacher thinking and teacher doing. We believe that it is teachers’ “personal knowledge” that determines all matters of significance relative to the planned conduct of classrooms. So “personal knowledge” is the key term.

Evans and Savage (2015) state that to reach an ideal education, we need to develop an area-based curriculum approach
in your teaching. There have been many studies of how teachers can improve their pedagogy (Altrichter et al. 1993; Edwards and Mercer 1987; Turner-Bisset 2001). For our purposes here, we will consider a model drawn from an interesting study of how a group of teachers’ own professional development worked alongside a piece of collaborative curriculum development on which they were working. In this sense, the model serves to act as a bridge between this chapter’s broader considerations about developing an area-based curriculum development model through partnerships and your own individual pedagogy.

Leat, Lofthouse and Taverner’s study (2006) explored the patterns in teachers’ thinking and conceptualized the conditions that supported the actions and interactions of a particular group of teachers who were seeking to implement what has recently become known as a ‘thinking skills’ curriculum. However, the focus of the study was not the piece of curriculum development itself, but rather the processes that the teachers went through as they developed their practice. From this analysis, the authors present a six-phased model.

**Phase 1: Initiation** includes motivational aspects for proposed piece of curriculum development; analysis of beliefs about teaching and learning; Identification of any external benefits for undertaking the development.

**Phase 2: Novice** includes initial stage of teacher planning and classroom experimentation; anxiety in planning lessons and preparing resources, but this can be overcome quickly.
Phase 3: Concerns includes initial enthusiasm hits a buffer as the requirement for more detailed knowledge about pedagogical elements (e.g. an approach to questioning) become apparent; Self-doubts may emerge; questioning the perceived benefits in relation to the amount of effort involved; significant shifts in one’s belief about teaching as the self-evaluation processes begin to challenge traditional thinking.

Phase 4: Consolidation includes issues and concerns raised in the previous phase are resolved through collaboration and other external forms of support; collaborative and comparative nature of the exercise helped staff maintain their energy and commitment; sharing practice and related coaching was a significant benefit at this point; external benefits (e.g. studying for a higher degree) helped staff here.

Phase 5: Expansion includes individual classroom practices began to make links across curricular subjects and with external themes; new practices gradually become embedded within routine practices; further study aided this process.

Phase 6: Commitment includes shift in teacher identity brought about by the opportunity to reflect on experiences and clarify beliefs; new practices embedded and no going back; teachers become strong advocates of the innovation and sustain it in their own teaching.

When should a teacher be encouraged to adopt an area-based approach to curriculum development? We suggest that there are different answers that could be given to this question, depending on the teacher involved and the purposes behind the piece of curriculum development.
Teachers in the early stages of their career should be encouraged to adopt a broad perspective to their work as soon as possible. This should begin during their initial teacher education courses and carry across into their induction year. Although notions of subject knowledge and its application within pedagogy are contestable (Parker 2004; Parker and Heywood 2000), most young teachers will have degree-level knowledge in a subject area and will be keen to apply this in various different ways. The strategies for teaching in what might be called a centrifugal way, i.e. outward-looking in terms of their subject knowledge (Savage 2011), should be embedded strongly within the process of initial teacher education. This should include an area-based approach to curriculum development as part of a broader approach to cross-curricularity within their teaching.

Teachers who are further ahead in their careers have the benefit of experience and, providing that this has not resulted in complacency in terms of ongoing professional development, should allow them to enter the above model at a higher level. However, as with any change to one’s pedagogy, it is likely that concerns will be felt when new approaches are implemented. Therefore, teachers within this category may feel significant challenges as subject-orientated approaches to teaching and learning begin to accommodate new area-based approaches to curriculum development. In addition to the development of this approach within the work of an individual teacher, it is worth moving the focus away from them for a moment and to consider the wider, school-based systems that are needed in order to encourage and support
this type of professional and curriculum development. We would agree with O’Brien and MacBeath (1999) that:

▪ Development will only be effective within a supportive, co-operative ethos at least at some level (school, department or classroom) but preferably at all levels;
▪ Those responsible for development must have a genuine understanding of the context in which teachers work – as teachers perceive it;
▪ Teachers need to be recognized as people at different stages in their personal and professional life cycle.

Working as a teacher can be a solitary experience at times. One of the benefits of this type of curriculum development is the opportunity to make productive links with other colleagues within the school and across a local community. This can be a powerful and motivating force and we would encourage you to explore these approaches further.

Evans and Savage (2015) also state that we need to plan practical steps to take your work forwards. In doing so, we have borrowed explicitly from the excellent work done by the RSA (2012) in this area. This series of ideas is an elaboration on their framework as presented within their guide for practitioners.

i. Reflect, ask yourself, or the school(s) with whom you are looking to work, the following three questions: Why is the local area important to the school curriculum?; How open to change is the school curriculum?; What, and who, ‘counts’ as local? Put these questions to staff, partners, local employers, parents and anyone else involved. Share the outcomes of the responses to these questions with all parties that you have canvassed opinions from.
Use them to structure an ongoing debate with these partners as time allows.

ii. **Map**, take a serious look at what the area immediately around the school consists of, before looking further afield. What businesses, cultures, buildings, parks, streets, challenges and opportunities are there? Map the school’s existing connections to local business, people, parents and places to visit. How might these be used more fully? What kinds of relationships are they?

Ask pupils about their places of birth, family occupations and any international connections. Ask pupils to place ‘emoticons’ on a physical map of the local area, indicating places about which they feel positively and negatively. This exercise can give you an excellent baseline in terms of how your pupils view their local area. It can help you evaluate the specific benefits of a particular project or intervention within your curriculum.

iii. **Engage**, engage early with partners, and begin a conversation about the purpose of education and the needs of the locality. Be honest about the aims of everyone involved from the beginning, and address how those aims can be met.

Do not undervalue the skills and attributes that the school can bring to a partnership within an area-based curriculum project. Remember that the benefits of such a project flow both ways.

iv. **Scope**, have a wide-ranging scoping session that explores opportunities that are beyond the obvious. In a wider school engagement, include as many staff as possible in this process. You could also engage selected partners from your community in this process.
v. Plan, make a concrete plan for a project together with a partner, including dates, learning objectives and key activities for your pupils. This should be similar to your standard medium-term, or unit of work, planning template. Ensure that both parties are involved in the drafting of this plan and have a copy that they can refer to.

vi. Commit, draw up a partnership agreement which sets out the expectations on both parties.

CURRICULUM (KUALIFIKASI KERANGKA NASIONAL INDONESIA)

Braine (2005) states in his book that English has been described as the first foreign language in Indonesia and it is officially taught to students in the secondary schools. The history of English teaching in Indonesia is actually traceable to the early 1900s when modern schooling was first introduced. Efforts to improve its teaching have been made since the arrival of Indonesian independence in 1945; these efforts have included the standardizations of the curriculum carried out in 1975, 1984 and 1994. The most recent curriculum, the 1994 one, is still in use. It advocates a teaching approach called the Meaningfulness Approach.

However, an evaluation of teaching to date indicates that it is not yet successful. This fact stands as a great challenge for every one dealing with ELT in Indonesia. For this reason, effort to improve the quality of English teaching is highly appreciated, in particular the improvement of the professionalism of English teachers.

The objective of English teaching in Indonesia, as first spelled out by Frits Wachendorff, was not elaborated until 1967, when the MEC issued decree number 096/1967 (Huda, 1999). This
decree stipulates that the objectives of English teaching in Indonesian secondary schools is to equip the students with language skills that enable them to:

- Read textbooks and reference materials in English, which constitute 90% of all available reference materials;
- Understand lectures given by foreign lecturers as part of the affiliation programs with universities abroad or to communicate with individuals and students from overseas;
- Take notes of lectures given by foreign lecturers, and to introduce the culture of Indonesia to international communities;

There are many factors that can influence the English language learning achievement. Curriculum, lecturer/teacher, facilities, and learning materials play important role in teaching and learning English as Foreign Language (EFL). Teaching and learning process in the classroom should be supported by a good academic environment where students can improve their skills, one of facilities for this purpose is Self-Access Language Learning Center (SALLC). It is one of facilities which is designed for students to improve their English skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). The students have access to resources ranging from photocopied exercises with answer keys to train their ability in English language skills and language components. SALLC promotes the approach where students study independently choosing from among different resources and materials that are available. Most of users in SALLC access reading materials because they think that they
need to improve their reading skills in order to be able to comprehend any text in English, so it needs practice a lot.

Reading is an essential skill for students of a foreign language. It is the way to get information and knowledge from a text or book in which knowledge and science are found. By reading, students can increase their vocabularies and entertain themselves. By strengthening reading skill, students will make a better progress and development in learning English. In short, reading is important for students to develop their speaking and writing skills. Yopp (2001) states that reading can develop students’ ability to learn through a text; to expand their ability to think broadly, deeply, and critically about ideas in the text. Using a suitable text for students will motivate them to read and increase their interest in reading.

At university level, students need to practice a lot to explore the materials which is related to their major. There are three levels of reading subject at English Department of FBS UNP, they SELT 2014, Padang, June 11-12, 2014 329 are Reading 1, Reading 2, and Extensive Reading. Good students are expected to read actively even though they are not assigned by lecturers to read. They may come to SALLC to do various types of exercises.

Although students have completed three levels before Extensive Reading, there are still problems they face when they read. Lack of vocabulary and low motivation is the greatest problem for students. In the extensive reading class students will read the non-fiction and fiction text. They have to find their own material to be presented in the class. For non-fiction materials such as scientific articles, news and others students do not find many difficulties in the text but when students have to present fiction text in the class
for example short story, most of them find difficulty to understand the story. The students cannot locate the idea of the text because they are unfamiliar with the words and also they cannot guess the meaning from the context. Because they find it is difficult their motivation to read the short story decrease. According to Alderson (2000) poor motivation doubles the problems in reading because the less someone reads the less existing knowledge they will have later in connecting their reading material with what they know already.

Students need an appropriate supporting material in reading; a material which can make them read and increase their reading ability. An appropriate source that they may access is reading logs in SALLC. The most important thing is there should be a correlation between curriculum and material in SALLC. Among the SALLC materials, reading logs is the material that is accessed more by the students. Reading logs is an ideal model to ease access to literary text, the various sections of reading logs activate background knowledge and introduce strategy to help students recognize the difficult features of setting, narration, plot, characters and theme. In the reading logs the students have to report their guessed, difficult vocabularies, how they are getting on with reading, problems they have encountered, and emotions and feelings they experience as they read and write.

Al Hafizh, S.S., M.A. (2014) states in his journal that self-access centers are places designed for self-directed language learning in which students engage in literacy practices that permit their learning a foreign language. As such, the center is a social context where literacy practices take place. In this article the writer
focused on reading material as artifacts of the literacy practice in the
self-access center. Most of the materials in self-access centers can
be classified in different ways. They may be authentic, didactic,
published language learning materials, and/or adapted and
designed materials that fit the students’ needs in each setting
(Gardner & Miller, 1999).

Several authors have suggested the features materials
should have. Importantly, Reinders and Lewis (2006) identified a set
of specific features to evaluate self-access materials to allow more
effective practices at self-access centers. To determine those
features, first the writer conducted a need analysis through
questionnaire as proposed by Gardner and Miller (1999) to gather
data about what the students at the SALLC thought was good
material for self-access. Ultimately, they created a checklist to
evaluate materials that focused on reading material.

During the observations at SALLC of FBS UNP, it is identified
the correlation between what they are studying in the class and the
exercise in SALLC. This included noting what kind of textual material
was involved. After these observations, students were asked about
their reasons for choosing those materials. Students reported that
they used materials for two main reasons: to do the task which is
given by the lecturer in the classroom, such as studying for a test,
and because they perceived certain features of the materials (or the
technology) as beneficial for their own learning.

It seems students made decisions mainly based on the
affordances they perceived in the materials. They identified that
they can learn different aspects of the language and this gave them
a sense of purpose when using materials. The response of students toward SALLC and SALLC materials can be seen in the data below:

Link and match between materials in the classroom and SALLC materials

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25%</td>
<td>Very good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55%</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20%</td>
<td>Not good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SALLC materials that are accesses most

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>67%</td>
<td>Language skill (listening, writing, reading, speaking)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20%</td>
<td>Language component (vocabulary, grammar)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13%</td>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Language skill materials that are accessed most

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>58%</td>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22%</td>
<td>Listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10%</td>
<td>Writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10%</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the need analysis it is found that most of the materials do not meet the ideal features and it was not suitable with *KKNi* based curriculum demand. Neither the materials were consistently organized to afford such learning, nor did the students conceptualize their learning with a plan. Rather, the center provided materials for learning activities, but the opportunities for greater affordance were not evident in the observations made. Holec (1981) explains that to take charge of one’s learning implies the responsibility to make decisions about all aspects of learning such as
the pace, the when and where, the materials, monitoring, and assessment. If students are to be autonomous, they are then responsible for making decisions for the selection of materials. However, the selection may be made by their own choices, selected through consultation with an expert (advisor/mentor), or negotiated with teachers or tutors. In this study, it is found that the students decided to make their own choices and chose materials all by themselves and, as we noticed in the interviews, because they thought those materials would help them develop their language skills.

In summary, it is seen that SALLC material are not wholly sufficient due to the lack of full adaptation to this context. Most students have a specific language learning focus for the visit to the self-access center, and they rely on their own judgments and the inconsistent organization of materials to access useful ones. They take advantage of the materials’ affordances despite the lack of systematic organization or adaptation. It is also can be identified that some students come to SALLC and put in time to fulfill their course requirements, but it seems they do not move beyond what is familiar or entertaining in their language learning experience.

National Qualification Framework Indonesia based curriculum or Kurikulum berbasis Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia (KKNI) will increase the quality of universities’ graduates. All this time, there are a lot of courses that only use cognitive elements, for example it only studies what is a language and does not demonstrate how language is used. As the result, there are a lot of universities’ graduates who have different position compare to foreign graduates. If it is seen from the quality of human resources,
our graduates who work in foreign companies are valued lower than expatriates. So it is a necessity for Indonesian Government to make an effort to make equal between national and foreign graduates.

An effort that can be realized is through *KKNI* based curriculum. *KKNI* is a framework of working qualification classes which juxtaposes, equalizes, integrates education sector and training and working experience in order to grant working recognition of competences in accordance to the position of employment in different sectors. The backgrounds to make *KKNI* based curriculum are divided into two, external and internal. In external, it includes global challenge and competition and the ratification of various conversion. While for internal, it includes the difference (quality, quantity, and ability), unemployment, various rules or qualifications and various education.

By the formulation of *KKNI* based curriculum, it is expected that there is an equalization of education quality. One of the efforts that can be done is by reconstruct the used method. In addition, there must be an evaluation and its application.

For undergraduate program (level 6) there are four characteristics that should be gained based on KKNI, they are:

- Capable to apply science, technology and arts within her/his expertise and adaptable to various situations faced during solving a problem.
- Mastering in-depth general and specific theoretical concept of a certain knowledge and capable to formulate related problem solving procedure.
- Capable to take a strategic decision based on information and data analysis and provides direction in choosing several alternative solutions.
- Responsible for her/his own job and can be assigned to take responsibility of the attainment of organizations, performances.

As part of that English language teaching for EFL class, it is found that the materials, an important element of self-access centers, require special attention because they represent the main artifacts students interact with when learning independently. Al Hafizh, S.S., M.A. (2014) notices that not all of the materials fit into KKNI based curriculum because they lack the features to support self-regulated learning.

B. SYLLABUS

Syllabus, noun for an outline of the subjects in a course of study or teaching, is not less importance for teaching than curriculum. Grunert O’Brien, Millis, and Cohen (2008) state that your syllabus should serve a wide variety of functions that will support, engage, and challenge students as they participate in instructional activities, such as:
- Establishes an early point of contact and connection between student and instructor
- Helps set the tone for your course
- Describes your beliefs about educational purposes
- Acquaints students with the logistics of the course
- Contains collected handouts
- Defines student responsibilities for successful coursework
- Describes active learning
• Helps students assess their readiness for your course
• Sets the course in a broader context for learning
• Provides a conceptual framework
• Describes available learning resources
• Communicates the role of technology in the course
• Can provide difficult-to-obtain reading materials
• Can improve the effectiveness of student note taking
• Can include material that supports learning outside the classroom
• Can serve as a learning contract

As Grunert O’Brien, Millis, and Cohen (2008) also indicate, composing a learning-centered syllabus is an important stage in the process of crafting educational experiences for your students. The process first requires a well-developed rationale concerning your personal beliefs and assumptions about the nature of learning and how it is promoted and produced. The process requires next that you establish what skills, knowledge, and attitudes you believe are of most worth, how they can be built into your course, and how they will be appropriately assessed.

It requires that you create a learning environment for your students using teaching and learning strategies that are consistent with those beliefs. And finally, it requires that you compose a syllabus that will communicate your expectations and intentions to your students.

Course development is beyond the scope of this guide, but this section will provide an overview of the process that leads to creating your syllabus. The next sections, “Composing a Learning-Centered Syllabus” and “Using a Learning-Centered Syllabus,” offer
suggestions for ways to communicate these important concepts to your students. Part II provides examples developed and used by faculty in course syllabi and course manuals that adopt a learning-centered perspective.

Wiggins and McTighe (2005) urge faculty to design courses by beginning with the end in mind and looking at three stages:

**Stage 1:** What is worthy and requiring of understanding? (In other words, let your course focus on what the authors characterize as “essential understandings”—what students must take away from your course. You want to “go deep” in those areas.

**Stage 2:** What is evidence of understanding? (These are your assessment/evaluation practices, both formal and informal.)

**Stage 3:** What learning experiences and teaching promote understanding, interest and excellence? (These are the active engagements in learning that help students master your material.)

Fink’s (2003) “backwards design” model builds on this concept by suggesting a taxonomy consistent with it that adds dimensions of learning, including these elements: foundational knowledge, application, integration, human dimensions, caring, and learning how to learn. This taxonomy goes beyond Bloom’s (1956) familiar focus on content knowledge by including additional features that faculty identify when they envision students who have completed the course. These goals often involve intangibles that are difficult to measure, but immensely important, such as “valuing” or “appreciating.” Thus, in planning your syllabus, first identify your learning goals and outcomes. Then consider the assessment approaches—both informal and formal—that will help you know whether your students are actually learning what you proposed as
outcomes. The final piece is determining what assignments and activities will promote these learning outcomes. Nilson (2002, 2003) offers another dimension of planning the syllabus. She suggests creating a graphic syllabus to supplement your learning centered one. This could be a one-page diagram, a flowchart, or a concept map of the topical organization of the course. To complement the graphic syllabus, she suggests distributing an outcomes map that displays the course outcomes. Students who favor a visual learning style will be especially appreciative of the perspective offered by these graphic supports.

Composing a Learning-Centered Syllabus: In higher education, every course, every group of students, every instructor, and every individual student is unique, and their particular combination of features will influence the content and form of a syllabus. Your syllabus can be a brief document or an extended text affording a view of your course and its significance. Regardless of your focus—traditional or learning centered—it is essential to include some basic information.

Syllabus Content: Students generally have key questions about a course: Who is teaching it? What is the purpose? What prerequisites, preparation, or skills are expected? What will occur during typical class sessions? What are the required textbooks, course packs, or supplies, such as calculators, art supplies, or personal response systems (more commonly known as “clickers”)? What topics will be covered? Will the course be entirely face-to-face, online, or a hybrid? How many and what types of tests will the
class take? What types of assignments are required? When are they due? What is the grading system? What are the policies for attendance, late work, and makeup work? It is important to include campus polices on academic honesty, access to services for the disabled, and statements about student conduct and behavior on campus and in class. If you are preparing a syllabus for the first time, beginning with these features is a good starting point.

A learning-centered approach to composing a syllabus incorporates these features but goes further, focusing on the value of your syllabus as a learning tool in your course. It can convey the logic and organization of the course and clarify instructional priorities, providing a common plan and reference. Your syllabus can clarify the responsibilities that both you and your students will assume to achieve the course goals. It can provide students with a way to assess your whole course plan and its rationale, content, activities, policies, and scheduling to achieve some personal control and ownership over their learning processes (Svinicki, 2004; Tagg, 2003).

The more we tell students about what to expect in a course by addressing these details and removing from the syllabus and the course the unknowns and the guessing games, the likelier we are to enlist students’ interest and cooperation. The syllabus becomes an invitation to share responsibility for successful learning.

A learning-centered syllabus includes more, rather than less, information. It provides students with the resources of a course manual, with each component crafted to promote their learning. Fortunately, if your department is concerned about the costs of copying lengthy documents, you can probably upload these documents and make them available to students on a Web page or
at a course management site, such as WebCampus or Blackboard. On the first day of class when you usually distribute and discuss the syllabus, it is best to distribute hard copies even when the syllabus is available electronically. Too few students may have taken the initiative to download it, print it, and bring it to class. But afterwards, students can be responsible for printing additional copies rather than expecting you to provide them.

**Syllabus Form:** When you lay out your syllabus, remember that it is a reference document that is often read section by section. Instructors handle this in different ways: with emphatic headings, mechanical breaks, or other spatial arrangements that clearly demarcate material and make the readings, grading policy, schedule, and so forth easy for students to read and locate. Some instructors include icons, clip art, or photos to add interest and serve as easy reference points. Increasingly, campus centers for teaching and learning provide formats and templates for developing a syllabus. At some campuses, academic leaders, including deans and chairs, are weighing in on what belongs in a syllabus. As you consider the format you’ll use, check the resources on your campus to see whether there is a preferred or recommended format.

It is helpful to distribute longer versions of a syllabus printed on threethreehole - punched pages that can be inserted in a three - ring binder. Students appreciate this format because they can then include their own notes and personal resources for the course in one location.
**Syllabus Online:** Uploading the syllabus to a course management site or to a department’s home page offers faculty the opportunity to take advantage of the hypertext environment, to make additions readily available, to announce modifications in scheduled dates, and to create links to other resources for students. Most of us still want and require students to have a hard copy for common reference in the classroom. It is helpful to regard the syllabus as both a dynamic learning tool and an agreement that is reviewed carefully during the first class meetings and returned to frequently throughout the course.

Before placing course material online or in a course management system, you may want to consult with an instructional designer to discuss how to take advantage of the campus computing environment without compromising your goals for students’ learning (Smith & Stalcup, 2001; Wilhite, Lunde, & King, 2001). Know how students will be accessing your course materials: from on-campus computer networks — such as labs, classrooms, and residence halls — or from an off-site location such as home or the local library. This is important because it affects connection speed. Faster connection speeds allow for the use of video and audio clips, streaming video, and high-resolution visual images. Slower services, such as dial-up, will be problematic and disadvantage students who do not have access to high-speed service.

