

University of Global Village (UGV), Barisal

Department of English

BA (Hons) Program

Part A

ENG 203: Introduction to English Language Teaching (ELT)

Serial no	Name of the content	Content details
1	Course Code	ENG 203
2	Course Title	Introduction to ELT
3	Course Type	Theory
4	Academic Session	Summer-2023
5	Course Teacher	Md. Ziaul Haque
6	Pre-requisite	N/A
7	Credit value	3
8	Contact hours	34 Hours
9	Total marks	150

Course Summary:

This course provides a foundational overview of teaching English as a second or foreign language. It is designed for aspiring teachers, educators, and those interested in language education. The course covers theoretical and practical aspects of English language teaching, with an emphasis on pedagogy, linguistic principles, and classroom strategies.

Course Learning Outcomes: at the end of the course, the student will be able to-

CLO 1	• Recognizing the key theories and principles of second language acquisition (SLA) and their application to English Language Teaching (ELT).	Remember
CLO 2	• Exhibit an understanding of cultural diversity and its impact on language teaching and learning and adapting teaching approaches to suit various educational settings (e.g., EFL, ESL, and ESP).	Understand
CLO 3	• Applying different teaching methodologies, such as the Grammar-Translation Method, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and Task-Based Learning (TBL), to classroom practice.	Apply

CLO 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analyze the linguistic features of the English language (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation) and develop strategies for effectively teaching these components. 	Analyze
CLO 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Evaluate interpersonal and communication skills to engage with learners and peers to share best practices and develop innovative teaching strategies. 	Evaluate
CLO 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Create lesson plans that align with specific learning objectives and cater to diverse learner needs. 	Create

Course Outline

SN	Topics	Teaching-learning Strategies	Assessment Strategy	Alignment to CLO
Week-1	ELT- Introduction, History, Method, and Methodology: Defining method and methodology	Lecture, explaining on board, showing PPT	Quiz, Oral Test	CLO-1
Week-2	GT method: Objective key feature, technique drawback, usefulness	Lecture, explaining on board, showing PPT	Individual or Group Presentation	CLO-1
Week-3	Direct method: Objective, key feature Technique, advantage, limitation	Lecture, explaining on board, showing PPT	Assignment, Report Writing	CLO-3
Week-4	Audio-lingual method: Objective, key feature Technique, strength weakness	Lecture, explaining on board and video presentation		CLO-2
Week-5	Situational Language Teaching: Approach objective, design, Syllabus, role of teachers and students, procedure	Lecture, explaining on board and video presentation	Written Test	CLO-4
Week-6	CLT: Background, theory, objective, features, technique, syllabus, teacher and student's role	Lecture, explaining on board and video presentation	Quiz, Oral Test	CLO-4
Week-7	CLT: CLT in Bangladesh: Problem and prospect History of ELT in Bangladesh	Lecture, explaining on board, video presentation, group and pair work	Individual or Group Presentation	CLO-3
Week-8	Task-based approach: Nature of task, stage of lesson, advantage, and limitation	Presentation, group and pair work	Assignment, Report Writing	
Week-9	Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)	Lecture, group, and pair work	Written test	CLO-4

Week-10	Class teaching: Large class, Mixed class, Group work, Whole class activities, teaching technique	Lecture, explain in on board, pair works	Quiz, Oral Test	CLO-6
Week-11	Syllabus, and Curriculum: Definition, Types, Characteristics and Differences	Lecture, explain in on board, pair works	Individual or Group Presentation	CLO-6
Week-12	Syllabus, and Curriculum: Different types of Syllabus	Lecture, explain in on board, pair works	Assignment, Report Writing	
Week-13	Material production: Reason and criteria of evaluating material need analysis, Reason, and Technique of Adaptation	Lecture, explain in on board, pair works		CLO-5
Week-14	Testing and evaluation: Defining, Objective, types, and Quality of test, test formation Validity, reliability	Lecture, explain in on board, pair works	Written Test	CLO-5

Assessment and Evaluation

ASSESSMENT PATTERN

Assignment:

The topic or case studies will be given as assignments during the class which they have to prepare at home and will submit on or before the due date. No late submission of assignments will be accepted. Students will have to do a presentation on the given topic.