Learn which browser, word processor, and other basic software is recommended for the specific course management system you are using. Include that information in the syllabus. For example, if WordPerfect is not compatible (i.e., not readable) with one or more of the systems, directing students to save their files in rich text
format (RTF) or portable document format (PDF) will be the workable solution. Keep in mind that your course materials must be in compliance with federal regulations that focus on accessibility.

All Web documents are created using hypertext mark-up language (HTML), the basic programming language of the Web. Many new software products have been developed that make creating HTML documents almost as easy as using standard word-processing software. Microsoft and WordPerfect have HTML add-ons to their word processors. Those wishing to explore more sophisticated high-end technology can use Java, JavaScript, Flash, and CGI to add interactivity or animation.

Once you’ve created your Web pages, you will need to work with your college or university computing staff to move your Web pages to the institution’s server (unless you or your department runs a server). If you wish to give access only to students in your class, request that your Web server administrator create usernames and passwords for each student.

The first week of the course may be a good time to demonstrate how to access the online course materials. It is also a good time to involve students’ class participation by soliciting their recommendations and experiences with Internet service providers and learning which students are willing to be peer mentors for those new to the course management system. Point your students to information technology supports on campus so that they can learn which campus labs have the software necessary to review course materials, and explain how to access campus servers from off campus. Describe how technology will be used in the course to enhance learning objectives. Identify computer hardware and
software requirements (such as a Web browser or the course management system choices on your campus) for your students. Given today’s very diverse student body, students’ technological competencies and abilities will vary (Oblinger & Oblinger, 2006). Students with visual impairments may not be able to view Web pages unless they have the option to modify text sizes. Optical scanners cannot read some Webpages well. Students may welcome the option to review a lecture by listening to a podcast or to create a podcast in lieu of a written response to an assignment. Students with hearing impairments may not have access to audio files. Work with the campus offices for disability services in advance to ensure that all course materials, online or in class, can be adapted, if necessary, for students in your courses.

Anticipate the inevitable technical questions that all students will have and the problems that they will need to resolve, and be prepared to refer all students to the technical supports and computing labs available to them when they are on campus and when they are accessing campus technology from a distance.

Instructors who put course syllabi online can link them to resources around the world. The syllabus can be easily updated as new resources become available and can provide students with a current picture of course requirements. Homework assignments can be directly linked online to the class schedule and to the grade book. Managing course content, increasing opportunities for interactions between and with your students, and linking students to multiple worldwide resources are the tangible benefits of integrating technology into your course. Oblinger and Hawkins (2005) note that the benefits of technology will soon be ubiquitous in higher
education and suggest that technology is moving to the background and “taking its proper place as an enabler rather than as a focus” of the learning process.

Salimi, Dadashpopur, Shafaei, Asadollahfam (2012) explain that there are two types of syllabi. It is closely related to White's (1988) classification of type A and type B syllabi. Type A syllabus focuses on WHAT is to be learned. They are interventionist in that someone presents the language to be taught, dividing it up into small pieces, and determining the learning objectives in advance of any consideration of who the learner is and how the languages are learned. They are external to the learner, other-directed, and determined by the authority. Type B syllabus, however; focuses on HOW the language is to be learned. They are non-interventionist because they involve no artificial presentation or arrangement of language. Objectives of learning are negotiated between teacher and the learners as the course evolves. Teachers and learners are joint decision makers in the choice of the syllabus. The focus is more on learning rather than the subject matter.

Different types of approaches to foreign language syllabus design Rahimpour (2010) states that there are different types of approaches to foreign language syllable design. Choices of a syllabus is a major decision in language teaching. Several distinct types of language teaching syllabi have been proposed, and these different types may be implemented in various teaching situations. Krahnke (1987) has proposed six types of syllabi as follows:

i. A structural syllabus is a kind of syllabus in which the content of language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures, usually grammatical elements such as verbs, nouns, past tense and so on.
ii. A **notional/functional syllabus** is the one in which the content of the language is a collection of the functions that are to be performed when language is used, or of the notions that language is used to express. For example, informing, agreeing, apologizing, requesting, promising and so on.

iii. A **situational syllabus** is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. For example, seeing the dentist, asking directions in a new town, buying a book in a bookshop.

iv. A **skill-based syllabus** is one in which the content of the language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language.

v. A **content–based syllabus** is not really a language teaching syllabus at all. In content-based language teaching, the primary purpose of the instruction is to teach some content or information using the language that the students are also learning. The students are simultaneously language students and students of whatever content is being taught. The subject matter is primary, and language learning occurs incidentally to the content learning. An example of content-based language teaching is a science class taught in the language the students need or want to learn.

vi. A **task-based syllabus** is one in which the content of the teaching is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning. Task-based approaches syllabi creates a favourable condition and facilitate language development.

An example of syllabus
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Agenda/Topic</th>
<th>Due on this Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tue</td>
<td>08/30</td>
<td><strong>Introductions/Syllabus review</strong></td>
<td>☐ Please have your syllabus printed out or with you on a laptop or other device.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thu</td>
<td>09/01</td>
<td><strong>Standards: identifying, locating, and navigating</strong></td>
<td>☐ Student Inventory (e-mail to instructor)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Fieldwork Analysis Overview</strong></td>
<td>☐ Have your Interdisciplinary Unit rubric printed out (for reference)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Interdisciplinary Unit Overview: Form Groups</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tue</td>
<td>09/06</td>
<td><strong>Backward Design</strong></td>
<td>☐ <strong>RG1</strong>: UBD Chapter 1: <em>Backward Design</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thu</td>
<td>09/08</td>
<td><strong>IDU Group Work: Learning Goals</strong></td>
<td>☐ <strong>RG2</strong>: UBD Chapter 3: <em>Gaining Clarity on Our Goals</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tue</td>
<td>09/13</td>
<td><strong>IDU Group Work: Essential Questions</strong></td>
<td>☐ <strong>RG3</strong>: UBD Chapter 5: <em>Essential Questions</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thu</td>
<td>09/15</td>
<td><strong>IDU Group Work: Assessment</strong></td>
<td>☐ <strong>RG4</strong>: UBD Chapter 7: <em>Thinking Like an Assessor</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tue</td>
<td>09/20</td>
<td><strong>Classroom Management, Part 1</strong></td>
<td>☐ TBA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thu</td>
<td>09/22</td>
<td><strong>Release Day #1</strong>: Class will not meet so you can fulfill observation hours.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tue</td>
<td>09/27</td>
<td><strong>IDU Group Work: Assessment</strong></td>
<td>☐ <strong>RGS</strong>: UBD Chapter 8: <em>Criteria and Validity</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thu</td>
<td>09/29</td>
<td><strong>Classroom Management, Part 2</strong></td>
<td>☐ TBA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tue</td>
<td>10/04</td>
<td><strong>IDU Group Work</strong></td>
<td>☐ <strong>RG6</strong>: UBD Ch. 9: <em>Planning for Learning</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thu</td>
<td>10/06</td>
<td><strong>Lesson Planning: Basic Structure</strong></td>
<td>☐ <strong>RG7</strong>: <em>Strategic Teacher Introduction</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tue</td>
<td>10/11</td>
<td><strong>Lesson Planning</strong></td>
<td>☐ <strong>RG8</strong>: <em>Strategic Teacher Mastery Strategies</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thu</td>
<td>10/13</td>
<td><strong>Release Day #2</strong>: Class will not meet so you can fulfill observation hours.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*These dates are subject to change at the discretion of the instructor.*
C. LESSON PLAN

Teachers are occupied with a set of written steps about what they are going to do in the classroom called lesson plan. Brown (2001) describes lesson plan as “a set of activities which “represent ‘steps’ along a curriculum before which and after which you have a hiatus (a day or more) in which to evaluate and prepare for the next lesson”. Additionally, Woodward (2001) states that lesson planning is not only in a written form, it can be defined as everything a teacher does when s/he is thinking of the next lesson such as visualizing, reading resources, or even staring at the ceiling.

Harmer (2007) highlights two important points of why to plan a lesson. Firstly, lesson plan is guide for teachers to refer to. Creative changes may be done to adapt with what actually happens in the classroom but in the end lesson plan is still a guide for teachers to fall back on. Secondly, it relates to teacher’s relationship with students. Teacher who has done planning beforehand suggests their commitment toward teaching and will get positive respond from students.

In an analysis of experiential learning, Hansen (2000) found that the following conditions must be met when considering materials.

- Provide a balance of aural, visual, tactile, olfactory, and emotional stimuli.
- Provide opportunities for observing, doing, or living through things.
- At least a part of the learning process should be perceived to be controlled by the student.
- When using materials, provide opportunities for analysis and reflection.
- Provide opportunities for trial and error processes.

There are no standard formats of what a lesson plan should contain. But Sesiorina (2014) agrees that there are several essential elements that should be included in lesson plan.

i. **Goals** are a general change that is hoped to be achieved by learners within completing a course or program and are derived from needs analysis done to gather information needed related to the learners (Richards, 2001). Goals composed for primary schools should exemplify children’s characteristics, and more importantly they should be achievable for young learners.

ii. **Objectives** contain what teacher wants the students to accomplish at the end of the lesson (Brown, 2001). In some cases, objectives are often overlapping with goals. But Richards (2001) has made clear distinctions of objectives compared to goals. The way of expressing objectives is known as Behavioral Objectives which “...take the idea of describing learning outcomes ... by further operationalizing the definition of behavior” (Richards, 2001). Operationalizing the learning objectives can be done by including the aspects of “ABCD” as proposed by Mager, Findlay and Nathan (Richards, 2001). “A” stands for “Audience” and refers to the students as the subject. “B” stands for “Behavior” that defines performance to be learned stated by action verbs. “C” stands for “Condition” under which the demonstration of students’ performance is to occur. “D” stands for “Degree” which describes how well the students must be able to demonstrate the performance.
iii. **Activities** are of importance too. In accordance with the implementation of Theme-Based teaching, there are some distinct characteristics to be exemplified in learning activities. They are as follow and as suggested by Cameron (2001): responsibility on the students, introduction of new vocabulary items, Theme-Based learning outcomes, teachers’ regular monitoring, and oral production.

Moon (2000) also emphasizes some other essential principles that should be considered before designing learning activities. Learning activities made for young learners need to follow these principles: concrete to abstract, receptive to productive skills, personal to impersonal, and controlled to less controlled.

iv. **Media** plays an important role too. Wright (1989) states several principles to guide and ease teachers in selecting media. He states that media should be easily prepared or obtained, be easily used and operated in classroom situation, attract children’s attention, be meaningful and authentic, and improve children’s language skills. Based on Wright’s statement above, the use of media should fulfill three principles; practicality, appropriateness, and effectiveness.

v. **Assessments** is the last but not the least. In analyzing the aspect of assessment used in the lesson plan, principles of assessments proposed by Cameron (2001) were employed. Firstly, the assessment should be able to measure what is formulated in the objectives regarding what and how well students should demonstrate certain action verbs. Secondly, the assessment should be congruent with activities and using familiar activities from their classroom experience. Finally, assessment for young learners should be seen from learning-centered perspective which focuses on social
interaction. So, the assessment should be focused more to be done in group work or through oral assessment.

Below is the materials hierarchy for effective lesson planning according to Holmes and Holmes (2011).

1. **Provide real world experiences** such as off-campus field trips, school building and grounds.
2. **Provide real world artifacts** such as speakers, authentic maps, globes, calculators, rulers, clocks, protractors, compasses, plants, rocks, money, seeds, leaves, flowers, insects, food, dictionaries, and newspapers.
3. **Provide representations of real world artifacts** such as models, toys, puppets, dramatizations, replicas, and maps.
4. **Provide pictures and visuals** such as photographs, drawings, resource books, graphic organizers, manipulatives, magazines, DVDs, graphs, and computers.
5. **Provide written descriptions** such as charts, transparencies, PowerPoint, textbooks, and computers.
6. **Provide oral descriptions** such as lectures, questions, discussion, CDs and audio cassettes.
John (2006) has given a template for lesson planning. Here it is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name: Placement:</th>
<th>Lesson evaluation: Date:</th>
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CHAPTER IV
TEACHING LISTENING AND READING

The four language skills are at the heart of current practice in English language teaching. It is now usual in course books to find sections dedicated to listening, speaking, reading and writing alongside the more traditional activities of grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. This focus on skills is the result of a confluence of factors, including: communicative competence as the main aim of language teaching and learning; improved understandings of genres and their importance in social practice; and theoretical insights into how we listen, speak, read and write.

What is Teaching?

In education, teaching is the concerted sharing of knowledge and experience, which is usually organized within a discipline and, more generally, the provision of stimulus to the psychological and intellectual growth of a person by another person or artifact.

Skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing

Considerable advances have been made in understanding the knowledge, skills, strategies, products and processes that are characteristic of the different skill areas. Here, we have scope to touch only very briefly on some of the main findings and practical implications for each, as a backdrop for the chapters that follow.
A. TEACHING LISTENING

Listening is the importance of paying systematic attention to listening development, in comparison with reading and writing, ‘or even speaking’, has often been overlooked in language teaching and in instructional materials (Vandergrift and Goh 2012: 4), as it may be assumed that if learners ‘listen a lot’ they will learn by osmosis (Cauldwell 2013; Richards and Burns 2012). Attention needs to be paid to both top-down and bottom-up listening speech perception processes (Newton 2009), although Lynch and Mendelsohn argue that ‘if...top-down listening is important, bottom-up listening is indispensable’ (2010: 184), and note that attention to the need for bottom-up listening has increased in recent years. Top-down processes refer to global or contextual knowledge and to previous experiences that enable a listener to infer the overall messages and meanings of incoming speech, as well as familiarity with the way language is structured in different genres of discourse. Bottom-up processes, on the other hand, relate to how a listener makes sense of the continuous stream of connected speech, including sounds, word boundaries, linked elements, reduced forms and prosody, or patterns of stress and intonation (Field 2008; Lynch and Mendelsohn 2010; Rost 2001).

Newton (2016: 431) reminds readers that ‘skilled listening is of course, more than successfully segmenting the speech stream’. He cites Vandergrift (2007: 193) who notes that learning to listen in another language involves ‘the skillful orchestration of metacognitive and cognitive strategies’. Indeed, over the last two decades more attention has been paid to the development of metacognitive and cognitive strategies (Vandergrift and Goh 2012).
Metacognitive strategies involve thinking about how to manage the processes and skills of listening through planning, monitoring comprehension, paying focused and selective attention to certain language features, and evaluating and checking interpretations, while cognitive strategies are directed towards thinking that involves predicting and inferencing, contextualising and elaborating, translating, transferring and summarising. Field (2008) critiques what he sees as a pervasive ‘comprehension approach’ to teaching listening, whereby learners are required to identify the ‘correct’ answers to comprehension questions.

This approach is likened to testing listening rather than teaching listening as it requires learners to focus on memorising rather than interpreting and responding to incoming information. He recommends a ‘diagnostic approach’ which involves pre-listening, listening, and then post-listening where intensive micro-listening activities focused on bottom-up processing are introduced to bridge gaps in learners’ understanding of the information.

Teaching should also focus on different types of listening where learners are able to be both listener and participant (Lynch and Mendelsohn 2010; Richards and Burns 2012; Rost and Wilson 2013). In one-way listening, such as monologues or movies, the listener has a ‘transactional’ or transfer-of-information role that is non-reciprocal. Two- (or more) way listening is where the listener occupies an ‘interactional’ role and is involved in an exchange-of-information where listening and speaking are reciprocal. Moreover, listening classes should involve both pedagogic (e.g. dictation, comprehension responses, dictogloss) and authentic (e.g. interviewing, improvising, extensive listening) tasks as well as a
range of different types of ‘listenings’, cross-cultural, social, affective, contextualised, strategic, intertextual and critical (Flowerdew and Miller 2005).

Listening skills are vital for your learners. Of the 'four skills,' listening is by far the most frequently used. Listening and speaking are often taught together, but beginners, especially non-literate ones, should be given more listening than speaking practice. It's important to speak as close to natural speed as possible, although with beginners some slowing is usually necessary. Without reducing your speaking speed, you can make your language easier to comprehend by simplifying your vocabulary, using shorter sentences, and increasing the number and length of pauses in your speech.

There are many types of listening activities. Those that don't require learners to produce language in response are easier than those that do. Learners can be asked to physically respond to a command (for example, "please open the door"), select an appropriate picture or object, circle the correct letter or word on a worksheet, draw a route on a map, or fill in a chart as they listen. It's more difficult to repeat back what was heard, translate into the native language, take notes, make an outline, or answer comprehension questions. To add more challenge, learners can continue a story text, solve a problem, perform a similar task with a classmate after listening to a model (for example, order a cake from a bakery), or participate in real-time conversation.

Good listening lessons go beyond the listening task itself with related activities before and after the listening. Here is the basic structure:
• **Before Listening**
  Prepare your learners by introducing the topic and finding out what they already know about it. A good way to do this is to have a brainstorming session and some discussion questions related to the topic. Then provide any necessary background information and new vocabulary they will need for the listening activity.

• **During Listening**
  Be specific about what students need to listen for. They can listen for selective details or general content, or for an emotional tone such as happy, surprised, or angry. If they are not marking answers or otherwise responding while listening, tell them ahead of time what will be required afterward.

• **After Listening**
  Finish with an activity to extend the topic and help students remember new vocabulary. This could be a discussion group, craft project, writing task, game, etc.

**The Following Ideas Will Help Make Your Listening Activities Successful**

• **Noise**
  Reduce distractions and noise during the listening segment. You may need to close doors or windows or ask children in the room to be quiet for a few minutes.

• **Equipment**
  If you are using a cassette player, make sure it produces acceptable sound quality. A counter on the machine will aid tremendously in cueing up tapes. Bring extra batteries or an extension cord with you.
• **Repetition**
  Read or play the text a total of 2-3 times. Tell students in advance you will repeat it. This will reduce their anxiety about not catching it all the first time. You can also ask them to listen for different information each time through.

• **Content**
  Unless your text is merely a list of items, talk about the content as well as specific language used. The material should be interesting and appropriate for your class level in topic, speed, and vocabulary. You may need to explain reductions (like 'gonna' for 'going to') and fillers (like 'um' or 'uh-huh').

• **Recording Your Own Tape**
  Write appropriate text (or use something from your textbook) and have another English speaker read it onto tape. Copy the recording three times so you don't need to rewind. The reader should not simply read three times, because students want to hear exact repetition of the pronunciation, intonation, and pace, not just the words.

• **Video**
  You can play a video clip with the sound off and ask students to make predictions about what dialog is taking place. Then play it again with sound and discuss why they were right or wrong in their predictions. You can also play the sound without the video first, and show the video after students have guessed what is going on.

• **Homework**
  Give students a listening task to do between classes.
Encourage them to listen to public announcements in airports, bus stations, supermarkets, etc. and try to write down what they heard. Tell them the telephone number of a cinema and ask them to write down the playing times of a specific movie. Give them a tape recording of yourself with questions, dictation, or a worksheet to complete.

Listening is the natural precursor to speaking; the early stages of language development in a person’s first language (and in naturalistic acquisition of other languages) are dependent on listening. As we know, and based on what we see every day that babies as young as one and two months of age have the capacity.

**Background to The Teaching of Listening**

Listening skill is the first skill that should be mastered by young learners when they learn language besides speaking, reading and writing skill. English in Indonesia is still considered as difficult subject at school. Especially in listening, most of student especially young learners get difficulties to comprehend what is spoken in English.

It is natural thing when they do not comprehend because English is a foreign language. English course, whether as a local content, a compulsory or an extracurricular subject at elementary School, is given to equip students with English so they can enhance communicative competence in language accompanying action on a simple basis in the context of school and give awareness the importance of English language to improve competitiveness in a global society. Most of elementary school do not have any tape recorder yet, which contain English speaking by native language or
the expert of English language. Thus, English young learner teachers have important role as the sources of teaching and learning. This is because the students are able to listen the teacher’s speech directly. In addition, teacher should be more creative teaching listening to young learners, in other the students are fun and interesting.

Listening skill is foundation for other skills. Children should develop their listening skill when learn foreign language. Based on some references that I have read, it can be concluded that the objectives of teaching listening for young learner are listening the instructions and understand what others are saying, doing to do something, getting information, acquiring message, news, and stories orally. Listening and understanding speech involves a number of basic processes, some depending upon linguistic competence, some depending upon previous knowledge that is not necessarily of a purely linguistic nature, and some depending upon psychological variables that affect the mobilization of these competence and knowledge in the particular task situation. The listener must have a continuous set to listen and understand, and as he hears the utterance, he may be helped by some kind of set to process and remember the information transmitted.

Listening is a receptive skill, and receptive skills give way to productive skills. If we have our students produce something, the teaching will be more communicative. We can call listening a decoding -making sense of the message process. We can divide the listening process into 3 stages:

1. Pre-listening (purpose must be given at this stage),
2. During (in-while) listening,
3. Post -listening (speaking).
In Listening To English As A Foreign Language, The Most Important Features Can Be Defined As:

1. Coping with the sounds,
2. Understanding intonation and stress,
3. Coping with redundancy and noise,
4. Predicting,
5. Understanding colloquial vocabulary,
6. Fatigue,
7. Understanding different accents,
8. Using visual and environmental clues.

This brings us to the thought that, while planning exercises, listening materials, task and visual materials should be taken into consideration. The teacher should produce a suitable discourse while using recordings. A preset purpose, ongoing learner response, motivation, success, simplicity, and feedback should be the things considered while preparing the task. Visual materials are useful for contextualization. We can also categorize the goals of listening as listening for enjoyment, for information, for persuasion, for perception and lastly for comprehension and lastly to solve problems.

* Nation And Newton (2009: 40) State That There Are Two Kinds Listening Processes:

1. **Bottom-up Processes**

   These are the processes the listener uses to assemble the message piece-by-piece from the speech stream, going from the parts to the whole. It means that bottom-up process more focus on grammatical relationship in the words. So the listeners understand with the sounds, words, intonation,
grammatical structure, and other components of spoken language.

2. **Top-down Processes**

   Top-down processes involve the listener in going from the whole their prior knowledge and their content and rhetorical schemata to the parts. In other words, the listener uses what they know of the context of communication to predict what the message will contain, and uses parts of the message to confirm, correct or add to this. In top-down process the listeners should have other background information that they bring to the text. The listeners can predict what kind of information from the text if they have prediction about the text that they will hear before.