Quizzes:

One Quiz Test will be taken during the semester after completing any particular topic. No makeup quiz test will be taken. Students are strongly recommended not to miss that test.

Viva-Voce:

At the end of the semester, the students must appear before a board of faculty from their course, who will assess them on topics they have covered. The department may invite external faculty to assess the students.

PPT Presentation

Students will be asked for PPT of the given topics by the teacher. This PPT can be either individual or group wise. Students will be also asked to give short lecture on any given topic.

CIE- Continuous Internal Evaluation (90 marks)

Bloom's Category Marks (out of 90)	Tests (45)	Assignments (15)	Quizzes (15)	Attendance & Class Performance (15)
Remember	15		05	5
Understand	10		10	5
Apply	1	10		
Analyze	09			
Evaluate	08	05		
Create				5

SMEE- Semester Mid & End Examination (105 Marks)

Bloom's Category	Test
Remember	10
Understand	20
Apply	30
Analyze	20
Evaluate	10
Create	15

6. Evaluation:

Grades will be calculated as per the university grading structure and individual student will be evaluated based on the following criteria with respective weights.

1. Quizzes	10%
2. Group Assignments	10%
3. Class Participation	10%
4. Term Examination	70%
Total	100%

Part D

Learning Materials

Textbook & Learning Resources:

Texts: Hans H Stern, *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*, 1983.

And IC Richards and TS Rodgers, *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*, 2nd Edition, 2014

Department of English, UGV

Course Title: Introduction to ELT, Course Code: ENG-203

6th Semester

Week-1

What is methodology? An essential guide

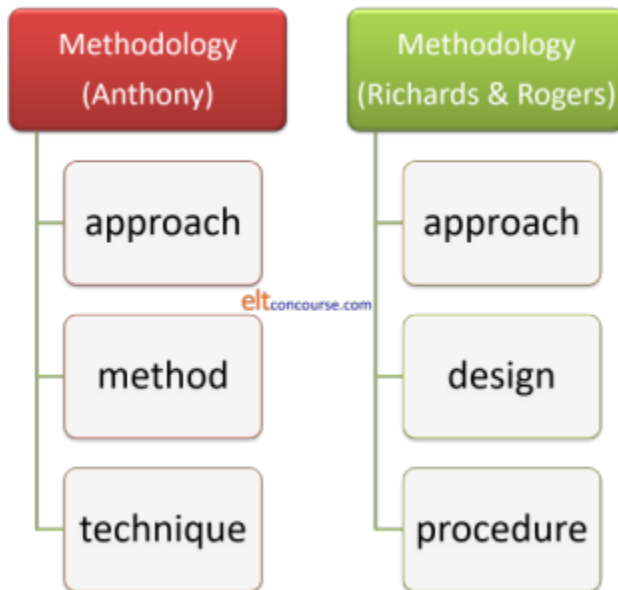


Methodology: *a way of getting from here to there*

A dictionary definition of methodology is *a system of methods used in a particular area of study or activity*

This is a very brief guide. For more in this area, see the list of related guides, linked at the end.

There are two common ways to define methodology in English Language Teaching and, graphically, this is how they look:



The left-hand set was developed by Anthony in 1963. The right-hand set was developed from Anthony's definition later and appears in Richards and Rogers, 2001. Briefly:

Approach

For Anthony, an approach was simply a set of principles or ideas about the nature of language learning. For Richards and Rogers it was similar but explicitly divided into theories of what language is and theories of how learning a foreign language happens. The second of these definitions has the advantage of being quite explicit.

Method or Design

In this section are lesson designs such as Present–Practice–Produce or Test–Teach–Test. Those are not methods, they are ways of structuring lessons within methods. For Anthony, method described the plan for the presentation of language which is consistent with the approach.

Richards and Rogers' concept of design is somewhat broader and covered the practical implications in the classroom: syllabus design, activities and the roles of teachers and students. These are not all that different but again, the latter one is more explicit.

Technique or Procedure

Technique, for Anthony, was just any teaching trick or way of doing something in the classroom such as eliciting, approaching a reading text, encouraging authentic speaking, drills and so on. For Richards and Rogers, too, the term procedure refers to what we see happening in the classroom when a particular approach and design are implemented.

It actually doesn't matter all that much which breakdown you accept. Both are fairly arbitrary and subjective ways of breaking down a complex area.



Methodology in practice

It is worth pointing out that not all methodologies will fit neatly into the categories above. For example, Communicative Language Teaching, the current dominant methodology, has a good theory of language but little to say concerning a theory of learning. Some earlier methodologies such as Situational Language Teaching were similarly deficient but some, audio-lingualism, for example, had very clear theories both of what language actually is and how people learn languages.

The extent to which, if at all, the various models and concepts of language and learning actually reflect reality is, of course, quite another matter.

It is, however, often quite possible to work backwards from what is observed in the classroom (techniques and procedures) and deduce the approach a teacher favors or to work from the materials an institution uses (the method or design) to see what principles (the approach) the institution is favoring. The Delta examination, e.g., explicitly asks you to do that.



What is not methodology

It is common for some ways of doing things to be referred to as method or methodology but this is to misunderstand the terms as they are used in our field. In non-technical language, of course, method just means a way of doing something but that is not how it should be used in ELT. For example:

- Structuring a lesson along the lines of Test > Teach > Test or Presentation > Practice > Production is not to use a methodology. It is simply a way to arrange procedures and tasks in a lesson. Both these structures can inhabit very different methodologies.
- Taking an inductive approach in which learners are asked to figure out the patterns and rules from language examples or a deductive approach in which learners are given the rule and asked to apply it

to language are just ways to approach making things learnable and accessible. Neither qualifies as a methodology.

- Making lessons learner centered by, for example, negotiating the syllabus with the learners, making feedback routines come from the class rather than the teacher or encouraging peer-teaching and peer-correction does not count as a methodology. It may be an approach to classroom management but it is not a methodology.
- Even approaches taken by people who claim to be employing a methodology may not really qualify. Dogme, for example, is an approach to teaching which sits comfortably within Communicative Language Teaching so it is probably better described as an approach to lesson design rather than grandly calling it a methodology. Task-Based Learning and Teaching is another example of something often called a methodology but one that fits more comfortably into Anthony's concept of a Method or Richards and Rogers' category of Design because the methodology into which it fits is clearly communicative.

History of English Language Teaching

Dimitrios Thanasoulas

The changing winds and shifting sands in the history of ELT

Introduction

The English language teaching tradition has been subject to tremendous change, especially throughout the twentieth century. Perhaps more than any other discipline, this tradition has been practiced, in various adaptations, in language classrooms all around the world for centuries. While the teaching of Maths or Physics, that is, the methodology of teaching Maths or Physics, has, to a greater or lesser extent, remained the same, this is hardly the case with English or language teaching in general. As will become evident in this short paper, there are some milestones in the development of this tradition, which we will briefly touch upon, in an attempt to reveal the importance of research in the selection and implementation of the optimal methods and techniques for language teaching and learning.

The Classical Method

In the Western world back in the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries, foreign language learning was associated with the learning of Latin and Greek, both supposed to promote their speakers' intellectuality. At the time, it was of vital importance to focus on grammatical rules, syntactic structures, along with rote

memorisation of vocabulary and translation of literary texts. There was no provision for the oral use of the languages under study; after all, both Latin and Greek were not being taught for oral communication but for the sake of their speakers' becoming "scholarly?" or creating an illusion of "erudition." Late in the nineteenth century, the Classical Method came to be known as the Grammar Translation Method, which offered very little beyond an insight into the grammatical rules attending the process of translating from the second to the native language.

It is widely recognised that the Grammar Translation Method is still one of the most popular and favourite models of language teaching, which has been rather stalwart and impervious to educational reforms, remaining a standard and sine qua non methodology. With hindsight, we could say that its contribution to language learning has been lamentably limited, since it has shifted the focus from the real language to a "dissected body" of nouns, adjectives, and prepositions, doing nothing to enhance a student's communicative ability in the foreign language.