**We Can Divide Listening For Comprehension Into Three Stages :**

1. Listening and making no response (following a written text, informal teacher talks)
2. Listening and making short responses (obeying instructions – physical movement, building models, picture dictation. etc.), true- false exercises, noting specific information, etc.
3. Listening and making longer response (repetition and dictation, paraphrasing, answering questions, answering comprehension questions on texts, predictions, filling gaps, summarizing, etc.)

**Classroom Technique And Activities**

   As teacher working with children learning English as foreign language, teachers have to try to blend technique designed for EFL learners with those intended for young learner to learn English as
their first language. We sometimes can use approaches which are designed for adult EFL learners and adapt them when necessary so that they will be appropriate for young learners. There are some classroom technique and activities that can be used to teach listening:

1. **Total Physical Response (TPR) activities.**
   According to Asher (1977) in Linse (2005: 30), he studied the way very young children acquire language. He wondered why very young children were so good at developing language skills when students in college and university classes had so much difficulty. He observed that that babies spent the first year of their life just listening to language. He noticed that although infants aren’t speaking, they are still active users of the language because they are physically responding to what has been said.

2. **TPR songs and fingers plays**
   TPR can be used with songs and finger-plays. Finger-plays are little chants that children say while moving their fingers and /or hands. One of the most popular finger-plays is “Head and Shoulders”. At first, you chant the finger-play as the children use their hand and their fingers to point to the correct body parts. After they understand the chant, the children can chant and point the finger-play.

Example:
Head and shoulders, knees and toes, knees and toes,
Head and shoulders, knees and toes, knees and toes,
Eyes and ears and mouth and nose,
Head and shoulders, knees and toes, knees and toes,
In his current series of posts, Interchange author Jack C. Richards is considering how we teach listening. Today, he explores listening strategies. Successful listening can also be looked at in terms of the strategies the listener uses when listening. Does the learner focus mainly on the content of a text, or does he or she also consider how to listen? A focus on how to listen raises the issue of listening strategies. Strategies can be thought of as the ways in which a learner approaches and manages a task, and listeners can be taught effective ways of approaching and managing their listening. These activities seek to involve listeners actively in the process of listening. Buck (2001:104) identifies two kinds of strategies in listening:

- **Cognitive strategies**: Mental activities related to comprehending and storing input in working memory or long-term memory for later retrieval. Comprehension processes: Associated with the processing of linguistic and nonlinguistic input. Storing and memory processes: Associated with the storing of linguistic and nonlinguistic input in working memory or long-term memory using and retrieval processes: Associated with accessing memory, to be readied for output.

- **Metacognitive strategies**: Those conscious or unconscious mental activities that perform an executive function in the management of cognitive strategies. Assessing the situation: Taking stock of conditions surrounding a language task by assessing one’s own knowledge, one’s available internal and external resources, and the constraints of the situation before engaging in a task. Monitoring: Determining the effectiveness of one’s own or another’s performance while engaged in a task.
Self-evaluating: Determining the effectiveness of one’s own or another’s performance after engaging in the activity.
Self-testing: Testing oneself to determine the effectiveness of one’s own language use or the lack thereof.
Goh (1997, 1998) shows how the metacognitive activities of planning, monitoring, and evaluating can be applied to the teaching of listening:

**Metacognitive Strategies For Self-Regulation In Learner Listening (Goh 1997, 1998)**

1. **PLANNING**
   This is a strategy for determining learning objectives and deciding the means by which the objectives can be achieved.
   **General listening development**
   Identify learning objectives for listening development.
   Determine ways to achieve these objectives.
   Set realistic short-term and long-term goals.
   Seek opportunities for listening practice.
   **Specific listening task**
   Preview main ideas before listening.
   Rehearse language (e.g., pronunciation) necessary for the task.
   Decide in advance which aspects of the text to concentrate on.

2. **MONITORING**
   This is a strategy for checking on the progress in the course of learning or carrying out a learning task.
   **General listening development**
Consider progress against a set of predetermined criteria. Determine how close it is to achieving short-term or long-term goals. Check and see if the same mistakes are still being made. 

*Specific listening task*
Check understanding during listening. Check the appropriateness and the accuracy of what is understood and compare it with new information. Identify the source of difficulty.

3. **EVALUATING**

This is a strategy for determining the success of the outcome of an attempt to learn or complete a learning task. 

*General listening development*
Assess listening progress against a set of predetermined criteria. Assess the effectiveness of learning and practice strategies. Assess the appropriateness of learning goals and objectives set. 

*Specific listening task*
Check the appropriateness and the accuracy of what has been understood. Determine the effectiveness of strategies used in the task. Assess overall comprehension of the text.
Steps In Guided Metacognitive Sequence In A Listening Lesson From Goh And Yusnita

Step 1 Pre-listening activity
In pairs, students predict the possible words and phrases that they might hear. They write down their predictions. They may write some words in their first language.

Step 2 First listen
As they are listening to the text, students underline or circle those words or phrases (including first-language equivalents) that they have predicted correctly. They also write down new information they hear.

Step 3 Pair process-based discussion
In pairs, students compare what they have understood so far and explain how they arrived at the understanding. They identify the parts that caused confusion and disagreement and make a note of the parts of the text that will require special attention in the second listen.

Step 4 Second listen
Students listen to those parts that have caused confusion or disagreement areas and make notes of any new information they hear.

Step 5 Whole-class process-based discussion
The teacher leads a discussion to confirm comprehension before discussing with students the strategies that they reported using.
Given the importance of listening in language learning and teaching, it is essential for language teachers to help their students become effective listeners. In the communicative approach to language teaching, this means modeling listening strategies and providing listening practice in authentic situations: those that learners are likely to encounter when they use the language outside the classroom.

There are a number of ways to help children become more conscious of auditory patterns that occur in language. There are so many way to teach listening, but for the students always said that listening subject is the difficult study. As teacher working with children learning English as foreign language, teachers have to try to blend technique designed for EFL learners with those intended for young learner to learn English as their first language.

Based on the theories above, it can be concluded that there are some rules of listening in young learner classes:

1. Even though listening is a receptive skill, the students should not be passive when they learn in listening class.
2. The students should be attracted with different listening task according to their age, learning style, listening capacity and phonological awareness.
3. The students should be practiced to listen to the English sound carefully.
4. The teacher should instruct the young learners to follow simple instructions to get them ready to develop other language skills.
5. The teacher should give different listening task in the class, it can be by listening and do, listening and draw, listening and mime, listening and predict, listening and respond, listening and write, listening and identify, listening and match, listening and complete, listening and read.

6. The teacher should give a different task to the same text each time to the student.

7. The media that is used by the teacher such as audio tools should be in good quality.

8. The teacher should be conscious of the importance of familiarity, difficulty and teacher’s language. It is better to the teacher to teach listening by repeating, simplifying, and using gestures, because intonation and expressions that can help children to figure out the intended meaning.

9. It is important for teachers to teach listening by using stories, games, routines, rhymes, songs. The students may not understand every words, but they can understand the meaning from the context, visuals, and gestures as in real life.

10. In teaching listening both of processes, bottom-up and top-down should be addressed to the students in the class.
B. TEACHING READING

What is reading? Reading is about understanding written texts. It is a complex activity that involves both perception and thought. Reading consists of two related processes: word recognition and comprehension. Word recognition refers to the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one’s spoken language. Comprehension is the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected text. Readers typically make use of background knowledge, vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, experience with text and other strategies to help them understand written text. Much of what we know about reading is based on studies conducted in English and other alphabetic languages.

The principles we list in this booklet are derived from them, but most also apply to non-alphabetic languages. They will have to be modified to account for the specific language. Learning to read is an important educational goal. For both children and adults, the ability to read opens up new worlds and opportunities. It enables us to gain new knowledge, enjoy literature, and do everyday things that are part and parcel of modern life, such as, reading the newspapers, job listings, instruction manuals, maps and so on. Most people learn to read in their native language without difficulty. Many, but not all, learn to read as children. Some children and adults need additional help. Yet others learn to read a second, third or additional language, with or without having learned to read in their first language. Reading instruction needs to take into account different types of learners and their needs. Research has shown that there is a great deal of transfer from learning to read in one language to learning to read in a second language.
The principles outlined below are based on studies of children and adults, native speakers as well as those learning to read in a second or foreign language. They deal with different aspects of reading that are important in the planning and design of instruction and materials. The practical applications are based on general learning principles, as well as on research. Briefly stated, these learning principles start with the learner in mind. The type of learner will affect the type of methods and materials to be used. The context of learning is also important. For instance, children and adults who are learning to read in a language different from their native language will also need to learn about the culture of the second or foreign language. Because texts are written with a specific audience in mind, cultural knowledge is present in texts and it is assumed that the reader is familiar with such knowledge. Both research and classroom practices support the use of a balanced approach in instruction. Because reading depends on efficient word recognition and comprehension, instruction should develop reading skills and strategies, as well as build on learners’ knowledge through the use of authentic texts.


Reading is the area in literacy in which the greatest gains are made. This is heartening information for those starting out as literacy tutors. Reading, however, is a very complex skill to develop. Fluent reading is so automatic that the skilled reader is unaware of the many features involved.

Reading not only see or read what is written but also understand the contents of the reading therefore the readers get
the knowledge and information from the text. Some reading components are suggested by experts, such as understanding the main idea, supporting ideas, vocabulary, and grammar, it makes the teachers must be careful in applying methods in teaching English, especially reading. Directed Activities related to Text (DART) is a teaching method that can be applied in reading activities. This method is applied through reconstruction and analysis activities. The purpose of writing this article is to describe how teaching of reading through the DART method. The article support by a literature review of DART theory in teaching reading. The information about of DART supported by expert theory, it can be used as a source of information about English teaching methods especially reading that can be applied by teachers in high school.

**Elements of Fluent Reading**

The two main components of reading are rapid word recognition and comprehesion. We read to understand. The more fluently we are able to read, the more processing capacity is left to spend on comprehending what we are reading. The ability to decode and comprehend text efficiently depends on a number of factors:

1. **Letter knowledge**
   
The letters of the alphabet are confusing to a beginner reader. In order to be able to read, the reader needs to be able to recognise upper and lower case letters and different fonts.

2. **Phonics**
   
   Phonics is the branch of science that deals with spoken sound. To understand a language, one must be able
to distinguish and categorise the distinct sounds. Essentially, a person beginning to read needs to understand that speech is made up of a stream of sounds and syllables. A crucial step in learning to read is the understanding that the letters of the alphabet represent the individual sounds in words. This requires the beginner reader to understand that a word is made up of separate and distinct sounds and that individual letters or strings of letters represent those sounds. For example the word CAT is made up of three sounds C- A-T and is represented by three individual letters. The word CHAT is also made up of three sounds but is represented by four letters, the CH representing one distinct sound. Once a reader understands this principle, it becomes easier to decode text.

3. **Print knowledge**

   The reader needs to understand how a text works, the direction you start from and the nature of the text being read. Skilled readers have expectations about the text they are about to read. The way one might approach reading a flight schedule or a timetable is different from sitting down to read a novel. Expectations of print only come through reading a wide variety of texts. Just as we expect to see words appearing in a certain order, we also expect to see letters in order. We have unconsciously acquired the code and if we saw a sequence 'dgsumz' we would be astonished, but if we saw the word 'crecious' we might not be.
4. Syntax

Syntax is the structure of a language that allows words to fit together to make phrases and sentences. Knowing where the verb or subject will appear in the sentence makes it easier to predict what will come next. For example, in the sentence “Patrick limped to the shop” our knowledge of English tells us that limped is the verb and that Patrick got to a shop somehow, even if we don’t quite understand the meaning of the word ‘limped’.

5. Semantics

Semantics relates to the meaning of words and sentences. To understand a sentence a reader may have to examine meaning at several different levels simultaneously. For example: “Can you spell Laurence?” or “Can you spell, Laurence?”

6. Background knowledge

Depending on the subject matter and our background knowledge, we approach a passage with a greater or lesser expectation of meaning. The better the frame of reference a person has for the material being read, the easier the piece will be to comprehend. Background knowledge is about being able to relate one piece of information to another and knowing what is relevant to what you are trying to understand. In turn, reading new information amends and develops previous information.
How We Can Use This Knowledge To Help Our Students?

Armed with this knowledge, we can apply what we know as follows: We need to give students material that:

- Harnesses their needs and interest and their background knowledge.
- Uses plain English.
- Conveys information and is relevant.

We need to ensure:

- That they have a good basic sight vocabulary.
- That they understand how to decode words through letter-sound correspondence and word pattern.
- That they have understood what they have read.
- That they learn to check their own understanding of what they read.

Approaches To Teaching Reading

All good literacy practice starts with the needs of the individual student. The materials you use are crucial for addressing the specific needs of the student and for maintaining motivation and interest. It is sometimes difficult for new tutors to grasp that there is no curriculum to follow. The ‘language experience’ approach or 'Cloze' procedure discussed in this section demonstrate what effective materials might look like.

The Language Experience Approach

The language experience approach uses a student’s own language and grammar to create reading materials. In simple terms, they tell you a story and you write it down for them to read.

What are the advantages of using language experience?

- It is based on the student’s own vocabulary.
• It involves the student and gives them a sense of ownership of the material.
• It provides instant reading material for beginner readers.
• It can provide a bank of essential sight words.
• It can encourage writing activities.

How do you generate the text?
• Use open-ended questions to generate discussion with your student.
• Write down verbatim a few sentences which have been dictated by the student.
• Do not change grammar or syntax, but clarify with the student that you have written down what they intended to say.

How can you use the text?
• Discuss the piece with your student and show an interest in the text.
• Read the piece to the student and then read the piece together.
• Point out unusual words.
• Cut out the first sentence and ask the student to read it.
• When the student seems confident reading the sentence, cut it up into individual words.
• Mix the words up and see if the student can put them together to form the sentence.
• Repeat this exercise with the other sentences.
• You can also ask the student to create new sentences with the cut up words and to read them aloud.
CLOZE PROCEDURE

Cloze procedure is a method which encourages learners to develop and rely upon their own ability to predict meaning in what they are reading, through the use of context clues and their own previous knowledge.

The method involves deleting certain words or letters from a text and leaving an underlined blank space. Learners can then read the passage to themselves, guessing at the missing words or letters and filling in the blanks. It should be emphasized that there are no right or wrong answers – whatever makes sense when read back is okay. It is important to avoid leaving too many blank spaces because the reader may become frustrated by the break in the flow of their reading. About one deletion for every ten words is the maximum recommended. Read the Cloze passage yourself to check that it isn’t too difficult and that not too much meaning has been lost through deletion.

The Cloze method can be used for a number of different purposes:

- To assess comprehension. Using Cloze procedure gives a good idea of the reader’s potential for understanding a passage. Cloze can test: word recognition, the use of semantic and syntactical information to predict, ability to seek meaning outside the context of the immediate sentence.
- To develop prediction skills for reading. It is best to eliminate words central to the meaning of the passage, so that an appropriate word should spring easily to mind.
• To emphasize grammatical points. In this case it is best to leave out only those words that are the same part of speech (e.g. adjectives, adverbs, prepositions etc.).
• To highlight spelling patterns. As with grammatical points, you can eliminate words that begin or end with the same letter combinations, vowel sounds or rhyming patterns.

YOUR HISTORY WITH LITERACY
1. Describe, Analyze, and Reflect on the following topics:
   • Your earliest memories,
   • Your early experiences with literacy,
   • Your development with literacy through schooling,
   • Expressive and Transactional experiences of Literacy
   • Your content area literacy,
   • Any workplace or ‘professional’ literacy you feel you have developed.
   • How does all of this bear on your teaching candidacy at this point?
   • Apply and use some terms from our reading as appropriate

THE PROCESS OF READING
Examine the process of reading. Use concepts, terms, and understandings gleaned from our first several readings to ‘flesh’ out an essay about the reading process.
Things your essay might well consider:
• Your prior knowledge about the reading process
• The process of semiosis (making meaning)
• Any science about the ‘reading brain’ that you’ve learned
• What teachers might do to facilitate the process
• Readings may include all assigned to course end.

Freedom Writers and Pedagogy
Answer one of the following questions.

In Freedom Writers, Erin Gruwell develops an adolescent literature pedagogy in response to the needs of her students. Describe her teaching using a few relevant examples. How is this an example of what some would call “authentic pedagogy?” How does it reflect the attitudes, arguments, and examples of our textbook by Beach and Appleman? What are the strengths and limitations of this approach?

Freedom Writers depicts two pedagogies in conflict. What makes for conflict between traditional pedagogy and Gruwell’s student-centered pedagogy? Beach and Appleman argue for a student-centered pedagogy. Does it always work, and what might recommend more traditional pedagogy, or at least a “middle road.”

One prominent educational leader, David Steiner, has argued that Freedom Writers is another instance wherein Hollywood presents us with heroic teacher models while neglecting ‘real’ issues. Debate this point. I hope you will join Steiner (and me) in recognizing that films give us powerful societal images of teaching, images that we must consider carefully.
Reading Strategy Lesson Plan

Students will design a lesson plan that includes a combination of teaching reading strategies. Also appropriate: vocabulary development, terminology, classroom environment enrichment through texts, teacher text collection, reading circles, etc. You decide. You may certainly use a lesson from your previous work, and make any suitable adjustments. You may also ‘model’ a lesson that your cooperating teacher(s) have employed. Efficient use of prior work is encouraged, as long as it reflects a new ‘reading emphasis.’

Scope: Students should limit the lesson planning to a 1-2 periods of instruction.

Topics: Any topic related to 5-12 education, but preferably one related to the content area in which candidates will teach.

- Topics should address identifiable standards at either a state or national level. Lessons should include one or more reading strategies that are carefully matched to the content-area lesson.
- Strategies should be defensible on both a theoretical and practical level; that is, they should be good pedagogy for the lesson, and practicable within the time frame and course structure.

Design: Students are encouraged to employ relevant Wiggins and McTighe models for effective curricular design. Not all students have used this model, however. See below.

Format: Students may use lesson plan formats with which they are comfortable. However, lessons should demonstrate specific reading
strategies, vocabulary study, and description of desired student understandings as modeled by Wiggins and McTighe.

**Timeline:**

- Students will produce a rough draft during week of April 7-11 of classroom instruction. Students will revise this draft after spending time at the practicum site.
- The revised draft will be shared with the instructor electronically during practicum.
- A final draft is due during the final exam week. Due Week 16.

Candidates will review and employ a Peer Feedback assessment and STEP Lesson Planning Rubric as self-assessments in this journal entry.

**Critical Reflection about the Teaching of Literacy**

**Critical reflection:** Students will reflect on their lesson planning, their observation of students, and their work with a cooperating teacher. This reflection should follow the finalized lesson plan. 2-3 pp. double-spaced, with thoughtful reflection and professional presentation (grammar, paragraphing, spelling, and etc.).

**Questions to address might include:** Am I witnessing the teaching of reading in this classroom? How often, and in what ways? What changes do I need to make to my lesson planning to have it work well, if any? Am I working with students in ways that help them read? Why or why not? Are there ways I can contribute my literacy education skills to this classroom, or others? How have I been surprised by literacy issues at my practicum site? What are
examples of diverse learners in my classroom, and how does that affect literacy? What has been validated (proven true)? To what extent is literacy a part of my teaching philosophy, and how so? Other topics?

**Note:** Student essays should flow from the reflections of the candidate. They should not be a list in response to the previous questions.

Reading Reading is generally viewed as the foundational skill for success in academic learning (e.g. Carrell and Grabe 2010; Janzen 2007), as suggested in the distinction that is sometimes made between ‘learning to read’ and ‘reading to learn’. Learning to read involves mastery of both bottom-up and top-down skills. Freebody and Luke (2003) argue that in the process of developing these skills learners need to adopt four ‘reader roles’, enabling them to move towards becoming fully competent and skilled readers. The first two roles, which denote the bottom-up and top-down skills, respectively, are ‘code breaker’ (decoding letter symbols and graphics), and ‘text participant’ (using background and personal experiences to bring meaning to the text). However, recent advances in research have recognised that reading is both a cognitive (bottom-up/top-down) and a sociocultural process. In relation to the latter, Freebody and Luke (2003) add two more reader roles: ‘text user’ (being aware of the text’s cultural and social purpose and how to make use of the text), and ‘text analyst’ (being able to think critically about the messages in the text, to identify underlying ideologies or biases and to develop one’s own interpretations). Reading is not necessarily improved simply by
reading more text. As for other skills, readers benefit from developing metacognitive (planning how to approach a reading text, estimating what one already knows about the content, monitoring comprehension and evaluating progress towards understanding) and cognitive (skimming, scanning, reading for gist) strategies. In the classroom, teachers can focus explicitly on the use of such strategies to give students confidence in reading and to assist them to increase their use over time. Recent approaches to reading development have also highlighted the importance of distinguishing whether L2 readers have a language problem or a reading problem. Language problems in reading can be supported by assisting learners to develop a wide vocabulary (Nation 2006, 2015), A. Burns and J. Siegel including the strategic use of dictionaries where necessary (Grabe and Stoller 1997). Reading development can be greatly improved through intensive reading, where learners have a specific learning goal in mind and focus on the skills to develop it (e.g. summarising meaning) and extensive reading (Day 2015) which also assists ‘reading to learn’, where learners select texts for their own enjoyment and read as widely as possible both within and outside class. Day (2015) notes that there is an increasing interest in reading pedagogy in using a combination of intensive and extensive reading as a blended approach. Teachers also need to consider using fluency activities, which are as important in reading as in speaking, in order to strengthen vocabulary development, reading rate and general language acquisition. Teacher modelling and reading aloud, repeated reading, choral reading, partner reading and readers’ theatre where students perform a play by reading scripts are all activities that can promote reading fluency.
CHAPTER V
TEACHING SPEAKING AND WRITING

The English language is officially big business. There could be as many as a billion students learning English around the world at this time and that is reason enough to consider moving into Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). However, when you combine this with the freedom the job gives you to move around the world and earn your keep, the case for TEFL gets even stronger. While English speakers move out to different lands, students of English migrate to other parts of the globe in search of a better life and new horizons.

Teaching English is something people do when they are ready to change their lives and this book gives you some of the basic tools you need to make that happen. Most people who speak the language well can teach others to some degree. We do it all the time with children and with foreign friends. We explain words and concepts to each other on a daily basis. TEFL is an extension of what we do naturally and this book helps you zoom in on your language skills and structure them. People often surprise themselves by discovering that even without attending months and years of language study, they can teach. You are probably no different.

Many factors contribute to the market for Teaching English as a Foreign Language The historical factor offers the legacy of the old British Empire that took the language around the world. The political factor gives the current dominance of the USA. Science and technology have developed with English at the forefront. In addition, there’s a need for a global language to make international
communications smoother, and tools such as the worldwide web truly accessible around the planet.

These days English is viewed as a language which gives you access to the world. Some want to study at prestigious English-speaking universities; some want a high flying career with international connections. Others just want a better chance in life and move to wherever the money seems to be, and then again, some just love Hollywood, international rock stars or their English girlfriend. Even the free-spirited backpackers need English to get by in far-flung lands.

Teaching-learning, however, is not just another specialized activity to be handled by experts. What underlies much of the criticism of schoolteachers is a belief that anyone can teach. The popular belief is correct, that is, every human being can and does teach. For the teaching-learning that occurs in the ordinary course of a day, we do not need specialists. As long as human beings are alive, they continue to learn because they encounter human and nonhuman teachers. It is a mark of adolescent immaturity when someone thinks that he or she is no longer in need of teaching and teachers.

Schools of education and educational literature talk incessantly about the “teaching profession.” There is indeed a need for professional experts to teach calculus, medieval literature, how to build a skyscraper, or how to teach a young child to read. Understandably, schoolteachers desire to have the status and perks of a modern profession from which they have been unfairly excluded. But talking about “the teaching profession” says both too much and too little.
A. Teaching Speaking

Speaking consists of producing systematic verbal utterances to convey meaning. (Utterances are simply things people say.) Speaking is “an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information” (Florez, 1999, p. 1). It is “often spontaneous, open-ended, and evolving” (ibid., p. 1), but it is not completely unpredictable.

Speaking is such a fundamental human behavior that we don’t stop to analyze it unless there is something noticeable about it. For example, if a person is experiencing a speech pathology (if a person stutters or if his speech is impaired due to a stroke or a head injury), we may realize that the speech is atypical. Likewise, if someone is a particularly effective or lucid speaker, we may notice that her speech is atypical in a noteworthy sense. What we fail to notice on a daily basis, however, are the myriad physical, mental, psychological, social, and cultural factors that must all work together when we speak. It is even a more impressive feat when we hear someone speaking effectively in a second or foreign language.

One of the basic problems in foreign-language teaching is to prepare learners to be able to use the language. How this preparation is done, and how successful it is, depends very much on how we as teachers understand our aims. For instance, it is obvious that in order to be able to speak a foreign language, it is necessary to know a certain amount of grammar and vocabulary. Part of a language course is therefore generally devoted to this objective. But there are other things involved in speaking, and it is
important to know what these might be, so that they too can be included in our teaching. For instance, to test whether learners can speak, it is necessary to get them to actually say something. To do this they must act on a knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. By giving learners ‘speaking practice’ and ‘oral exams’ we recognize that there is a difference between knowledge about a language, and skill in using it. This distinction between knowledge and skill is crucial in the teaching of speaking.

An analogy with the driver of a car may be helpful. What knowledge does a car driver need? Clearly he or she needs to know the names of the controls; where they are; what they do and how they are operated (you move the pedals with your feet, not with your hands). However, the driver also needs the skill to be able to use the controls to guide the car along a road without hitting the various objects that tend to get in the way; you have to be able to do this at a normal speed (you can fail your driving test in Britain for driving too slowly or hesitantly); you have to drive smoothly and without getting too close to any dangerous obstacles. And it is not enough to drive in a straight line: the driver also has to be able to manage the variations in road conditions safely.

In a way, the job we do when we speak is similar. We do not merely know how to assemble sentences in the abstract: we have to produce them and adapt them to the circumstances. This means making decisions rapidly, implementing them smoothly, and adjusting our conversation as unexpected problems appear in our path.
B. Teaching Writing

The teaching of writing is important since, not only does it provide students with academic English capabilities, but it also prepares them for life in an interconnected world that requires them to write for different purposes and to use different genres (i.e., expository, descriptive, narrative, and persuasive). However, producing ‘a coherent, fluent, extended piece of writing’ in one’s second language is enormously challenging (Nunan 1999: 271).

My work is also inspired by elements from the concept of the writing workshop (Atwell 1998) that highlights process writing. Students should be granted sufficient time to go through each stage of the writing process. After outlining their ideas (prewriting), students write their first drafts and share those with an audience (small groups of peers and possibly the teacher). They then revise their initial pieces based on the feedback they receive during the peer and teacher conferencing (see Pham and Iwashita, this volume, for additional perspectives on peer feedback in the writing classroom). If needed, this process of sharing and revising can be repeated until authors are ready to write and proofread their final drafts, and eventually publish their finished work. Instructional mini-lessons throughout the process on issues students struggle with are crucial for their success.

Mini-lessons (Calkins 1994) are brief instructional sessions that address writing elements that appeared to be problematic in students’ writing. For example, if repeated capitalization errors emerge in the written pieces of a small group of students, the teacher arranges a mini-lesson with that group to teach them capitalization rules. With a more advanced group whose writing
lacks rich, vivid language, the teacher can meet to address that issue and share examples of rich imagery.

In addition to getting acquainted with a process approach and the steps of writing, students need to learn about text forms. Acquainting them with models of writing and providing explicit instruction on the characteristics of specific genres (Hyland 2007) can help them make more informed decisions when writing a specific genre. For instance, when teaching descriptive writing (the focus of this chapter), the teacher can share models of descriptive pieces and analyze with students the unique elements of this genre, for example, detailed descriptions that form a clear picture in the reader’s mind of a person, place, thing, or event, often assisted by the use of vivid sensory details, strong action verbs, figurative language (such as analogies, similes, and metaphor), and powerful beginnings and endings (see Vraštilová, this volume, on using authentic literature in reading lessons for young learners).

C. ICT in Teaching a Foreign Language

The current stage of development of the society puts in front of the Russian education system a number of fundamentally new problems which are caused by the political, socio-economic, philosophical and other factors. Among them we should highlight the need to improve the quality and accessibility of education, increase academic mobility, integration into the world of scientific and educational space, creating educational systems optimal in economic terms, improving the university corporatism and strengthen the links between the different levels of education.
One of the effective ways to solve these problems is the informatization of education. Improving of means of communication has led to significant progress in the exchange of information. The emergence of new information technologies associated with the development of computer equipment and telecommunications networks has made it possible to create a qualitatively new information and educational environment as the basis for development and improvement of the education system. Information and communication technologies (ICT) are of key importance at all levels of the educational system.

At each stage of cognitive activity, research and practical applications in all branches of knowledge ICT perform both the functions of tools and objects of knowledge. Consequently, ICT innovations not only provide a revolutionary development in this branch of knowledge, but also have a direct impact on the scientific and technological progress in all areas of society. Thus, information and communication technologies are a class of innovative technologies for the rapid accumulation of intellectual and economic potential of strategic resources, ensuring sustainable development of society. This paper discusses the opportunities of ICT, the ways of their realization in the Russian system of higher education training on an example of a discipline "Foreign language".

Scientists have different approaches to the definition of ICT concepts. In the scientific literature can be found the following terminology: "IT training", "computer-based training technology", "new information technologies in education" or "NIT Education", "multimedia educational technology", etc. This indicates that the
essence of ICT concepts, used in education is still not well established. We can see that, speaking of ICT, in some cases, scientists point to a specific research area, in other - on a particular way of dealing with information. At the same time, the analysis of the literature on the investigated problem allows us to speak about the complex of knowledge, the ways and means to work with information resources, and about technical resources, which scientists have linked with the technological chain, ensuring the accumulation, storage, classification, output and distribution of information (Kayser, 2009; Lyubova, Bilyalova, Evgrafova, 2014; McKenzie, 2000; Russell 1997, Sorin 2005). A lot of works deal with the question of using technology in teaching English (Dudeney, 1985; Wright, 2008; Hartoyo, 2008). Some scholars have noted that the widespread use of identified technologies can significantly increase the effectiveness of active learning methods to all forms of organization of educational process in the study of a foreign language, namely: practical, individual lessons, during independent work (Nadolskaya, 2014).

Other scientists have considered the use of ICT as a means of increasing motivation, commitment to the systematic study of a foreign language, which allows to obtain quick results in learning a foreign language (Wheeler, 2001). The use of ICT in the educational process directed to the full immersion of students in the language environment that contributes to the formation and development of their communicative competence, the part of which is the sociocultural competence. It equips learners with digital age literacy, inventive thinking, creative thinking, higher-order thinking, effective communication, and high productivity (Tinio, 2002).
Based on interpretations of scientists T.A. Lavina, I.V. Robert and others (Lavina, 2014; Robert, 1994) let us give our own definition of the ICT, which will be viewed as a set of methods and techniques designed to collect, organize, store, process, transmit and present the information which enlarge the socio-cultural knowledge of students and provides them with a socio-cultural competence.

D. Techniques and Technologies – Two In One

A technique for teaching speaking is a replicable learning activity organized by the teacher with the intended purpose of the lesson and according to the principles of communicative-oriented teaching method. This definition shows that a technique always corresponds to one of the objectives of the lesson, allowing the teacher and the learners to resolve a certain task of language instruction.

An organizational and pedagogical technology differs from the “technique” in that it is a description of the “step by step” process to smoothly implement the technique overcoming cognitive difficulties in learners towards the most effective achievement of learning objectives. A technique can be compared to the name of the Yorkshire pudding recipe while the organizational and pedagogical technology is the description of the “best Yorkshire pud secrets”. In the description of the organizational and pedagogical technologies, the “secrets of Yorkshire pudding” are just a metaphor. This comparison shows that the value of organizational and pedagogical technologies in bringing about the full potential of a teaching technique is really
crucial. Without the technological organization of teaching, the use of even the most well-known and reliable teaching techniques with very spectacular “ingredients” may be doomed to failure. In other words, a “technique” is the name of a procedure while a “technology” is the means to run it smoothly.

E. Speech Situation as Key Technique of Teaching Speaking

There is a variety of instructional techniques to teach speaking – role play and dramatization, discussion and debate, description and comments, communicative games and others. All of these techniques can be attributed to a single comprehensive technique – speech situation (Millrood, 1982). At the core of any speech situation there is a subjective psycholinguistic reality when participants personally feel the need to resort to oral intervention in the circumstances encountered. In other words, a speech situation is subjective experiencing the need of active involvement in the situational settings to convert them in the desired direction by means of oral speech (Millrood, 1992).

People start speaking if the situation is personally meaningful to them. Understanding the personal meaning of circumstances allows us to fathom why in the similar situations of the real world some participants are actively pursuing their goal with the help of speech acts, while others are indifferently silent. Personal involvement turns a set of circumstances into a speech situation with the acute feeling of the need to have one’s say. Skillful creation of speech situations for students in the classroom is the most important manifestation of the professional competence of teachers of foreign languages (Millrood, &
Speech situation as the key technique of teaching speaking can be implemented with the help of the following three organizational and pedagogical technologies: “cognitive dissonance”, “information gap” and “logical impasse”.

F. Method of Teaching Speaking and Writing

Writing activities are usually solitary affairs. It’s pretty straightforward to set students an essay task, for example, and ask them to include particular words or phrases. If you do this, you should have some involvement in planning the written piece with the students so that they have sufficient structure. Use the board to show what kind of information or expressions can be used to go in each paragraph before they start writing by themselves.

Miming a story
A fun way to set a writing activity is by miming it. Students love to watch you doing all the actions while they make notes and later write the entire story in the tense(s) you set for them. Of course, you need to make it an amusing story full of actions and without too many characters.

Making speeches and presentations
An example of an individual freer practice activity for speaking is to have students do a speech or presentation. This is particularly applicable for business English students who may need to do similar activities at work. However, if there’s an election running, students can try delivering a manifesto speech. Students need to do this kind of activity from time to time because it allows stronger ones to show off without compromising
for the sake of their classmates. It also reveals students’ true speaking levels without the support of a group.

**Role-playing in pairs**
Role-playing is an effective way of speaking freely in pairs. In the Practice stage the students can just act out a role-play from a script. However, in Production you can get them writing the script themselves and then perhaps performing for the rest of the class.

**What’s the question?**
An exercise in using creative language is to give students just the answers to an interview and asking them to come up with the most interesting questions they can think of to match. Write a question in the Past Simple to match each answer.

Answer: Vanilla ice cream.

Question: What did you want for breakfast when you were a child?

**Interviews**
Very often students interview each other on particular topics. So in a lesson on vocabulary for clothing try setting tasks like this:

Ask your partner about the newest item in her wardrobe. Find out why, where and when she bought it. Ask her whether it matches anything else.

**Getting dramatic in groups**
You can have great fun with freer group activities.

**Doing drama and improvisation**
I’ve met many a trained actor working in TEFL as a day job so it’s no wonder that drama has established itself as a Production activity. Drama has real advantages in the language classroom:
✓ You repeat the same dialogue many times. This is very reassuring for students as they get better each time and this helps them build up their confidence.
✓ The context for the language is very strong because a story is involved.
✓ You can record and play back the piece for analysis and self correction if you have the equipment.
✓ Drama tends to teach language and culture together.
A short extract lasting five or six minutes is sufficient and it’s interesting for the students if you can show a film clip of the same scene afterwards.
In real life, language is generally spontaneous so you can mimic this by using improvisation.
Give students a card with a secret role on it. Perhaps it’s a hospital situation and each person has a complaint that influences what they say. Or maybe it’s a quirky dinner party with a string of guests who need to get their own secret words into the conversation. The students can all work out what the others are up to.

Retelling the story
Paraphrasing, summarising and even embellishing are everyday skills, so asking students to tell each other about something they’ve read, watched or experienced is a valuable activity. For example, have partners read separate texts, then tell each other about what they read and add any other information they know about the topic. Integrating different skills into one activity allows for the students’ different learning styles and adds variety.
Fostering discussions and debates

Sometimes debates kick off spontaneously and that’s great. It’s exactly what you want to use language for and you shouldn’t feel that your lesson plan is compromised if you occasionally go off the beaten track. If you want to orchestrate a discussion or debate yourself, you need to teach all the appropriate vocabulary (or at least give students access to a glossary if there’s too much or some is less relevant) and occasionally add fuel to the fire.

Giving Instructions

One of the keys to a successful activity in the classroom is the way you give instructions to set up the task. It may seem simple to say ‘Talk about X in pairs!’ but there’s a little more to it than that. Consider these presentation tips:

✓ Speak well: Talk slowly even if the students are at a higher level. It encourages them to pay attention. Be clear! Don’t mutter or ramble. Use short sentences and imperatives (commands). Grade what you say so it’s at the right level.

✓ Use visuals: Use pictures and diagrams to show what you want the students to do. Give examples of what you want. Use lots of gestures.

✓ Plan your instructions: Write the instructions for the exercises into your lesson plan. This helps you present them clearly and succinctly. Don’t start giving instructions until everyone’s listening and be sure to allot enough time for the instructions – give them out step by step and not all at once. Very often students get confused when you tell them too much. Be sure to repeat the instructions and write them on the board, giving students time to write them down if necessary.
Ask open questions to see if the students understand the instructions. You can even get them to repeat the instructions back to you.

**Putting Students into Pairs and Groups**

When it comes to organising your students for pair and group work, avoid simply telling them to pair up themselves. It’s your responsibility to say who works with whom and you ought to have a strategy for doing so.

Why? First, you’re likely to have mixed abilities in the class and you definitely don’t want two weak students working together. On the other hand, if you have two very strong students it may be motivating for them to be put together sometimes so that they can express themselves to their full potential. Unfortunately you sometimes have an annoying class member too (the joker perhaps) and it would be unfair for the same student to be stuck with that person in every activity. Share the load.

If you can, change the seating order in your classroom regularly. Ask the class to sit in alphabetical order, in order of their front door numbers in their addresses or according to their dates of birth. Use anything that moves them around.

For pairs, use your left hand to point to the first student (an open hand is friendlier than a single finger) and then the right hand for the second student. Show that they’re now a pair by bringing your palms together.

Of course, you can just say ‘you’re A and you’re B’ if the students understand but you can also inject a bit of fun by using other
vocabulary. You’ll get a smile with: ‘You’re an apple and you’re a banana!
When you’re working with groups, it’s great to switch them around after a time so they can pool ideas. First you label each student A, B, C, or D and put them together in a group of four. After they’ve had time to generate ideas you can now group all the As, all the Bs and so on.
Encourage students to move their chairs so that they face each other if possible. Communication involves body language too.

**Trying Out Practice and Production Activities**
Practice and Production activities come in many different forms but they should be interesting, varied and challenging according to the level of the students. Here are some examples of activities that carry the same theme throughout each of the three stages of the lesson.

1. **Teaching Speaking**
   a. **The Grammar-translation Method**

   In the Grammar-translation Method, students are taught to analyze grammar and to translate (usually in writing) from one language to another. Historically, the main goal of this method has been for students to read the literature of a particular culture. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986, pp. 3-4), the characteristics of the Grammar-translation Method are that (1) it focuses on reading and writing; (2) the vocabulary studied is determined by the reading texts; (3) “the sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice” (ibid., p. 4); (4) the primary emphasis is on accuracy; (5) teaching is deductive (i.e., grammar
rules are presented and then practiced through translating); and (6) the medium of instruction is typically the students’ native language.

The Grammar-translation Method does not really prepare students to speak English, so it is not entirely appropriate for students who want to improve their speaking skills. In fact, in the Grammar-translation Method, students “developed an intellectual understanding of language structure and maybe the ability to read, but instead of gaining oral fluency they suffered from what could be described as second language mutism” (Hammerly, 1991, p. 1). The method is not consistent with the goals of increasing English learners’ fluency, oral production, or communicative competence. In grammar-translation lessons, speaking consists largely of reading translations aloud or doing grammar exercises orally. There are few opportunities for expressing original thoughts or personal needs and feelings in English.

b. The Direct Method and Audiolingualism

Unlike the Grammar-translation Method’s emphasis on written text, the Direct Method focused on “everyday vocabulary and sentences” (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 9), and lessons were conducted entirely in the target language-the language the students are trying to learn. The Direct Method dominated English language instruction in the United States for many years.

The Direct Method emphasized speaking in that “new teaching points were introduced orally” (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 10), rather than in writing. Also, lessons emphasized speaking and listening, which were practiced “in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students” (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p.
Many people became familiar with this approach since it was used by the Berlitz language schools.

The Direct Method strongly influenced the development of the Audiolingual Method. In audiolingualism, speaking is taught by having students repeat sentences and recite memorized dialogues from the textbook. Repetition drills—a hallmark of the Audiolingual Method—are designed to familiarize students with the sounds and structural patterns of the language. Lessons followed the sequence of presentation, practice, and production (see Nunan, 2003). The assumption underpinning the Audiolingual Method is that students learn to speak by practicing grammatical structures until producing those structures has become automatic. When this happens, it is hoped that the learners will be able to carry on conversations. As a result, “teaching oral language was thought to require no more than engineering the repeated oral production of structures... concentrating on the development of grammatical and phonological accuracy combined with fluency” (Bygate, 2001, p. 15).

The behaviorist notion of good habit formation is the theory behind the Audiolingual Method. This theory suggests that for learners to form good habits, language lessons must involve frequent repetition and correction. Teachers treat spoken errors quickly, in hopes of preventing students from forming bad habits. If errors are left untreated, it is thought, both the speaker and the other students in class might internalize those erroneous forms. In audiolingual lessons, intense repetition and practice are used to establish good speaking habits to the point that they are fluent and
automatic, so the learners don’t have to stop and think about how to form an utterance while they are speaking.

The language laboratory is the main technological component of the Audiolingual Method. Students are expected to spend time in the lab, listening to audiotapes of native speakers talking in scripted, rehearsed dialogues, which embody the structures and vocabulary items the learners are studying in class. The taped speech samples students hear in the lab are carefully articulated and highly sanitized. They are not usually realistic samples of the English learners would hear on the street. Nor are they necessarily good models of how learners themselves should try to speak to sound natural.

In addition, when learners do speak in the lab, it is often to repeat after the tape-recorded voice, with little or no opportunity for constructing their ideas in English or expressing their own intended meaning. The Audiolingual Method stressed oral skills but “speech production was tightly controlled in order to reinforce correct habit formation of linguistic rules” (Lazaraton, 2001, p. 103). This sort of rigidly controlled practice does not necessarily prepare learners for the spontaneous, fluid interaction that occurs outside the English classroom.

Audiolingualism eventually decreased in popularity because “the results obtained from classroom practice were disappointing” in several ways (Ellis, 1990, p. 29). Many learners thought the pattern practice and audiolingual drills were boring and lost interest in language learning. Students, perhaps especially adult learners, often felt hampered because the method downplayed the explicit teaching of grammar rules. In addition,
memorizing patterns “did not lead to fluent and effective communication in real-life situations” (ibid., p. 30).

c. **Communicative Language Teaching**

During the 1970s and 1980s, language acquisition research (and dissatisfaction with the Audiolingual Method) made teachers, materials developers, and curriculum designers reconsider some long-standing beliefs about how people learn languages. Apparently people don’t learn the pieces of the language and then put them together to make conversations. Instead, infants acquiring their first language and people acquiring second languages seem to learn the components of language through interaction with other people. (For summaries of research on interaction and language learning, see Ellis, 1990; Gass, 1997; and Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991.) This realization has several interesting implications for us as teachers, the most important being that if people learn languages by interacting, then students should interact during English lessons. As a result, Communicative Language Teaching arose.

In some language teaching methods, such as Total Physical Response (Asher, Kusodo, and de la Torre, 1993), beginning learners undergo a period of listening to English before they begin to speak it. In such methods, the focus is on input-based activities. For instance, in Total Physical Response, learners initially respond physically to spoken commands from the teacher, rather than speaking themselves. In contrast, Communicative Language Teaching, particularly from the high beginning to more advanced levels, features more interaction-based activities, such as role-plays.
and information gap tasks (activities in which learners must use English to convey information known to them but not to their speaking partners). Pairwork and group work are typical organizational features of interaction-based lessons in Communicative Language Teaching.

2. Teaching Writing
   a. Teaching Descriptive Writing

   I now provide from sessions of a year-long basic writing course offered to my first-year EFL college students. First, I briefly outline the contents of the syllabus within which the students are expected to work. Next, I detail the steps I took during my writing lessons and the writing process that students engaged in. I then present examples of students’ writing, from the drafting stage to the final descriptive pieces, which were inspired by a readaloud book that provided a detailed description of a Palestinian grandmother. The course syllabus designed by the college covers writing mechanics (e.g. capitalization, punctuation, organization, and layout of a paragraph), the language system (i.e. grammar, including sentence structure and subject verb agreement), the writing process (i.e. planning, drafting, revising, and so on), and topics (i.e. describing objects, people, and places).