Gouin and Berlitz – The Direct Method

The last two decades of the nineteenth century ushered in a new age. In his *The Art of Learning and Studying Foreign Languages* (1880), Francois Gouin described his "harrowing" experiences of learning German, which helped him gain insights into the intricacies of language teaching and learning. Living in Hamburg for one year, he attempted to master the German language by dint of memorising a German grammar book and a list of the 248 irregular German verbs, instead of conversing with the natives. Exulting in the security that the grounding in German grammar offered him, he hastened to go to the University to test his knowledge. To no avail. He could not understand a word! After his failure, he decided to memorise the German roots, but with no success. He went so far as to memorise books, translate Goethe and Schiller, and learn by heart 30,000 words in a dictionary, only to meet with failure. Upon returning to France, Gouin discovered that his three-year-old nephew had managed to become a chatterbox of French – a fact that made him think that the child held the secret to learning a language. Thus, he began observing his nephew and came to the conclusion (arrived at by another researcher a

century before him!) that language learning is a matter of transforming perceptions into conceptions and then using language to represent these conceptions. Equipped with this knowledge, he devised a teaching method premised upon these insights. It was against this background that the Series Method was created, which taught learners directly a “series” of connected sentences that are easy to understand. For instance,

I stretch out my arm. I take hold of the handle. I turn the handle. I open the door. I pull the door.

Nevertheless, this approach to language learning was short-lived and, only a generation later, gave place to the Direct Method, posited by Charles Berlitz. The basic tenet of Berlitz’s method was that second language learning is similar to first language learning. In this light, there should be lots of oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no translation, and little if any analysis of grammatical rules and syntactic structures. In short, the principles of the Direct Method were as follows:

- Classroom instruction was conducted in the target language
- There was an inductive approach to grammar
- Only everyday vocabulary was taught
- Concrete vocabulary was taught through pictures and objects, while abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas

The Audiolingual Method

The outbreak of World War II heightened the need for Americans to become orally proficient in the languages of their allies and enemies alike. To this end, bits and pieces of the Direct Method were appropriated in order to form and support this new method, the “Army Method,” which came to be known in the 1950s as the Audiolingual Method.

The Audiolingual Method was based on linguistic and psychological theory and one of its main premises was the scientific descriptive analysis of a wide assortment of languages. On the other hand, conditioning and habit-formation models of learning put forward by behaviouristic psychologists

were married with the pattern practices of the Audiolingual Method. The following points sum up the characteristics of the method:

- Dependence on mimicry and memorisation of set phrases
- Teaching structural patterns by means of repetitive drills (??Repetitio est mater studiorum??)
- No grammatical explanation
- Learning vocabulary in context
- Use of tapes and visual aids
- Focus on pronunciation
- Immediate reinforcement of correct responses

But its popularity waned after 1964, partly because of Wilga Rivers's exposure of its shortcomings. It fell short of promoting communicative ability as it paid undue attention to memorisation and drilling, while downgrading the role of context and world knowledge in language learning. After all, it was discovered that language was not acquired through a process of habit formation and errors were not necessarily bad or pernicious.

The “Designer” Methods of the 1970s

The Chomskyan revolution in linguistics drew the attention of linguists and language teachers to the “deep structure” of language, while psychologists took account of the affective and interpersonal nature of learning. As a result, new methods were proposed, which attempted to capitalise on the importance of psychological factors in language learning. David Nunan (1989: 97) referred to these methods as “designer” methods, on the grounds that they took a “one-size-fits-all” approach. Let us have a look at two of these “designer” methods.

Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia promised great results if we use our brain power and inner capacities. Lozanov (1979) believed that we are capable of learning much

more than we think. Drawing upon Soviet psychological research on yoga and extrasensory perception, he came up with a method for learning that used relaxation as a means of retaining new knowledge and material. It stands to reason that music played a pivotal role in his method. Lozanov and his followers tried to present vocabulary, readings, role-plays and drama with classical music in the background and students sitting in comfortable seats. In this way, students became “suggestible.”