   Classes met for approximately two hours per week and had about 20 students each. My responsibility as a course instructor was to cover those prescribed topics, decided by the college administration. However, instead of strictly following the syllabus in a linear and deductive manner, I decided to teach the required topics more creatively.
I started the course by asking students to write a short description, which I used to diagnose their weaknesses and needs. Instructional mini-lessons were then organized to cover the grammatical and stylistic problems that emerged in students’ initial pieces of writing (see examples in the next section). More opportunities for practice were provided throughout the course and complemented by individual student conferences with me as well as shared time with peers and/or the whole group to receive formative feedback throughout the process. During the conferences, students became acquainted with possible responses to use that related to editing errors in formatting (e.g. font and paragraphing), punctuation, capitalization, spelling, and grammar usage. Additionally, feedback could relate to stylistic issues through the following questions: Does the paragraph begin with a strong lead? How can the beginning and/or ending be more powerful? Are further details needed to make the description clearer and stronger? What parts can benefit from more imagery or figurative language?

b. The Five-Step Writing Process

The five-step process writing approach described by Donald Graves (1983) is presented here.

Step 1: Prewriting. The goal here is to generate ideas. Listing, brainstorming, outlining, silent thinking, conversation with a neighbor, or power writing (described below) are all ways to generate ideas.

Step 2: Drafting. Drafting is the writer’s first attempt to capture ideas on paper. Quantity here is valued over quality. If done
correctly, the draft is a rambling, disconnected accumulation of ideas. Most of the writing activities in the classroom involve just these first two steps. Only those drafts that students feel are interesting or of value should be taken to the next step (Donald Graves calls these hot topics).

Step 3: Revising. This is the heart of the writing process. Here a piece is revised and reshaped many times. The draft stage is like throwing a large blob of clay on the potter’s wheel. Revising is where you shape the blob, adding parts, taking parts away, adding parts, and continually molding and changing. Here you look for flow and structure. You reread paragraphs and move things around. Again, not every draft should be taken to this stage. Graves recommends that students be given a choice as to which of these drafts they want to take to the revision step. Generally, students find only one in five drafts worthy of investing the mental and emotional energy necessary to revise and create a finished product. The rest of the story drafts can be kept in a file folder as a junkyard for other writing ideas or included in a portfolio to document students’ writing journeys.

Step 4: Editing. This is the stage where grammar, spelling, and punctuation errors are corrected. A word of caution: The quickest way to ruin a good writing project or damage a writer is to insist that step 4 be included in step 1, 2, or 3. If writers are editing or worrying about mechanics at the prewriting, drafting, and revising stages, the flow of ideas and the quality of writing suffers. Precious brain space that is devoted to generating and connecting ideas will instead be utilized worrying about writing mechanics. One last thing about the editing phase: Real writers (of which I am
one) edit their writing at the end. Real writers also rely on editors, spell check, and grammar check. In teaching your students to become authors and composers of authentic writing, teach them to approximate the writing process used by real writers. That is, set up peer editing groups and teach students how to use the grammar and spelling functions on a word processor.

Step 5: Publishing and sharing. This is where students’ writing is shared with an audience. Writing becomes real and alive at this point. Publishing can involve putting together class books, collections of writing, school or class newspapers, school or class magazines, or displaying short samples of writing in the hall or out in the community. Writing experiences become even more powerful by having students read their work out loud in small groups, to another classmate, or in a large group setting.
CHAPTER VI
DEVELOPMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA

Many English teachers in Indonesia had difficulty in utilizing instructional media in classrooms. The difficulty was caused by the thought of good media were expensive. Therefore, this study aimed to describe the teacher’s preparation and to explain how the teacher utilized the instructional media in the classroom. This study used qualitative case design and employed observation, interview and data analysis to obtain the data. The result of this study showed that the teacher did two kinds of preparation in utilizing the instructional media, reading the materials and choosing the media. In utilizing the media, the teacher utilized the provided media in the school and did not utilize it optimally due to several challenges, such as limitation of time, difficulty in selecting media, lack of media availability, and teacher’s negative belief towards instructional media and the system. In conclusion, instructional media utilization was not optimally done by the teacher and it needed to be improved. Therefore, the teacher needed to participate in a training program to optimize the teacher’s instructional media utilization.

Teaching English to young learners is considered necessary needs in Indonesia especially in big cities (Rodliyah, 2009). Many parents compete to make their children learn English as younger as they are. The issue is how the school deals with this phenomenon and how they could provide the students with effective and efficient learning. There are many factors influencing the effective and efficient of learning. Two of them are the media and the characteristics of the students. Smaldino et al., (2006) argue when
media is used for instructional purposes and utilized to canalize teacher-students communication, it categorized as instructional media. Nevertheless, the utilization of the instructional media seems not effective in teaching English to young learners in Indonesia (Mutohhar, 2009). The effectiveness of media is not about the teachers utilize media or not in the classroom, but it deals with how the teachers optimize the utilization of the instructional media in the classroom.

According to a study conducted by Mutohhar (2009), many elementary school teachers in Indonesia deliver their material in such a way but makes the students still bored, not enjoying the learning process. Many of the teachers only utilize the provided media in the schools and utilize it to show the materials only without transferring the knowledge in attractive ways to the students. This phenomenon appears because some of them think that a good media is expensive media and sophisticated media which needs cost much money. Whereas, Mutohhar (2009) argues that a good media is media which is suitable for the topic, material, the students, and practical to use. In other words, a good media doesn’t need to be expensive, it just needs to be reusable, and so it can help the teacher to create an effective instruction in the classroom. The study related to utilization in teaching young learners and how the teacher reflects the teacher’s perception on the media utilization is still limited in Indonesian context. Thus, this study aims to find out the utilization of instructional media in teaching English to young learners and how the teacher reflects the teacher’s perception on media utilization, specifically to teacher who teachers in elementary school which has A grade level accreditation in a suburban area. To
achieve the research objectives, two research questions are formulated in this study as below.

1. **What kind of preparation does**
   The teacher have in utilizing instructional media?

2. **How does teacher utilize the**
   Instructional media in the classroom? By knowing how teacher utilizes the instructional media in the classroom, it is expected that deeper information can encourage teachers, especially elementary school teachers in suburban area, to improve the media utilization in teaching English to young learners. It is considered necessary due to the media utilization in creating meaningful teaching learning process in classroom.

A. **LITERATURE REVIEW**

   - Young Learners
     Pinter (2011) categorizes young learners into three groups of age: (1) pre-school; (2) primary school years; and (3) early adolescents. Pre-school level is children who are aged 3-5 years old. The next group is primary school years which includes children who are 6-12 years old. In this level, children attend elementary school and in some countries they leave elementary school in 11 or 12 years old. The last group of children is early adolescents. In this stage, children go to upper grade and leave their elementary schools. In this study, young learners are students in elementary schools which are in 6-12 years old. Teaching young learners is
different from teaching adults. There are several characteristics that need to be considered in creating effective instruction in teaching. Brown (2001) purposes some characteristics that may give some practical approaches in teaching young learners: (1) intellectual development; (2) attention span; (3) sensory input; (4) affective factors; and (5) authentic, meaningful language. One of some principle keys to embrace all of the characteristics and make an effective instruction in young learners’ classroom, is teachers need to utilize the instructional media optimally in the classroom.

- Instructional Media

Instructional media are defined by Sadiman et al. (1986) as anything used to send information from the sender(s) to the receiver(s) to arise learners’ curiosity and encourage them to learn. Related to the definition above, Reisser and Dick (1996) purposed that instructional media might be all the traditional ways to deliver and the lesson (teachers, chalkboards, textbooks, and other printed materials) or the new instructional media (CD Room, computer, interactive video and multimedia system). In this study, instructional media are defined as tools used in educational setting to deliver the materials, information to reach effective teaching-learning. Instructiona media has several benefits in teaching English, especially in teaching English to young learners.

There are several benefits in utilizing instructional media in teaching English. Scanlan (s.d) states several benefits of
instructional media, such as: (1) attracting attention; (2) developing interest; (3) adjusting the learning environment and (4) promoting the acceptance of an idea. There are several types of instructional media that can be utilized in teaching English to young learners. In this study, Harmer’s classification of instructional media is used as the reference of this instructional media types. There are (seven) types of instructional media: realia; pictures; course book; boards; OHP; flipcharts; and computer based-technology.

1. **Realia**

In TEFL Survival’s Site, (2012) realia means using real objects inside or outside classroom to teach English. It can provide experiences for students to involve students’ senses in learning.

2. **Pictures**

Pictures and images are one of graphic materials examples. Graphic materials refer to “non-photo-graphic” or “two dimensional materials” designed to convey messages and information which combines “symbolic visual” and verbal information. Drawings, charts, graphics and also cartoons are kinds of this media. Pictures can be used for several purposes, such as drills, communication, understanding, ornamentation, prediction and discussion.

3. **Course book**

Course book is one of print media (Onasanya, 2004) which has been used by teachers as the guide of teaching learning (Gabrielatos, 2004). It is printed materials and
information (Aini, 2013). It also contains exercises and tasks for students.

4. **Boards**

Boards refer to blackboard, whiteboard or any board used in classroom. Candler (2011) states several benefits in using whiteboard in teaching English in classroom: engaging students in lesson; monitoring students’ comprehension of the lesson; can be utilized easily; saving paper; students can interact with it easily; no need technical support and not consuming time. Boards can be used in various different purposes, such as: note pad, explanation aid, picture frame, public workbook, game board and notice board.

5. **OHP**

OHP or Overhead projectors are useful for teachers in showing many things on overhead transparencies. Onasanya (2004) states one of the advantage by using OHP, students can see the materials in front of the class. It also helps teacher to show something one by one.

6. **Flipcharts**

Flipchart is a media which contains big sheets of paper (Aini, 2013). It is mostly used during discussion to write down points that are being discussed.

7. **Computer-based presentation**

Technology Harmer (2007) states that this instructional media have two main components, hardware and software. In addition, Onansanya (2004) states this media combine audio and visual presentation which can help teachers to
attract students’ attention. This kind of media also can send a large amount of information. From the description about the instructional media above, it can be concluded that there are many types of instructional media that can be used in teaching learning activities. Those different types help teacher in different teaching-learning activities and materials. Although various instructional media have been developed, not all of them can be used in the same time. Teacher needs to choose the most appropriate instructional media due to the students’ characteristics, the materials and the teaching method (Clark, 1999).

Instructional media in teaching learning process. In collecting data, this study employed three types of data, those are observation, interview and document analysis. Those multiple types of data are the varied nature of qualitative data which can help the writer to establish the complexity of the phenomenon (Creswell, 2008). Observation was employed to get information about how teacher utilizes his instructional media in the classroom. In observing the classroom, the writer employed a non-respondent observation. Instructional Technology and Media for Learning, Twelfth Edition, shows how a complete range of technology and media formats can be integrated into classroom instruction using the ASSURE model for lesson planning. Written from the viewpoint of the teacher, the text shows specifically and realistically how technology and media fit into the daily life of the classroom. This book is intended for educators at all levels who place a high value on learning. Its purpose is to help educators incorporate technology
and media into their repertoire—to use them as teaching tools and to guide students in using them as learning tools. We draw examples from elementary and secondary education because we know that instructors in these PK–12 settings have found previous editions of this book useful in their work.

Social media in the world of education is functioned as a function forms of collaboration, friendliness and creativity of its users. conditions that occur now, many people do not realize the importance of social needs media and internet in the world of education. The development of science and technology brings changes significant to various dimensions of human life, that change have an impact on the progress of the economic, cultural, social and field fields education. In a good learning process, supporting media are needed the maximum because the presence of learning media will be more make it easy for teachers to provide understanding and understanding good to students. Learning outcomes will also be different between the existence assistance from the media as a learning resource without any assistance. And the help of the use of instructional media to the fullest It is expected that learning achievement in Islamic religious education subjects can be increase optimally.

The development of science and technology in the era of globalization, especially technology and communication, has caused the world to shrink and forming like a world village. The physical boundaries of the State one with Other countries have become less visible and almost non-physical borderless (bordeless). Globalization occurs as a worldwide process unbearable and inevitable. Thus it is needed efforts to prepare students early to enter the age global
demand for special abilities. The current students being studied, basically will be the main actors at an era full of competition. Therefore it has become an obligation the teachers to provide provisions for them to be able to survive (life), wrong an effort to prepare students to enter the global age namely by developing various learning approaches oriented to future.

**Use of social media in the learning process.**
The learning process is a process of delivering information, knowledge, information that is formally and informally often occurs at all around us. The learning process is a condition regarding capacity individuals to know more broadly. Through social media, knowledge and the learning process no longer focuses solely on the accumulation of individual knowledge previous. Apart from good or bad, use the media as a medium in the learning process, it is clear that applications and devices Social media has succeeded in providing a concept of new challenges within the formation of formal education that already exists today.

The use of social media as a learning media has supported a theory classics about social learning theory. This theory says that process social learning focuses on how an individual learns with make other people the subject of learning7 this learning process has been supported by digital media such as how someone learns to fry eggs by watching videos of other people frying eggs

Besides learning about a simple behavior about one's expertise, on social media can also be found how an individual learns and starts thinking consequences that will arise from the behavior carried out by the subject study. Social media in its sequel not only
teaches how an information and communication technology has an impact, but also teaches how a communication technology is absorbed and adopted. Utilization of social media is now a lot happening in the process of distance education (e-learning) where the teaching and learning process is no longer limited to classrooms, distance, and time.

The role of social media for teenagers, Social media has become a public facility used in daily individual life and a new era in the teaching and learning process. Information dissemination that occurs in adolescents is fairly fast due to social media, revealed by Grant and meadows that information in social media it develops and spreads like a virus in the body. Children in adolescence in Indonesia are very quickly adapted to current technological developments. So, it is not surprising if we are in the center of the crowd, we can see teenagers who are currently at a minimum use a digital device to help with their activities. Social media has its own appeal for every circle, as well with teenagers.

Based on the results of research conducted by the ministry Communication and Information Technology in tracking users of online activities in teenagers in 2014, it was concluded that the use of social media was very inherent with everyday teen life. In this study it was found that of 98 percent of teens surveyed knew about the internet and 79.5 percent of them are internet users. It is this attraction of the internet and social media then plays an important role in building capacity communicate someone. Teenagers today are so sensitive to changes happening in social technology, they follow these developments and master it with the learning process using the "Trials and Error" method.
playing a role in the world of education? Yeah sure, this can be seen from the many new methods in the world of education that are many using learning media taken from social media. Activities learning becomes easier when social media is used in the world education. Through social media students can be more creative and independent in learning, thus the quality of students can increase, with increasing the quality of students of course the quality of education is getting better.

How to use social media in order to trigger the quality of students is take advantage of all the convenience of communicating and sharing information owned by the media for the process of education or learning. Some social media that can play a role in the world of education that can trigger quality of students, including Facebook, Twitter, Blog, and Youtube. The quality of students can be better when utilizing social media as much as possible, by minimizing the negative impact. Indonesian Youth Education In the world of youth education now, the learning process is no longer focused on delivery of information limited by class walls. Explosion of science knowledge and technology bring social networks very popular with them current communication developments.13 Social media creates a culture new where teachers and students can not only do the learning process in the context of the room physically, but because of its emergence social media allows the educational process to be carried out in other spaces virtual.

B. INFORMATION THAT CAN BE OBTAINED.

Information contained in the computer provided by the provider is very diverse. Starting from the database, collection of
writings, computer programs, images or pictures, sound recordings, film pieces to network applications.

The following will be discussed on the provision of information on the internet:

a. Database, for example a library catalog database, archive database newspapers, personal data databases, and others.

b. Collection of Posts, there are many scientific writings contained within computer connected to the internet, which is certainly very useful for used as reference material.

c. Computer Program, the most recent anti-virus program will be very easy copied from the internet to the hard drive directly.

d. Images or images, an image can sometimes tell more than a writing.

e. Voice Recording, lots of songs with very good quality can be downloaded from the internet to be heard.

f. Multimedia, not a few filmmakers save a movie that is good will be marketed on the internet.

g. Network Applications, there are now many network applications used via the internet.

With the progress of the internet, information that was once difficult to reach now so easily accessed with just a few clicks on the computer. Even though we are all understand that the information age is now, who gets it information first then it is superior to others. Not hard also students are accustomed to using existing internet access facilities at school, campus, cafe, hotspot or at internet cafes (warnet), when they need to find sources of information as material study or research material.
Phenomena in elementary mathematics instruction indicates that there is a tendency of media use by teachers is not optimal, the media used is very simple and does not attract the attention of students. Innovative media, as an idea, practice, or object that is considered new media, including Macromedia Flash and puzzles. This study aimed to obtain information regarding: 1) the application of innovative media; 2) the role of the media (innovative); and 3) the impact of the application of innovative media in learning mathematics. Approach to qualitative research conducted two studies to assess student thesis on the application of media PGSD inovaif in learning elementary school. Data collection techniques using the techniques of documentation, observation, and interviews. Data analysis was performed through the stages of data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing or verification. Based on the results of research and discussion it is concluded that: 1) In general, innovative media in teaching elementary mathematics applied through the stages of introduction, the core and the cover. Learning the nuances of the game, load simulation or manipulation, and working in group; 2) the presence of the media (innovative) is required at the stage of elaboration (explanation of the concept) in core activities, as clarification and confirmation of the core activities and cover; and 3) the impact of the application of innovative media for teachers and students, which is increasing the ability of teachers to hold and use the media, organizing materials and managing instructional time effectively; increasing students’ learning activities (student involvement in student learning and persistence in completing the task group / individual).
C. MEDIA AND CHILDREN’S DEVELOPMENT

Promises, Promises. That is what proponents of every new media technology over the past 100 or so years have made. How the movies, or radio, or television, or computers would fundamentally alter the way children learn – making children smarter at younger ages or making learning easier and more accessible to more children – have been recurring claims. Juxtaposed to these are the naysayers who decry children’s time spent with media content that is morally questionable – too much sex, too much violence, too commercial. In many places this history of recurring controversies that surround the introduction of each of the mass media of the twentieth century has been recounted (Davis, 1965; Paik, 2001; Rogers, 2003; Wartella & Jennings, 2000; Wartella & Reeves, 1985).

What are the roots of the recurring historical concerns about children’s use of media? Apart from the specific medium of concern, has anything about how children use media or are influenced by media changed over the past 100 years? In this chapter, we will examine these issues. Our plan is not to recount a new historical view of the controversies which have recurred. Rather, we hope to provide a slightly different angle on the nature of these recurring controversies and we suggest that some things have changed, especially since the advent of television. The dominance of television and other screen media in children’s lives has been sustained longer than the dominant role of earlier technologies and the potential impact may be more powerful as well.
Historical Influences and Changes In Children’s Use Of Leisure Time

The cycle of recurring concerns about children spending time with media was set in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, during the Progressive Era from roughly 1880 to 1930. During this period, the rise of the scientific study of children, the establishment of federal social legislation to monitor the health and welfare of children, and the institutionalization of public education for children occurred (Hawes & Hiner, 1985). Clearly, there was acknowledgement that children’s needs and interests were now topics to be considered by policymakers as well as parents and caregivers during this period (Cravens, 1985). In addition to attention being focused on children, a new social category of adolescence as a distinct stage in the lifecycle of human development became institutionalized and a topic of public discussion (Hawes & Hiner, 1985). Finally, during this period far-reaching technological and social changes brought about a new concept of leisure time, discretionary time when children and adolescents could choose with whom and with what to spend their free time (Somers, 1971). The automobile, movies, and radio were revolutionizing how children and adults spent their time and marked a distinct break with earlier generations (Lynd & Lynd, 1929).

Exactly how children and adolescents spent their time became a barometer of their health and welfare during this period, and the earliest scientific studies of how children spent their time emerged (Wartella & Mazzarella, 1990). In recounting the historical changes in children’s use of time during the twentieth century, Wartella and Mazzarella (1990) observed that as early as the second decade of the twentieth century, there was already concern about
children having too much leisure time. Moreover, their leisure time was increasingly being spent with first film, and then radio and films, and later television. The ongoing theme of concern about children’s leisure time use masks a fundamental shift that occurred after the introduction of television into American life. In short, television colonized Americans’ leisure time. This phenomenon is most apparent in looking at the differences in how children spent their leisure time before and after the emergence of television.

Perhaps the easiest way of demonstrating the quantitative difference in how children spent their time over the course of the twentieth century is to describe what available evidence we have on time use. An early time use study by M. M. Davis (1911), who surveyed 1,140 children aged 11 to 14 in the 1910s, found that 62 percent of these children reported going to the movies once or twice a week. By the 1930s media time use had increased due to the popularity of radio. For instance, sociologists Lundberg, Komarovsky, and McInerny (1934) conducted extensive fieldwork in Westchester County, New York, and had 795 high-school students keep a diary of their leisure time use during 1932 and early 1933. They found both social-class- and gender-based differences in the amount of leisure time youth reported: those from more economically deprived backgrounds spent more time at paid jobs outside the home and girls spent more time in domestic work than boys. Although there was a considerable amount of leisure time, most of it was not spent on media use. For instance, Lundberg and colleagues found that his suburban adolescents averaged 7 hours and 25 minutes of leisure time on weekdays and about 11 hours on weekend days. Most of this time, however, was spent away from
home hanging out with friends, attending club meetings, participating in or watching sports events, going to church-related activities, or motoring. Reports of the amount of this leisure time spent with media were relatively small in that most leisure time was spent away from home. Even when at home, the number one pastime of listening to the radio did not take up vast amounts of time: “two thirds of a sample group of children spent at least one half hour listening in on everything from detective stories to the Lucky Strike Orchestra. This pursuit occupies more of the boys’ time than of the girls’ and takes up from 17 to 30 percent of all leisure which the children spend at home” (Lundberg, 1934, as cited in Wartella & Mazzarella, p. 181). In total Lundberg and colleagues estimated that their sample of high-school students spent 11 percent of their leisure time, or 4 hours and 40 minutes per week with radio, and another 5.5 hours per week going to movies, concerts, or listening to records for a total of a little over 10 hours per week with the mass media.

The Rise of Children’s Content

Since the earliest days when film was introduced into US society, there has been interest and indeed programming for youth. Over time, and especially since the advent of television, there has also been increasing interest in programming more content for youth and for ever younger children. Today we have media content developed specifically for babies. Moreover, this shift in programming content especially directed to children and youth arises both to attract youthful audiences and to counter concerns about the effects of violent and sexual content of the media on
children. One piece of evidence of the ever expanded range of media content for children comes from comparison of the kinds of programming available over the course of the twentieth century. A second piece of evidence involves the growth of concern about youth as an audience for media. For instance, violence and sexuality were once concerns; now even educational content is of concern when directed at infants. In this section, we track this emergence of child-directed content across the dominant media at various historical time periods.

The content and issues of film In a wide-ranging book on the history of the “American audience,” Richard Butsch (2000) notes the changes that occurred in public interest in audiences at the turn of the twentieth century and the rise of the mass media. Whereas theater audiences before the twentieth century were noted for their activity (e.g., shouting at the performers, asking for specific songs, teasing actors on the stage, and generally engaging in rowdy behavior), active audiences were not the concern of the film era.

Commercialization of Youth Through The Media

It is hard to argue that it is only since the advent of television that children and youth have been the target of advertising and marketing messages. Nonetheless, one can point to changes in advertising and marketing practices over the past 60 years that have led to an unprecedented and nearly inescapable commercialized childhood. From babies in diapers through adolescence, children and youth are constantly marketed to across media for numerous products. To say that childhood is media saturated is to say that
childhood is commercialized, for the two go hand in hand in US culture.

Butsch (2000) notes that the rise of films and radio in the 1920s and 1930s was synonymous with the rise of advertising and marketing to media audiences, as well as the segmentation of that audience into groups of interest – women and youth. Starting with college students in the 1920s, the media – in this case films, radio, and magazines – catered to ever younger age cohorts of youth, selling them a distinct set of values that differed from their parent’s generation, social behaviors, clothing and hair styles, and distinct media practices (Fass, 1977). Beginning in the 1920s, social activities such as attending the movies, attending football games and other college sports, and driving and drinking at college parties were portrayed in various media. The “flapper” and the “college coed” are the images represented in the advertisements and media of the day. Businesses sold products catering to this age group including cigarettes, movies, and fashions (Wartella & Mazzarella, 1990).

With the advent of Seventeen magazine in 1944, a new younger market of high-school students was targeted by advertisers. The importance of high-school teenagers was presaged by several social changes. By the early 1930s, high-school attendance had increased to about 60 percent of high-school-aged students. The high school, like the colleges of the 1920s, offered a place where large groups of youth at specific ages could spend time together in activities to establish their own youth culture. Adolescents of the era were using media – movies, radio, magazines, and books – and these media set about catering to the specific needs of these teens. By the 1940s, high-school students as a group
were labeled, identified, and catered to as “teenagers” and the media supported the creation of this subculture. This high-school teen culture is easily described: it is characterized by teen music (first the Bobby Soxers heartthrob Frank Sinatra in the 1940s and then rock and roll music stars like Elvis Presley in the 1950s and 1960s), teen movies (I Was a Teenage Werewolf, Rock Around the Clock), and teen hangouts (the drivein movie and listening to top 40 radio in your cars). This teen culture is vividly captured in George Lucas’s film American Graffiti, which was set in 1962 in Modesto, California.

Starting in the 1960s and through the 1980s, a younger age group of youth became the focus of media and advertisers: grade-school children who were the target of kidvid Saturday morning cartoons with heavy advertising for sugar-coated cereals, snacks, and toys. Into the 1970s and 1980s, this targeting at the under-12 demographic grew substantially. The advent of the “program length commercial” occurred in the 1980s where toys became the focus of cartoon shows such as Teenage Mutant Ninja Turtles and He-Man: Masters of the Universe. The advent of cable channels, including Nickelodeon and Cartoon Network, resulted in numerous programs created just for this age group. The proliferation of advertising also occurred. New kinds of products were developed and aimed at the under-12 age group; these included more food products, clothing, and travel ads for family vacations (Wartella, 1995).

Over the past 100 or so years during the rise of mass and now digital media, the role of these media in children’s lives has been a recurring focus of the media industry, a concerned public, and social science researchers. While one might argue that nothing
new has occurred, that does not truly capture the remarkable inroads media have made in influencing the context of how children develop in American life. Most especially, since the advent of television about 60 years ago, American children live and grow from infancy onward in a world dominated by media. The introduction of the Internet and other digital technologies into children’s homes has further exacerbated the effects of screen media on the lives of youth. The real import of children living and growing in a media-saturated environment is only rudimentarily understood. We know far too little about the role that media play in developmental outcomes. The knowledge base is particularly lacking in terms of documented long-term consequences of exposure to violent, sexual, and commercialized screen content, or of the still untapped potential of media to foster long-term social and academic success.
CHAPTER VII
TECHNOLOGY (MULTIMEDIA) AND TEACHING

A. Teaching Using Technology Multimedia

The development and use of multimedia, especially in education is no longer unusual in Indonesia. According to Costley, 2014; Murphy, DePasquale, & McNamara, 2003 cited in Ahmadi (2018) Technology is an effective tool for learners. Learners must use technology as a significant part of their learning process. Teachers should model the use of technology to support the curriculum so that learners can increase the true use of technology in learning. Multimedia teaching itself refers to use of any computer software or application and it helps make teaching and learning more meaningful and fun. In particular, JELE states according to Oemar Hamalic as cited in Margono (2010:8) that there are four classifications of teaching media:

a) Visual Media
   Such as filmstrip, transparency, micro projection, bulletin board, pictures, illustration, chart, graphic, poster, map, and globe.

b) Audited Media
   Such as phonograph record, electric transcript, radio, recorder of tape recorder.

c) Audio Visual Media
   Such as film, TV, and three dimensions things.

d) Dramatization
   Such as role play, socio drama, etc.
Mayer (2009) explained the term multimedia can be viewed in three ways – based on the devices used to deliver an instructional message (i.e., the delivery media), the representational formats used to present the instructional message (i.e., the presentation modes), or the sense modalities the learner uses to receive the instructional message (i.e., sensory modalities).

a. The Delivery-Media View

The most obvious view is that multimedia means the presentation of material using two or more delivery devices. The focus is on the physical system used to deliver the information – such as computer screens, amplified speakers, projectors, video recorders, blackboards, and human voice boxes. For example, in computer based multimedia, material can be presented via the screen and via the speakers. These devices can be even further broken down by defining each window on a computer screen as a separate delivery device and each sound track coming from a speaker as a separate delivery device. In lecture-based multimedia, material can be presented via a projector onto a screen and via the lecturer’s voice. In the strictest interpretation of the delivery media view, a textbook does not constitute multimedia because the only presentation device is ink printed on paper.

What’s wrong with this view of multimedia? Technically, it is the most accurate view because it focuses on the media used to present information, but psychologically, it does more to confuse the issue than to clarify it. The focus is on the devices used to present information rather than on how people learn – that is, the
focus is on technology rather than on learners. Therefore, I do not take the delivery media view in this book.

b. The Presentation-Modes View

A second view is that multimedia means the presentation of material using two or more presentation modes. The focus is on the way that material is represented – such as through the use of words or pictures. For example, in computer-based multimedia, material can be presented verbally as on-screen text or narration and pictorially as static graphics or animation. In lecture-based multimedia, material can be presented verbally as speech and pictorially as projected graphics or video. In a textbook, material can be presented verbally as printed text and pictorially as static graphics.

This view is consistent with a learner-centered approach if we assume that learners are able to use various coding systems to represent knowledge – such as verbal and pictorial knowledge representations. The presentation-modes view of multimedia is consistent with a cognitive theory of learning that assumes humans have separate information-processing channels for verbal and pictorial knowledge.

c. The Sensory-Modality View

The third view, the sensory-modalities view focuses on the sensory receptors the learner uses to perceive the incoming material – such as the eyes and the ears. For example, in a computer-based environment an animation can be presented visually, and a narration can be presented auditorially. In a lecture scenario, the speaker’s voice is processed in the auditory channel, and the slides from the projector are processed in the visual
channel. In a textbook, illustrations and printed text are both processed visually, at least initially. This view is learner-centered because it takes the learner’s information processing activity into account. Unlike the presentation modes view, however, the sensory-modalities view is that multimedia involves presenting material that is processed visually and auditorially. This distinction is based on the idea that humans process visual images and sounds in qualitatively different ways. In short, the sensory-modalities view of multimedia is consistent with a cognitive theory of learning that assumes humans have separate information-processing channels for auditory and visual processing. Baddeley’s (1999) model of working memory presents the most coherent theoretical and empirical evidence for this idea.

B. Technology Multimedia In English Teaching

Technology Multimedia in teaching English language is one of the best and innovative approaches in language instruction, especially that make possible for teachers giving more opportunity to students being happier and more enjoy the class. This method is also make course more productive, effective, and communicative. In the present times, many academicians and professionals get to know the significance of using various technological devices in the activities of language teaching and learning equally.

These following are how to use technology Multimedia to teach english according to Erben, Ban, and Castaneda (2009):

a. Give ELLs many opportunities to read, to write, to listen to, and to discuss oral and written English texts expressed in a variety of ways.
Surf the web, have students use and create blogs connected with the topics of your subject area, modify classroom texts using PowerPoints, and add voice-overs and visuals to scaffold ELL comprehension, and have students join targeted subject relevant listservs so that they learn by reading other people’s postings.

b. Draw attention to patterns of English language structure.

Create online grammar activities through Quia.com and other exercise builders, use writing process tools such as writeboard.com or Google documents, and get ELLs to reflect on their written interactions with other people through asynchronous communication tools such as email.

c. Give ELLs classroom time to use their English productively.

Develop classroom activities that foster students’ use of a variety of ITs simultaneously to create assignments, projects, and reports specific to your subject area. In this way ELLs not only get involved but utilize language to create learning products. Examples of creative use ITs include using a webpage builder to make a website, using online video editing software to make a movie, serializing audio and video podcasts, and creating blog sites.

d. Give ELLs opportunities to notice their errors and to correct their English.

Use online quiz generators and surveys to help ELLs monitor their English, create e-portfolios to display and critique student work products, use online recording software such as ask7.net for ELLs to audio-record their answers to questions raised in class or in a text so that they
can re-listen to and self-correct their pronunciation, grammar and fluency.

e. Construct activities that maximize opportunities for ELLs to interact with others in English.

Organize collaborative synchronous and asynchronous activities with email, instant messaging, video conferencing, voice conferencing, bulletin boards, and discussion boards. For example, pair students when working through a webquest or have a group of students create a digital story or a virtual tour (see Tramline, which creates virtual field trips, at www.field-trips.org/index.htm). Lastly, you may want the class to work within a social network environment such as Ning (www.ning.com), which is password protected and safe for students, or be adventurous and try some of the newest virtual simulation worlds such as SIMS or Second Life to create student avatars for your students to speak with.

C. Example of English Teaching Using Technology Multimedia

a. Using Powerpoint Template

The use of PowerPoint template activates students thinking and the capacity to comprehend the language. Its audio and visual effects help them to transform English learning into capacity cultivation. It creates a positive environment for the classroom activities such as group discussion, subject discussion and debates, which can offer more opportunities for communication among students and between teachers and students. thus, multimedia
technology encourages students positive thinking and communication skills in learning the language.

b. Using Song Lyrics In Teaching Listening

One of junior high school in Bandung uses song lyrics during the teaching of listening. According to Hadian (2015) the students showed their positive responses to this kind of method of teaching, they were enthusiastic and showed attractiveness to the listening activity. They were enthusiastic in every stages of learning process. They were really enthusiastic when they knew they would listen to the song in their activity. However, in the first meeting, the students were still confused with the learning tasks that were given by the teacher, because such learning activity was new for them. But, the teacher could handle this problem by giving clear instructions and repeating the instructions, and also providing the example.

The students were interested with the song because they had already known the song. It happened because this song was the popular song of the month and became trending topic among teenagers. So, one of the factors of successful teaching with songs is because the songs is familiar with the students from their daily life, and the students had already known the song and they also know the vocabulary of the lyrics. The success of listening instruction is determined by a number of factors, one of which is the types of materials.

However, some of the students started to show their negative responses in two ways. First, some of them tend to be reluctant, gave their negative attention and became less enthusiastic when they found that the songs were not interested. It
was proven in day two when the song lyrics presented in which some of the students, particularly male students thought that song entitled Human by Christina Perri was song for girl and too mellow. Second, some of them tend to be confused and frustrated when they should accomplish the task that hard for them. It happened in the second meeting that the students had a task of rearranging the jumbled lyrics based on the song they heard. The teacher repeated the song four times until they could finish their work.

Hadian (2015) also stated Teaching English by using songs lyrics is really useful and fit the students characteristics, especially for students in grade junior high school, that were included into young learners category. Song lyrics can help increase the students’ interest and motivate them to learn the target language. Students often think of song lyrics as means of entertainment rather than studying tools, therefore learning English through song lyrics is fun and enjoyable. However, using song lyrics in the classroom is not an easy way to do. Teacher and students commonly find some difficulties in using songs lyrics in the students learning activities, such as preparing the multimedia, less effective class condition, and the language used in the songs.

c. Using Blog

Blogging helps the students and instruct the students when the teacher is off campus. The teacher can post his/her article or the instruction to the students, where the students are allowed to post their comments and queries. The teacher can answer the question through his blog. Blogging seems to be widely in use in the present mode of learning. (Parveen 2016)
d. Video Games for Writing

According to Putri (2015) there are some practitioners in education who see video games from another point of view, they believe that video games can be beneficial for today’s education which students are digital natives because video games are one of today’s students’ interests. In addition, there are also several EFL/ESL practitioners who support the idea that video games are useful for enhancing students’ 21st century skills and play a role in education. Teachers may first start by asking students what kind of video games they like and/or play the most. Teachers can then brainstorm students about the story lines of the video games, characters, how to finish the games, and perhaps students’ thoughts about what is good and not good about the video games. After that, students may be encouraged to write about their favourite video games. Students may write about the characters in the video games and the scenes using descriptive writing style. Other than descriptive style, students may also write the story line using narrative writing style. Similarly, expository writing style may also be used to write a walkthrough or a strategy guides on how to finish the games. Students may write the strategy guides for a full video game or one single mission (Hutchison, 2007, p. 166). It will be even better if students write a review about the games using persuasive writing style. All in all, any kind of writing styles can be developed through writing using video games. When students have finished writing about their favourite video games, teachers can even take it to a higher phase. Students can post their writing online after revised by teachers or their peers.
e. TELL

TELL is the use of computer technology including hardware, software and the internet to enhance teaching and learning of languages. It allows the students to get access with all the technologies available for the enhancement of English learning. Students are allowed to use online dictionaries, chat, and to view the various happenings around the world. (Bahadorfar and Omidvar 2014)

f. Internet

The use of Internet is widely used by the man across the globe. In the process of learning, students use this aid in the classroom to learn English where they Google the suitable materials for their topics. The teachers also instruct the students to collect the information and participate among the friends for discussions. For these, the students browse the different applications and online teaching aids and materials like Skype, MSM Messenger etc and grow themselves by connecting with friends, other students, teachers, experts and improve their oral proficiency with the native speakers and also improve intercultural awareness, motivation and raise the level of interaction. They find lot of learning materials like audio, video, audio-video recordings and get exposed to a target language and helps in improving their speaking skills

g. Using podcast

Podcasts helps to upload or download the audio file with the target language and the teacher can use them as useful audio material for the classroom activities like discussions. Besides, these can include pronunciation for learning different accents. It helps the students to improve speaking skills. The students can make use of
these files inside and outside the classrooms in the form of entertainment as the part of their education.

D. **Advantages And Disadvantages Of Multimedia Teaching**

1. **Advantages Of Multimedia Teaching**

   Yan and Rongchun (2011) explain that the use of multimedia teaching has different advantages are:

   a. Multimedia teaching makes English class more vivid, interesting and lively.

      Multimedia teaching makes English class more vivid, interesting and lively, which could therefore stimulate students’ interest in learning, improve class efficiency and achieve a more satisfactory teaching results. With pictures, sounds and animations, multi-media teaching can provide a number of dynamic implicit information associated with linguistic factors, such as cultural background knowledge, exotic customs and so on. In traditional class, the student are asked to listen to class mainly in order to receive information in a rather passive position. Besides, the practice designed for them are always those mechanical and repeated ones. By abandoning the above traditional methods that are not conducive to cultivate students’ learning interest, multimedia teaching, a lively means, could provide vivid and realistic presentation and considerably improve teaching effect.

   b. Multimedia teaching could create a language lively and harmonious environment.

      In the process of training students’ listening, speaking, reading and writing abilities, multimedia teaching could create a
language lively and harmonious environment, provide a good learning scenario, increase practice in four basic skills and mobilize students to participate in class activities. When taking part in these activities concentratedly, the students will have a deeper impression and remember knowledge well. If students could see, hear and express their own ideas in their words, the knowledge grasped in this process will be easier to maintain compared with traditional teaching effect.

c. Multimedia teaching could create a practical English using environment
Multimedia teaching could create a practical English using environment, in which students could enhance their ability to use English. The ultimate goal of learning English for students is the future use of English language. After all, English as a language is a communicative tool. If the students only emphasize learning the language instead of using it, then the result will become the failure of English teaching. Multimedia could associate with language and images. Through multi-sensory stimulation in learning process, the students will have access to more information. Of course, multimedia teaching is a new phenomenon. In specific operations there will inevitably emerge some tough problems. However, we absolutely couldn’t deny the advantages of multimedia teaching for the sake of its problems that could be overcome. In addition, I believe its superiority would be proved by time and will win popularity among teachers and students.
While according to Min Pun (2013), the following are some of the important advantages of the use of multimedia technology in English teaching:

a. Motivates Students to Learn English

The traditional teaching methods are unpopular and less effective in the English language classrooms. Now, multimedia technology, with the help of audio, visual and animation effects, motivates the students to learn English quickly and effectively.

b. Develops Students Communicative Competence

It is hard to achieve the goal of learning English language through the traditional teaching because it hampers the students' capacity to understand the structure, meaning and function of the language. Such teaching method makes the students passive recipients of knowledge. But, now, multimedia technology has been a great help to integrate teaching and learning and provides the students greater incentives, carrying for "students' future competitiveness at the workplace" (Healey et. al. 11). Teachers' instructions lead to the students' thought patterns and motivate the students' emotions. To Suleyman Nihat Sad, the utilization of multimedia technology "breaks the monotony of traditional class teaching and is enjoyable and stimulating".

c. Widens Students Knowledge about the Culture of English

The use of multimedia technology, "connected to the target culture" offers the students with more information than textbooks, and helps them to be familiar with cultural backgrounds and real-life language materials, which can attract the students to learning. The learners not only improve their
listening ability, but also learn the culture of the target language. Having the abundant information through the use of multimedia technology, the students can be equipped with knowledge about the culture of the target language. Is brings about an information sharing opportunity among students and makes them actively participate in the class activities that help the students to learn the language more quickly and effectively.

d. Improves Teaching Efficiency

Using multimedia technology in the language classrooms improves teaching contents and makes the best of class time. It breaks the teacher-centered traditional teaching method and fundamentally improves the teachers teaching efficiency and has become "central to language practice" (Motteram 5). For large classes, it is difficult for the students to have speaking communication, but the utilization of multimedia sound laboratory materializes the face-to-face teaching. The traditional teaching techniques only emphasize on teachers’ instruction and provide limited information to the students. But multimedia technology goes beyond time and space, and creates more real-life environment for English teaching. It stimulates students initiatives and economizes class time, providing more information to the students.

e. Enhances Interaction among Students and between Teachers and Students

Gary Motteram is one the scholars to work on the effectiveness of technological use in the language classrooms. He says that it is still "the case that most teachers work in physical classrooms and looking at ways that these spaces can
be augmented with digital technologies is a very good starting point". In fact, multimedia technology in teaching focuses on the active participation of students, and enhances the importance of interaction among students and between teachers and students. One of the main uses of multimedia technology in the classrooms is to improve students ability to listen and speak, and thereby develop their communicative competence. In this process, the teacher’s role as a facilitator is particularly prominent. The utilization of multimedia technology can create a context for the exchange of information among students and between teachers and students, emphasizing "student engagement in authentic, meaningful interaction" (Warschauer 2). Is opportunity improves on the traditional classroom teaching model. In doing so, the teachers in the classrooms no longer force the students to receive the information passively.

f. Creates a Conducive Teaching Environment in the Classrooms

The use of multimedia technology in the classrooms creates a favorable environment for language teaching. Highlighting the importance of its use, Healey et. al. say, "Bad teaching will not disappear with the addition of even the most advanced technology; good teaching will benefit from appropriate use of technology to help learners achieve their goals". It is technique makes the language class lively and interesting, motivating the students to participate in the classroom activities.

Multimedia technology has its own features such as visibility and liveliness that produce special effects on the
participants. While teaching English language through it, the sounds and pictures can be set together that enhance the active participation of both teachers and students. The teachers can show pictures and images of native speaking situations to enrich the sharing of information effectively. They also imagine different contexts while preparing for the lesson. In the similar way, using the multimedia technology, the students in the class can receive abundant information about the language clearly. Thus, using multimedia technology in English language teaching is effective in cultivating students interest in learning, improving the teachers interest in teaching.

g. Provides Opportunities for English Teaching outside the Classrooms

Teaching English with multimedia technology is flexible that focuses on "how English language teachers, teacher educators, and administrators can and should use technology in and out of the classroom" (Healey et. al. 2). It is means that multimedia technology provides opportunities to have English teaching not only within the classroom situations, but also outside the classroom situations. It creates a multimedia language environment for teaching English. Teaching should be handled by the teachers but it should be student centered, which is one of the principles of good language teaching. Sometimes, the students problems are addressed in the classroom teaching, but other times they should be handled outside the classroom contexts, which is "usually carried out using asynchronous tools, such as e-mail or conferencing systems" (Warschauer 4). In such circumstances, the students
can take the advantage of multimedia technology, contacting the teachers through internet and having their problems resolved thereby.

2. **Disadvantages Of Multimedia Teaching**

Yan and Rongchun (2011) stated Multimedia teaching has the advantages that traditional teaching model can’t compare with, but it has some disadvantages also. They are listed as follows.

a. **Informative but can not highlight the importance**

   Compared with the traditional teaching mode, one of the advantages of multimedia teaching is informative. But in the practical teaching process, some teachers ignored the importance of classroom teaching during designing of the courseware which result in excessive informative but can not highlight the importance. For fearing awkward silence in the class, teachers usually prepare several pages of PPT. At the same time, teachers can download abundant of information relevant the text. The messages are often used on the courseware without a word to refine. The result was the information input far beyond current level of students, student anxiety, which contusing the students’ study enthusiasm badly.

   Moreover, some teachers ignored the importance of students understanding and can not control the rhythm of the lectures demonstration. The click demo was too fast to follow. For some students, even if they can keep up with the lectures, they can not understand and digest them also. Some teachers don’t require students to take notes but let them copy the file directly after class. Teachers just click demo, but didn’t leave time for learners processing
information. The students instantaneous memory can not timely translate into short-term and long-term memory result in a large amount of information and much of knowledge become superfluous information like passingclouds, fleeting.

b. Lack of interactive exercises, input/output imbalance

Some teachers have weak concept in teaching results in drab content of the courseware. Lacking of openness and interactive activities makes input and output imbalance. The details are displayed as follows: The teacher stands on the platform, holding the mouse, demonstrates the courseware one by one naturally. Teachers take “cramming education” mode basically in which “courseware cramming” has 80% at least. So, the teacher is still master in teaching and students are still passive recipients of the external stimulation, which is always in the passive position. The only difference is the teaching media changed, from “chalk + blackboard” changed into multimedia teaching without improvement essentially.

c. Formalist answer limiting the students’ thinking

In the practical teaching process, students answer questions are often depend on teachers answer especially in explaining definition and principle subjects. It’s difficult to breakthrough the original framework and the standard answer. It’s difficult for the teachers to make various extensions. As time passes, in this law, students become external stimulation recipients actually and won’t put forward their own ideas.

At the same time, teachers present the knowledge only but have no chance to discuss on some problems and communicate and question with the students for understanding each other’s ideas and
making corresponding adjustment. In a certain extent, the inappropriate use of some multimedia courseware fosterages inertia and weakens subjective initiative of students.

d. Courseware quality is not high, lack of interesting

Multimedia technology can provide teaching resources including text, graphics, animation, image, sound and video information, which can greatly improve the learning interest of the students and promote their understanding and memory of knowledge. However, in the actual teaching process, most of the courseware was just reprint of paper material and the information mainly in the text and static images form due to teachers lacking considerable computer technology.

The advantages of multimedia courseware can not be exhibited adequately. It can not help for students’ interest, understanding and memory.

Min Pun (2013) also explained there is some disadvantages of using multimedia in english teaching despite it has facilitated the language teachers to improve their efficiency in teaching. The following are some of the disadvantages that this study has found in the context of non-native speaking countries:

a. Emphasis on the Supplementary of Effective Teaching

The use of multimedia technology is a supplementary tool for English language teaching, not an end in itself as the blackboard is "supplemented by the overhead projector, another excellent medium for the teacher-dominated classroom, as well as by early computer software programs" (Warschauer 2). If the teachers are totally dependent on multimedia devices during their teaching, they may turn into slaves to multimedia technology and cannot play the
key role as a facilitator to the students. In practice, many teachers are active in using multimedia technology, but they are not proficient enough to handle it properly. If the teachers stand by the computer all the time and students are just concentrating on the screen, the teachers cannot have the direct eye contact with the students. The development of multimedia technology in the language classrooms is considered effective and many benefits of the traditional teaching model have been forgotten therefore, the teachers should understand that the multimedia technology should be used as a supplementary instrument rather than a target. For example, "Electronic communication within a single class might be viewed as an artificial substitute for face-to-face communication" (Warschauer 4). It should be considered and used as a tool for effective teaching and learning.

b. Lack of Communication between Teachers and Students

It is important that there should be a lot of communicative activities in the language classrooms. The teachers should teach the students on how to pronounce certain words, to comprehend the sentences, to improve thought patterns and to express what they have learned. Though the use of multimedia technology in the language classrooms enhances the interest of the students through audio, visual and textual effects upon the students, it lacks interaction among the students and between teachers and students. For example, Healey et. al. claim, "teachers used pen pals before they had access to keypals, print magazines and newspapers before they had online news, and work in groups face to face before
they collaborated in virtual worlds”. In fact, it replaces the teachers' voice by computer sound and teachers’ analysis by visual image.

Thereby, the students will have a very limited time for speaking communication. the sound and image of multimedia technology a. ect the students initiative to think and speak in English language class turns into a show case and the students are conside c. Lack of Real-Time Teaching

Language teaching requires lots of discussion formed through questions and answers between teachers and students. The teachers ask real-time questions and guide the students to think, and to build up their capacity to give the answers. For example, "students need to be given maximum opportunity for authentic social interaction" (Warschauer 3). However, the teachers, with the help of multimedia technology, prepare the pre-arranged courseware for the language teaching that lacks real-time ect in the classrooms and the students become unable to give feedback to their teachers. It ignores the spontaneity in the students mind that includes students thinking, strengthening their learning capacity and solving problems us, the cultivation of students thinking capacity should be the major objective in teaching and using of multimedia technology. the students should be given opportunities for thinking, analyzing and exploring their own world.

d. Loss of Students' Logical thinking

The use of multimedia technology in teaching makes the students understand the content easily, but their abstract thinking would be restricted and thereby their logical thinking would be faded away. In fact, the process of acquiring knowledge goes through perceptual stage and then rational stage, "developing
critical thinking and autonomous learning while maximizing beneficial interactions" (Healey et. al. 9). So the teachers should understand that knowledge of something from perceptual recognition to rational apprehension is very important in the students' learning process. So if the students only perceive the images and imagination shown on the screen, their abstract thinking would be restricted and logical thinking would fade away. Nowadays, the diminishing process of acquiring knowledge has been the major concern for today's students. Because textual words are replaced by sound and image, and handwriting is replaced by keyboard input.

Here, again, multimedia technology should be used as an assisting tool for language teaching and should not replace the dominant role of teachers. In addition, it is not a mechanic imitation of teaching rather it integrates the visual, textual display with teachers’ experience for effecting English language teaching. In this way, keeping in mind the students' process of acquiring knowledge, the teachers can improve the students’ listening, speaking, reading and writing skills of the language.

Expensive Way of Conducting Language Classes

Using multimedia technology in English language teaching is an expensive way of conducting language classes, which may not be fulfilled (Panthee 39). Keeping this fact in mind, the administrators and policy makers should not only help language teachers realize "the potential benefits of technology, and prompt them to learn to use technology in their teaching," but they should understand "the significant role of technology so they foster the learning process by providing the necessary structure, support, and infrastructure"
(Healey et. al. 9). Over time, it tends to result in higher expenses though it will help create more effective education. The language learning programs start with expenses that are related to implementing new technologies in education. The expenses usually entail hardware, software, staffing, and training for at least one networked computer laboratory where teachers and students can come and use it. It is open the case in poorly-funded language classes that the hardware itself comes in through a one-time grant, with little funding left over for software, staff training and maintenance.
CHAPTER VIII
LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT

A. Assessment

Classroom assessment or teacher assessment refers to assessment carried out by teachers in the classroom. It may be formative when teachers are collecting information about children’s strengths and weaknesses in order to provide feedback to learners and to make further decisions about teaching, or it may be summative, when teachers are collecting information at the end of a period of time, generally to report to others about children’s progress. In classrooms, there are many opportunities for assessment through language use tasks, when children are able to engage in language use in games, information gap oral tasks, story writing, question-and-answer tasks related to literature, project work and so on. Assessment can be embedded in instruction designed to achieve the curriculum objectives, and this enables teachers not only to check that learning is taking place, but also to use the feedback they receive through assessment to support learning (McKay, 2006). From this statement know that classroom has important role in learning process.

Classroom assessment might occur in the following ways and for the following purposes (McKay, 2006):

1. initial diagnosis at the beginning of the year (What are the strengths and weaknesses that need to be addressed from the start of the year?)
2. ongoing diagnosis leading to decision-making about teaching during the course of teaching (How are they...
progressing? What feedback can I give right now? What do I need to teach next?)

3. ongoing collection of evidence leading to information-sharing with children and their parents. What can I share with children about their ongoing progress and needs? What can I tell parents and others about children’s ongoing progress?

4. ongoing collection of evidence of progress leading to reporting against externally developed criteria (How are the children progressing towards the criteria?)

5. summative purposes (What have they achieved? What do I report about their progress?)

Assessment is an integral part of the instructional process. It establishes where learners are at present and what level they have achieved; it gives learners feedback on their learning; it diagnoses learners’ needs for further development; and it enables the planning of curricula, materials, and activities (Alderson, 2005). The importance of the teachers’ role in assessment is inevitable as they are the core of this process: making decisions about the process of the lessons, determining the strengths and weaknesses of alternatives available to them, making selections on their experience and making judgments about their learners’ progress (Rea-Dickins, 2004).

Assessment should be understood as a feedback generating process meant to help making educational decisions and to provide the learner the necessary feedback about their strong or not so strong points in learning, but equally to inform educational policy and adequate curricular development (Sanders, 1990). This is
confirmed in the literature (Rivers, 2001), who sees testing as supporting learning, encouraging that side of evaluation which can enable the students to demonstrate their competence, rather than the one connected with the strict exclusionary procedure.

The learner is seen as the linking element between the assessment and the learning process, having a crucial role in assessment. Assessment as learning is connected to assessment for learning: “Assessment as learning encourages students to monitor and exert self-regulation over their thinking processes and stresses the importance of fostering students’ capacity over time to be their own assessors. Students take a proactive role in their learning, use assessment information to self-assess and self-monitor their learning progress, reflect on their learning, and make adjustments in their thinking so as to achieve deeper understanding and to advance their learning.”

The term assessment is distinguished from the term test. According to Brown (2004), tests refers to prepared administrative procedures that occur at particular times in a curriculum in which learners manifest their competence for the best achievement, knowing that their responses are being measured and evaluated. Whereas used in a broader sense, assessment is an ongoing process of judgment, encompassing a teacher’s comment and written phrase responding to students’ performance as well as a form of reporting measurement (Brown, 2004). That is, unlike tests, the results of assessment do not need to be reported all the time, and furthermore, they are not necessarily reflected in the final grades. Thus, the term assessment is used to incorporate a wide range of methods for evaluating student performance and attainment,
including formal testing. Specific terms (i.e., standardized tests, formal tests, or school-administered tests) are used in cases where the discussion focuses on specific forms of assessment.

B. Listening Assessment

Over the past decades, the assessment of listening skills in ESL and EFL learning has become an area of concern in both research and teaching. Such concern stems, by and large, from the fact that listening assessment has proven to be both a difficult area of language teaching and a relatively neglected field worldwide. Buck described three approaches to listening assessment. The first was developed during the 1950s as the audiolingual method came into existence. In this approach, according to Coombe et al., listening was broken down into separate elements to be assessed. The rationale comes from the belief that “it was important to be able to isolate one element of language from a continuous stream of speech and that spoken language was believed to be the same as written language [...].”

The second approach, called the integrative approach, came into existence in the 1970s. Coombe et al. argue that tests in this approach sought to assess the learner’s capacity to use many language bits at the same time. The whole of a language was seen as being greater that the sum of its parts. The last approach to listening assessment, as proposed by Buck, is to be found within the communicative approach to language teaching developed during the 1970s when “the status of listening comprehension began to change from being incidental and peripheral to a status of central importance.”
Some aspects of listening assessment (Brown, 2000);

1. Approaches to Listening Assessment

Buck presents three approaches to the assessment of listening skills. The first is the discrete-point approach which “[breaks] listening into component elements and assesses them separately.” The second approach is the integrative approach. According to Oller, “whereas discrete items attempt to test knowledge of language one bit at a time, integrative tests attempt to assess a learner’s capacity to use many bits at the same time.” The last approach is the communicative approach. Its rationale poses that the listener must be able to comprehend the message and then use it in context.

2. Types of Listening

Coombe et al. describe two types of listening: general and academic listening. They classify the following micro-skills that are part of general listening: clustering; recognizing redundancy; comprehending reduced forms, hesitations, pauses, false starts, and corrections; understanding colloquial language; processing prosodic features; and understanding and using rules of conversational interaction. Academic listening, on the other hand, includes identifying the purpose and scope of a lecture, the topic, and its logical development; understanding the relationship among discourse units (main versus supporting details); recognizing lexical terms related to the topic; recognizing markers of cohesion (first, next, in conclusion, etc.) and intonation in a lecture, detecting the speaker’s attitude toward the subject; and recognizing digressions (turning aside from the main subject) and non-verbal cues of emphasis.
3. Considerations in Designing Listening Tasks

Teachers must take into account many aspects when they design listening tasks. Before beginning to design a listening test, teachers should consult the course objectives and assessment specifications and guidelines. Tasks should reflect those that occur in real-life situations, and the language used should be natural.

C. Speaking Assessment

Assessment on speaking can be a very judgmental issue, in which people tend to relate on native/nonnative speakers on the basis of pronunciation (Luoma, 2004). Additionally, Nunan (1999) viewed that speaking requires someone to be linguistically competence in term of well articulating the sound, having sufficient vocabulary, and mastering structural or grammatical components. To speak also needs functional competence which means answering questions completely and logically. Another competence is strategic competence in which the speaker is able to use repairing strategies when conversation breaks down. And the last one is sociolinguistic/cultural competence. It demands the speakers to use the language appropriately to the context. This theory then developed as the criteria of speaking test assessment. However, the design of speaking assessment may vary; depend on the types of speaking assessed. Then, what should to be tested? (Nunan, 1999).

Speaking assessment is usually reported as an overall mark on bands scales or score points, in order to provide valid, reliable and consistent results of assessment, that show the learners' speaking achievement/level (Council of Europe, 2014).
scales for speaking skills generally may be distinguished between holistic and analytic. The holistic method of assessment is used to assess learners' performance as a whole, without judging the component parts (criteria) separately. The analytical method is used to judge students' performance first assessing individual parts separately, then the results of individual scores are summed to calculate a final total score. Analytical assessment rubric consists of two parts - criteria and scales (weight). This method of assessment provides useful information for students and teachers about areas of strength and weakness. However, compared to holistic assessment, analytical assessment is time-consuming and, even with a good rubric, assessors may not arrive at the same score (if the criterion is not well-defined) (Mertler, 2001).

D. Reading Assessment

Assessment of reading ability does not end with measurement of understanding. Many expert opinions describe the forms of assessment of the reading ability. Assessment of reading skills has different objectives. Measuring reading comprehension should help lecturers monitor student understanding and provide information that is useful for designing reading comprehension programs. The following are differences in the types of reading comprehension assessments;

Table 1. The Different of Reading Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Norm-referenced test</td>
<td>Published test administered under standardized conditions (e.g., with computerized answer sheets, times): students; scores are compared with those of a normative sample.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criterion-referenced test</td>
<td>Students’ test scores are compared with predetermined criterion levels that indicate mastery of a skill or content: informal reading inventories are a type of criterion-referenced test.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum-based assessment</td>
<td>Tests are based in the actual curriculum used in the classroom, and students are assessed regularly and their progress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum-based measurement</td>
<td>Students are assessed frequently with standard, brief tests; scores are monitored over time to assess progress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews and questionnaire</td>
<td>Students respond orally or in writing to a list of questions designed to assess their understanding of the reading process, their knowledge of reading strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>Examiners observe students’ reading behaviors, using checklists, anecdotal records, or ethnographic note taking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retelling</td>
<td>Students are prompted to retell or reconstruct what they remember about what they have just finished reading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think alouds</td>
<td>Students are prompted to voice their thoughts before, during, and after reading.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The National Assessment Governing Board (2002) developed a framework for NAEP in the assessment of reading comprehension covering 4 different aspects of reading, namely: 1) forming a general understand (literal comprehension), 2) developing an interpretation (generating an idea), 3) making reader / text connection (personal relevance), and 4) examining content and structure (analysis). According to Alderson, there are various methods for assessing reading
comprehension skills. Some techniques for assessing reading skills include:
Multiple-choice techniques, matching techniques, task assignments, dichotomous items, editing tests, alternative integrated approaches, the cloze elide test, short answer tests, free-recall tests, the summary test, the gapped summary, information-transfer techniques.

E. Writing Assessment

Writing assessment criteria is a central component of assessment design. To help you write your own assessment criteria, here are some points you may find useful (adapted from Bloxham & Boyd):

- Criteria should clearly relate to the learning outcomes being assessed;
- The criteria should relate to the level of the course/module (i.e. first, second, third year);
- Make use of your colleagues' feedback in drafting criteria to ensure the components that are being used to evaluate students' performance are reflected within the criteria;
- Make the criteria clear and concise. This is particularly important as it can help shape the structure of your feedback to students.
- Avoid lengthy, overly-specific criteria, which can make marking work even more time-consuming and may encourage your students to adopt a mechanistic approach to your assignment.

The Writing Examiners award marks using a Writing Assessment Scale which was developed with explicit reference to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). It covers all the levels of the Cambridge English exams and is divided into four subscales:
Brown (2003) has used three approaches to assess the writing:

1. Holistic scoring
2. Analytic scoring
3. Main component scoring

McNamara used the assessment scale that assessed the performance task like as writing. There are three types of scale: primary trait scoring that is used by Lloyd-Jones, holistic scoring like as TOEFL Writing Test, and analytic scoring that has some aspects are content, organization, cohesion, register, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanic. Here is the table of analytic scoring:

Table 2. Holistic and Analytic Scoring for TOEFL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Content</td>
<td>30-27 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable, substantive, thorough development of thesis, relevant to assigned topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>26 - 22 GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject, adequate range, limited development of thesis, mostly relevant of topic but lacks detail.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 – 17</td>
<td>FAIR TO POOR</td>
<td>limited knowledge of subject, little of substance, inadequate development of topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-13</td>
<td>VERY POOR</td>
<td>does not show knowledge of subject, non-substantive, not pertinent, OR not enough to evaluate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>20-18 EXCELENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression, ideas clearly stated/supported, succinct, well-organized, logical sequencing, cohesive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17-14 GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy, loosely organized but main ide stand out, limited support, logical but incomplete sequencing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13-10 FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent, ideas confused or disconnected, lacks logical sequencing and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9-7 VERY POOR: does not communicate, no organization, OR not enough to evaluate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>20-18 EXCELENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range, effective work, idiom choice and usage, word form mastery, appropriate register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17-14 GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range, occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage but meaning not obscured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Mechanic</td>
<td>5 EXCELENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrate mastery of conventions, few errors of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Language Use</td>
<td>25-22 EXCELENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex construction, few errors of agreement, tense, number, words order/function, articles, pronouns, preposition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21-18 GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple construction, minor problem in complex construction, several errors of agreement, tense, number, words order/function, articles, pronouns, preposition but meaning seldom obscured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17-11 FAIR TO POOR: major problem in simple/complex construction, frequent error of negotion, agreement, tense, number, words order/function, articles, pronouns, preposition and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions, meaning confused or obscured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10-5 VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentences construction rules, dominated by error, does not communicate, OR not enough to evaluate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-10 FAIR TO POOR: limited range, frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage, meaning or obscured</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-7 VERY POOR: essentially translation, little knowledge of english vocabulary, idioms, word form, OR not enough to evaluate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-5 POOR: essentially translation, little mastery of conventions, major problem in simple/complex construction, frequent errors of agreement, tense, number, words order/function, articles, pronouns, preposition and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions, meaning confused or obscured</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-4 FAIR TO POOR: major problem in simple/complex construction, frequent error of negotion, agreement, tense, number, words order/function, articles, pronouns, preposition and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions, meaning confused or obscured</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-3 GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple construction, minor problem in complex construction, several errors of agreement, tense, number, words order/function, articles, pronouns, preposition but meaning seldom obscured</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-1 VERY POOR: essentially translation, little mastery of conventions, major problem in simple/complex construction, frequent errors of agreement, tense, number, words order/function, articles, pronouns, preposition and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions, meaning confused or obscured</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-0 POOR: essentially translation, little mastery of conventions, major problem in simple/complex construction, frequent errors of agreement, tense, number, words order/function, articles, pronouns, preposition and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions, meaning confused or obscured</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but meaning not obscured</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>FAIR TO POOR : frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, poor handwriting, meaning confused or obscured</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>VERY POOR : no mastery of conventions, dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, handwriting illegible, OR not enough to evaluate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure Jacobs et.al.’s (1981) scoring profile
Table 2. *Analytic scale for rating composition task* (Brown and Bailey, 1984, p.39-41)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Excellent to Good (20-18)</th>
<th>Good to Adequate (17-15)</th>
<th>Adequate to Fair (14-12)</th>
<th>Unacceptable – Not (11-6)</th>
<th>college-level work 5-1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organization</strong></td>
<td>• Appropriate title, effective introductory paragraph, topic is stated, lead to body, • transitional expression used • arrangement of material shows plan (could be outlined by reader),</td>
<td>• adequate title, introduction, and conclusion, • body of essay is acceptable but some evidence may be lacking, some ideas aren’t fully developed,</td>
<td>• Mediocre or scant introduction or conclusion, • Problem with the order of ideas in body, • The generalization may not fully supported by the evidence given,</td>
<td>• Shaky or minimally recognizable introduction, • Organization can barely be seen, • Severe problems with</td>
<td>• Absence of introduction or conclusion, • No apparent organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting Evidence Given for Generalization, Conclusion Logical and Complete</td>
<td>Sequence is Logical but Transitional Expression May Be Absent or Misused</td>
<td>Problem of Organization Interferes with Ordering of Ideas, Lack of Supporting Evidence, Conclusion Weak or Illogical, Inadequate Effort at Organization of Body, Severe Lack of Supporting Evidence, Writer Has Not Made Any Effort to Organize Composition (could...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>logical development of ideas</td>
<td>• essay addressed designed topic,</td>
<td>• essay addressed the issues but misses some point,</td>
<td>• development of ideas not complete or essay is somewhat off the topics,</td>
<td>• ideas incomplete essay does not reflect careful thinking or was hurriedly written,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the ideas are concrete and thoroughly developed,</td>
<td>ideas could be more fully developed,</td>
<td>paragraph aren’t divided exactly right</td>
<td>inadequate effort in area of content</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no extraneous material,</td>
<td>some extraneous material is present</td>
<td>essay is completely inadequate and does not reflect college – level work,</td>
<td>no apparent effort to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>essay reflects thought</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>native-like fluency in English grammar, correct use of relative clause, preposition, modals, articles, verb form, and tenses sequencing, no fragment or run-on sentences</td>
<td>advanced proficiency in English grammar, some grammar problem don’t influence communication although the reader is aware of them, no fragments or run-on sentences</td>
<td>ideas are getting through to the reader, but grammar problems are apparent and have negative effect on communication, run-on sentences or fragment present</td>
<td>numerous serious grammar problem interfere with communication of the writer’s ideas, grammar review of some areas clearly needed, Severe grammar problems interfere greatly with the message, Reader can’t understand what the writer was trying to say, consider the topic carefully</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Grammar**

- native-like fluency in English grammar,
- correct use of relative clause, preposition, modals, articles, verb form, and tenses sequencing,
- no fragment or run-on sentences

- advanced proficiency in English grammar,
- some grammar problem don’t influence communication although the reader is aware of them,
- no fragments or run-on sentences

- ideas are getting through to the reader, but grammar problems are apparent and have negative effect on communication,
- run-on sentences or fragment present

- numerous serious grammar problem interfere with communication of the writer’s ideas,
- grammar review of some areas clearly needed,
- Severe grammar problems interfere greatly with the message,
- Reader can’t understand what the writer was trying to say,
- consider the topic carefully
| punctuation, spelling, and mechanics | correct use of English writing conventions, left and right margins, all needed capitals, paragraph indended, punctuation and spelling. Very neat | some problems with writing conventions or punctuation, occasional spelling errors, left margin correct, paper is neat and legible | uses general writing conventions but has errors, spelling problems distract reader, punctuation errors interfere with ideas | serious problems with format of paper, parts of essay not legible, errors in sentence punctuatio n and final punctuation, unacceptable to | complete disregard for English writing conventions, paper illegible, obvious capitals missing, no margins, difficult to read sentence, Unintelligible sentence structure |
| styles and quality of expression | Precise vocabulary usage, Use of parallel structures, Concise, register good | Attempts variety, Good vocabulary, Not wordy, Register ok, Style fairly concise. | Some vocabulary missused, Lack awareness of register, May be too wordy | Poor expression of ideas, Problems in vocabulary, Lacks variety problem | Inappropriate use of vocabulary, No concept of register or sentences variety |

CHAPTER IX
HOW TO BE PROFESSIONAL TEACHER

A. The Teacher as Mediator

We firmly believe that none of the teaching roles we have discussed are, by themselves, appropriate for teaching in schools — in much the same way as the three different kinds of knowledge are, in themselves, inadequate curriculum goals. If teachers adopted any one of these roles exclusively as a source of professional identity, each of them would have serious problematic consequences for teachers and learners. So the teacher’s role in the new curriculum needs to be flexible enough to occupy each of the teaching roles as the ever-changing situation of learner, teacher and curriculum demands. The name we have used for this complex and flexible role is ‘mediator’.

Adopting the identity of mediators, teachers do not have to shed all traces of content teaching and give up their authority and responsibility. They do not need to become mere ‘trainers’ focused on developing skills. And they shouldn’t resort to ‘chalk and talk’ methods in desperation if they come up against serious difficulties in either of these last two roles. Rather, the role of mediator develops the wide range of strategies Andy Hargreaves speaks of in Reading 14, and moves comfortably between roles, even within a single teaching unit. Botlhale Tema has summed up this function of the mediator very well (1997: 6–7).

The teacher as mediator always tries to be as aware as possible of the learner’s level of understanding — their Current Level of Development (CLD) — so that learning can be appropriately
targeted. Vygotsky also describes the Potential Level of Development (PLD) as the level that the learners will reach at the end of a learning experience. Neither the CLD nor the PLD are suitable levels around which to design learning. If it is directed at the CLD, the learners will not find the work challenging. If it is directed at the PLD, learners will find the work too difficult. Vygotsky advocates directing learning at the more advanced edge of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which lies between the CLD and the PLD. This is the level at which learners cannot quite manage to grasp a concept or perform a mental operation on their own, but soon will be able to, especially if assisted by the mediator.

In this way, the mediator continually extends and challenges the learners, assisting them to move towards higher-level cognitive operations or concepts (for example, from everyday concepts to systematic concepts). Unlike Piaget, whose theory depicts the learner’s cognitive development ‘unfolding’ stage by stage, more or less as ‘programmed’ by nature, Vygotsky regards the learner’s social and cultural interaction, mainly through the medium of language, as vital to the young learner’s development. Given the central role of the teacher/mediator in this process, it is clear that Vygotsky credits the teacher/mediator with considerable authority.

B. The Role of Teacher

The role of the teacher is to lead learners to higher levels of thinking. When a builder wants to work at a higher level, he uses a scaffold, but once that level is reached, the scaffold is removed. When teaching, the teacher/mediator provides the ‘scaffold’ to aid learning. Once learners demonstrate competency at a particular
task, the teacher reduces the help provided so that learners can refine and constantly dynamic one. The teacher provides scaffolding by:

- explanation: explaining the set tasks so that they are understood by the learner;
- instruction: giving clear instructions to the learner to aid completion of the set task;
- interpretation: allowing learners to make meaningful interpretations of the tasks set;
- modelling: demonstrating possible strategies to attain the task set by the teacher;
- questioning: using higher-order questioning to challenge and encourage the learner’s thinking; and
- feeding back: feeding back information, not as a score, but in the form of detailed information on how the learner can improve his or her performance.

C. What is Professionalism

Making sense of professionalism

According to Eric Hoyle and Peter John, the writers-researchers. In their 1995 analysis, ‘Professional Knowledge and Professional Practice’, they summarize the thinking of a number of writers on the subject of teaching as a profession. Drawing on their description, we will say that a profession is associated with the following qualities:

1. A crucial social function
A profession is an occupation that performs a crucial social function or service requiring a considerable degree of skill and competence.

2. Specialized knowledge
Professionals draw on a well-established, well-tested body of specialized knowledge, for instance medicine or the law. Acquiring this body of knowledge and skill requires a lengthy period of higher education.

3. Professional competence
This competence is exercised in situations that are not wholly routine, but which present new problems and require more than recipe-type knowledge or simple, ‘right or wrong judgements. For example, doctors may well face situations in which the best course of action is not clear, or in which two right courses of action are in direct conflict with each other. In contrast, electricians often make relatively straightforward decisions, even though they draw on a variety of solutions that involve technical knowledge.

4. Professional responsibility
The long period of education required by professions entails socialization into professional values, which focus on serving the client’s interests rather than deriving economic profit. In other words, society expects professionals to make decisions that involve considerable risk, and to take a high level of responsibility for these decisions in the interests of their clients, for example a doctor diagnosing and treating a patient’s illness correctly. These professional values are set
down in an ethical code of conduct, to which all registered and licensed members of the profession are bound to adhere.

5. Professional autonomy

Professionals require considerable freedom or autonomy to make judgements, because they have to draw on knowledge-based skills and values-based decisionmaking in non-routine situations that are often complex and risky. This involves relative freedom from very restrictive bureaucratic control by the government or from public interference. This freedom extends to the professional organizations that have control over the professional responsibilities and conduct of their members. These organizations enjoy the autonomy to register their own members, and to discipline them if they infringe the code of conduct.

6. Professional accountability

In exchange for professional autonomy, the controlling body of the profession assures society that its members are competent, responsible, and accountable. It also ensures professional control over their credentials and their entry into the profession; and it ensures a high degree of accountability through published codes of conduct, disciplinary committees, and audits. However, this autonomy is not a ‘reward’ bestowed on a profession by a grateful public, but a hard-won right acquired over a long period of time, which is always open to challenge from members of society. For example, if people became suspicious that doctors were too readily prescribing
expensive medicines, which they also sold from their own surgeries, these people might react by challenging doctors’ rights to sell medicines.

D. Professional Responsibilities

1. Reflection on Teaching

The ability to reflect on teaching is the mark of a true professional. The importance of reflection on practice is governed by the belief that teaching, given its complexity, can never be perfect. That is, no matter how good a lesson was, it can always be improved. This is not to suggest that the teaching was of poor quality and must be “fixed”; rather, it is because teaching is so hard that some aspect of it can always be improved. Awareness of the engagement of students—in both quantity and quality—helps teachers know to what extent the approach used was appropriate or if an alternative approach would have been more effective. Of course, it often takes a few days for students to demonstrate their learning. Reflection on practice is a natural activity by all professionals. Teachers demonstrate their skill in reflection through professional conversation with colleagues. In some situations, a written reflection may encourage more thoughtful results. This contribution to ongoing improvement is the true benefit of reflection, enabling teachers to focus on those aspects of their teaching that can be strengthened. Professional—namely, analysis and improvement. As they become more skilled at reflection, teachers are able to cite specific.
2. Maintaining Accurate Records

One consequence of the complexity of teaching is the need for teachers to keep accurate records of routine classroom events, of student progress, of non-instructional matters. When teachers make assignments, particularly those with important deadlines, they must keep track of which students have completed which assignments, fully or in part. A well-designed system for assignments enables both teacher and students to know at all times which assignments have been completed and which are still outstanding.

Rationale and Explanation Increasingly, it is essential for teachers to keep track of student learning so that they know which parts of the curriculum students have learned and which they have not. Such tracking may take the form of skills checklists, records of competencies that are demonstrated, and portfolios of student work.

3. Communicating With Families

Educators have long recognized that when they can enlist the participation of students’ families in the educational process, student learning is enhanced. Although parents and guardians vary enormously in how active a part they can take in their children’s learning, most parents care deeply about the progress of their children and appreciate meaningful participation. Communication with families involves keeping them informed about how a class is run. By meeting the parents of their students, teachers have an opportunity to understand their students more fully.

4. Participating in a Professional Community

One’s professional colleagues are a rich resource regarding teaching. In addition, the challenge of running schools requires the
participation of all members of the professional community. The focus of their work is the school’s program and the progress of students, and they collaborate with colleagues to that end.

5. **Growing and Developing Professionally**

   Continuing development is the mark of a true professional; it is an ongoing effort that is never completed. All teachers can profit from learning more about the subjects they teach. Although it is important for teachers to continually deepen their content knowledge. Continuing education is essential just to stay abreast of the latest developments.

6. **Showing Professionalism**

   Accomplished teachers display certain professional qualities that help them to serve their students and their profession. A teacher’s integrity is demonstrated, most importantly, through honesty. Professional educators can be counted on to do what they said they would do, to maintain confidentiality, to support the best efforts of colleagues.

   Highly professional teachers never forget that schools are not institutions run for the convenience of the adults who work in them; instead, the purpose of schools is to educate students. These educators care deeply for the well-being of their students and mobilize whatever resources are necessary for them to be successful. Professional educators are keenly alert to the needs of their students and step in on their behalf when needed. They are aware of the signs of physical abuse and of drug and alcohol dependency.
E. Example Research About a Professional Teacher

1. The Teacher’s First Day of School: What to Do Before Walking into Class (Chinander, 2015)

Abstract: The focus of this paper is to outline important tasks that new teachers should complete before entering the classroom on their first day of the job. The key points include: discussing technology in the classroom, deciding the layout of the classroom desks, how to find a mentor, and how to promote parent or guardian involvement before school even starts.

Introduction:

The majority of today’s future educators have grown up in a world dependent upon technology. We use it to set our alarms, keep a scheduled planner, communicate, research, and that is not even scratching the surface of what we can do. Therefore, it makes sense that teachers would be required to use technology in the classroom with their students who have had a similar, if not more prevalent experience with electronics. Technology should be used to enact common teaching practices like collaborating with other students in a way that exposes children to the global advancements at an early age so that kids can be able to command commonplace devices and grow up with technology instead of catch up (Groff, Haas, Klopfer, Osterweil, 2009, p. 1-2).

Although technology is essential to incorporate in the classroom, another consideration is how to arrange the desks in the room. First off, it is necessary to recognize that there are many different ways to set up a classroom in order to accommodate a class’s unique students. Allowing students to
freely discuss the class environment can be beneficial to the students productivity. Kids typically know how they work best. Teachers can change around the desks for certain lectures, tests, or in order to keep their classroom focused. In fact they may realize that they have to change the set-up in order to regain their students’ attention and participation (Sommer, 1977, p. 174-175).

In conclusion, future educators preparing for their first year of teaching will start the year feeling more confident after their summer preparation. The first year will be a year of transition, and it will be best to prepare ahead of time to review plans and change them if need be. In order to prepare for a great year with these tools however, new teachers must balance the act of applying unique teaching strategies to their classroom and keeping their energy up for the kids to promote lifelong learning.

2. **Discussion in the Classroom: Why to Do It, How to Do It, and How to Assess It** (Corcoran, 2016)

**Abstract:** Discussion in classrooms makes learning more interactive and helps students develop skills that cannot be taught in a traditional lecture format. Large group discussion is not a perfect teaching strategy and neither is small group discussion, but there are things educators can do to improve the practical usage of discussion in the classroom. When it comes to assessment, there are many options for the educator to choose from. The best choice depends on what would be most beneficial for the students.

**Introduction:**
The Benefits of Discussion

Discussions help students develop and strengthen interpersonal communication skills as well as analytical and critical thinking skills. Research shows a positive correlation between the quality of classroom discussion and the how well students understand what they have learned (Murphy et al, 2009). It also suggests that improved discussion in the classroom will help students build better problem solving skills (Murphy, et. al, 2009). Discussions help to summarize what students have learned and strengthens conceptual and procedural knowledge. When students have problems understanding something, having a discussion makes it clearer to both the teacher and the student exactly what the student is struggling with and then the teacher can address the problem and fix it (de Garcia, 2013). There are lots of benefits associated with the use of discussion in education, yet it is not something that enough teachers take advantage of.

Problems and Solutions for Facilitating Discussion

A whole class discussion can be a wonderful tool when used correctly, but it is not always the best strategy to use if the goal is to get every student to talk. Large group discussions have certain downfalls when it comes to getting students to talk. Many students are not comfortable speaking in front of the whole class. They are worried that they will make a mistake and embarrass themselves in front of their peers. Students who are shy or less confident may not contribute at all (Jing, 2010). These problems can be addressed in several different ways.
First, there are things educators can do to make students feel more comfortable. People often feel more comfortable when they know the other people they are talking with.

Students who are uncomfortable speaking in front of the whole class might find a smaller group less daunting. If they can speak with the smaller group it may help students gain the confidence to speak in front of the whole class. Think-Pair-Share is a discussion strategy that combines both small group and large group discussion. When given a question students think for a moment then break off into pairs or small groups. They discuss in the small group and then share with the class. If a student is nervous about talking in front of the whole classroom, Think-Pair-Share allows them a chance to practice before talking to the whole class.

**Create Better Discussion**

There are other things the teacher can do to help the discussion go smoothly. If the teacher is leading the discussion it is important to wait. All too often teachers do not give students time to answer before they answer their own questions. The wait time after the question is asked gives students time to process the question and come up with an answer (de Garcia). A teacher could ask a student to lead the discussion or have the students continue the discussion by calling on other students after they speak.

Another thing to improve a discussion is for the teacher to move out of the students’ immediate sight. By sitting in the back of the classroom during the discussion the students are
forced to focus on each other. If the conversation still lulls then
the teacher steps in by asking follow up questions to get the
students talking again. Perhaps guiding the discussion every now
and then the teacher can just let the students build their
discussion on their own. At the end of the discussion, summarize
what was talked about. This provides another reminder of what
material was covered as well as makes the students feel like
their contribution matters.

Strategies for Assessment

There are many well-known assessment strategies for
problem solving and knowledge acquisition but discussion
assessment is not as well known. (Alrozie, Mitchell, 2014). When
people are talking about important things they tend to have
opinions. When they have opinions emotions can get riled up in
a moment. Part of a discussion is learning to keep calm and how
to deal with a situation where others are upset. Discussion also
teaches students to consider the points of view of other people.

This provides a bit of a dilemma when it comes to
assessment. If nothing is assessed students might see the
assignment as unimportant, but if too many things are assessed,
students might see the things being assessed as meaningless.
Traditional assessment is extremely competitive and individual
but discussion requires multiple people working together. If
students are competing against each other they will not be able
to work well as a group. The assessment needs to encourage the
quality learning of material while at the same time discouraging
undesired learning practices. Depending on the assignment and
the assignment goals one form of assessment might be better suited. There is no perfect assessment method. Sometimes no assessment is the best answer. It all depends on the situation and what would be most beneficial to the students.

**Why is This Important?**

Discussion is a tool to be used in the classroom. When it is used correctly it increases students’ enjoyment of the class and strengthens students’ understanding of concepts. It is a tool that needs to be used correctly in order for it to help all of the students in a classroom. Educators can vary group sizes and activities before discussion. During the discussion it is an educator’s job to let the students discuss and when it comes time for assessment there are different strategies for different situations.

3. **Inaugural issue (Dailey, 2014)**

   **Authentic Teaching**

   A popular complaint in high school is “Why do I need to learn this, I’m never going to use this outside of school?” however, this is something that teachers struggle with at every grade level, not just high school. There have been many theories on what should be done to improve students’ “actual learning” not just what they need to memorize for a test. Coming up with projects that apply to the information being taught is a great way to expand their knowledge because they’re not only learning about what the book says.
When we ask students how they came up with their answer, or perhaps what method they used in solving the problem students tend to have a difficult time. The problem doesn’t seem to be the students’ ability to do the work, they just don’t understand the work, and if you learn something without fully understanding it then what’s the point in learning or teaching it at all?

In Newmann and Wehlages’ article *Five Standards of Authentic Instruction*, they discuss the importance of authentic teaching. The first standard stating that students engage in Higher-Order Thinking (HOT) during lessons, this means: “Higher-order thinking (HOT) requires students to manipulate information and ideas in ways that transform their meaning and implications, such as when students combine facts and ideas in order to synthesize, generalize, explain, hypothesize or arrive at some conclusion or interpretation”.

The second standard is Depth of Knowledge, Newmann and Wehlage explain that “knowledge is deep when the (students) make clear distinctions, develop arguments, solve problems, construct explanations…” One way teachers could help with this is by taking on fewer topics and explaining those topics more, giving examples, and going more in-depth so that students can understand each one. Instead teachers are covering multiple topics in a short amount of time and tend to move on before the concept being taught is fully grasped by the students.

Moving on to the third standard which is Connectedness to the World. This standard places importance on applying real-
world situations to in-class learning. Some ways to do this would be to let students talk about real-world problems i.e. the environment or helping the poor. Another way to involve students is to let them discuss their own personal experiences as it relates to the subject being taught.

The fourth standard is Substantive Conversation, the main focus of this standard is to encourage class participation. If there is interaction between teachers and students and/or student to student about the topic, then the information being taught will be better understood and more easily retained. Making this standard beneficial for both students and teachers, students will be able to talk through either what they understand or are having trouble understanding. This benefits teachers by giving them (the teachers) an idea of what they can move on from or if they need to spend more time on a specific topic.

When you consider all of these things it shows that there is hope, that we can teach children something they will remember and understand, not just something they can recite and then promptly forget. If teachers and students alike put more effort into the information/material instead of the almighty test(s) everyone will probably enjoy school a bit more.

4. **Come On, Evaluate Me (Melstrom, 2014)**

**Introduction:**

The simplest description of a teacher is a person who performs the tasks of teaching by showing or explaining how to do something. They explain ideas, concepts, guidelines, and
ways to accomplish assignments or specific responsibilities to
their students. It seems simple enough. All a teacher has to do
is figure out what they need to explain to their students each
day, teach it the best way they see fit and go on worrying about
the next class plan afterwards. But is it really that simple? Does
a teacher have to think about anything else besides what they
are teaching? Do they need to worry about which teaching
tactics work best, how their approachability is reflected in the
classroom, or keeping the class under control and student
behavior? They sure do. The key is to find the best way to hit
those exact areas in addition to effectively teaching.

5. Focus to Improve on More and Better Learning for Students

Doing so helps to manage the risks and makes finding
the motivation easier for reasons not terribly profound. Do care
about how much and how well students learn. It’s part of what
drew most of us to the teaching profession in the first place.
that students grasp new concepts more easily when they are
tied to something students already understand. Students with
organized, enthusiastic, clear, knowledgeable, and stimulating
teachers do learn more. The focus on better teaching has
generated some positive results. The role of the teacher is to
support what students are there to do — learn the material. It’s
a perspective that taps teachers’ intrinsic motivation and
allows more objectivity, so that teachers can thoughtfully
consider the impact of their teaching on student efforts to learn.
6. Creating an Environment of Respect and Rapport

Teaching depends, fundamentally, on the quality of relationships among individuals. When teachers strive to engage students in a discussion or an activity, their interactions with them speak volumes about the extent to which they value students as people. Relationships between teacher and students, and among students, should be grounded in mutual respect and trust.

An essential skill of teaching is that of managing relationships with students and ensuring that those among students are positive and supportive. An important consequence of getting to know one’s students, in addition, teachers learn to respect the wide variety of backgrounds represented by their students and learn to see the world from their students’ perspectives. For some teachers, this requires significant new learning, because ways of showing respect in one culture may be offensive in another.

Teachers create an environment of respect and rapport in their classrooms by the ways they interact with students and by the interaction they encourage and cultivate among students. In a respectful environment, all students feel valued and safe. High levels of respect and rapport are sometimes characterized by friendliness and openness, and frequently by humor,
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GLOSSARY

**Curriculum**, a noun for the subjects comprising a course of study in a school or college, is one of the most important things on the education world

**Classroom assessment** or teacher assessment refers to assessment carried out by teachers in the classroom

**Instructional Technology and Media for Learning**

**Language** is the main mediational tool in all social human learning

**Learning** is the process of developing knowledge and gets skills

**Learning languages** is a notoriously complex business, involving the mastery of several different kinds of knowledge and skill.

**Learning strategies** can improve their autonomy as learners

**Lesson plan** as “a set of activities which represent ‘steps’ along a curriculum before which and after which you have a hiatus (a day or more) in which to evaluate and prepare for the next lesson.

**Learning process** is a process of delivering information, knowledge, information that is formally and informally often occurs at all around us.

**Listening skill** is the first skill that should be mastered by young learners when they learn language besides speaking, reading and writing skill.

**Methodology** is systematic and scientific way of teaching any subject. It guides teacher "How to teach" and "How his teaching may be effective".

**Method** is the process of planning, selection and grading language materials and items, techniques of teaching, etc.
National Qualification Framework Indonesia based curriculum or Kurikulum berbasis Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia (KKNI) will increase the quality of universities’ graduates.

Real-world language problems can seldom be resolved by looking at a single aspect of language.

Syllabus, noun for an outline of the subjects in a course of study or teaching, is not less importance for teaching than curriculum.

Skilled listening is of course, more than successfully segmenting the speech stream.

Speaking consists of producing systematic verbal utterances to convey meaning.

Social media in the world of education is functioned as a function forms of collaboration, friendliness and creativity of its users.

Reading is about understanding written texts.

Teaching is regarded as an intentional activity in which opportunities to learn are provided.

Technology is an effective tool for learners.

Technology Multimedia in teaching English language is one of the best and innovative approaches in language instruction.

The teacher as mediator always tries to be as aware as possible of the learner’s level of understanding – their Current Level of Development (CLD).

The role of the teacher is to lead learners to higher levels of thinking.

Writing activities are usually solitary affairs.