Of course, suggestopedia offered valuable insights into the “superlearning” powers of our brain but it was demolished on several fronts. For instance, what happens if our classrooms are bereft of such amenities as comfortable seats and Compact Disk players? Certainly, this method is insightful and constructive and can be practised from time to time, without necessarily having to adhere to all its premises. A relaxed mind is an open mind and it can help a student to feel more confident and, in a sense, pliable.

The Silent Way

The Silent Way rested on cognitive rather than affective arguments, and was characterised by a problem-solving approach to learning. Gattegno (1972) held that it is in learners’ best interests to develop independence and autonomy and cooperate with each other in solving language problems. The teacher is supposed to be silent – hence the name of the method – and must disabuse himself of the tendency to explain everything to them.

The Silent Way came in for an onslaught of criticism. More specifically, it was considered very harsh, as the teacher was distant and, in general lines, the classroom environment was not conducive to learning.

Strategies-based instruction

The work of O’Malley and Chamot (1990), and others before and after them, emphasised the importance of style awareness and strategy development in ensuring mastery of a foreign language. In this vein, many textbooks and entire syllabi offered guidelines on constructing strategy-building activities.

Below there is an example of a list of the “Ten Commandments” for good language learning (taken from Brown, H. D. [2000: 137]):

	Teacher’s Version	Learner’s Version
1	Lower inhibitions	Fear not!
2	Encourage risk-taking	Dive in
3	Build self-confidence	Believe in yourself
4	Develop intrinsic motivation	Seize the day
5	Engage in cooperative learning	Love thy neighbour
6	Use right-brain processes	Get the BIG picture
7	Promote ambiguity tolerance	Cope with the chaos
8	Practice intuition	Go with your hunches
9	Process error feedback	Make mistakes work FOR you
10	Set personal goals	Set your own goals

These suggestions cum injunctions are able to sensitise learners to the importance of attaining autonomy, that is, taking charge of their own learning, and not expecting the teacher to deliver everything to them.

Communicative Language Teaching

The need for communication has been relentless, leading to the emergence of the Communicative Language Teaching. Having defined and redefined the construct of communicative competence; having explored the vast array of functions of language that learners are supposed to be able to accomplish; and having probed the nature of styles and nonverbal communication, teachers and researchers are now better equipped to teach (about) communication through actual communication, not merely theorising about it.

At this juncture, we should say that Communicative Language Teaching is not a method; it is an approach, which transcends the boundaries of concrete

methods and, concomitantly, techniques. It is a theoretical position about the nature of language and language learning and teaching.

Let us see the basic premises of this approach:

- Focus on all of the components of communicative competence, not only grammatical or linguistic competence. Engaging learners in the pragmatic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes
- Viewing fluency and accuracy as complementary principles underpinning communicative techniques
- Using the language in unrehearsed contexts

Conclusion

From all the above we can see that the manageable stockpile of research of just a few decades ago has given place to a systematic storehouse of information. Researchers all over the world are meeting, talking, comparing notes, and arriving at some explanations that give the lie to past explanations. As Brown (2000: ix) notes, "Our research miscarriages are fewer as we have collectively learned how to conceive the right questions". Nothing is taken as gospel; nothing is thrown out of court without being put to the test. This "test" may always change its mechanics, but the fact remains that the changing winds and shifting sands of time and research are turning the desert into a longed-for oasis.

Department of English, UGV

Course Title: Introduction to ELT, Course Code: ENG-203

6th Semester

Week-2

Grammar Translation Method- Meaning, Merits, Demerits & Techniques

Grammar Translation Method is a method of learning any foreign language by the practice of translating or converting the sentences of the native language into the target language or vice versa. In GTM classes, students learn [grammar rules](#) of the foreign language and try to apply those rules to the native language to convert it into the foreign one.

Advanced classes of GTM enable students to convert the whole paragraph even, word to word, and to advance their intellectual development. Basically, learning any foreign languages and mental discipline and Language translation has a goal of enabling the students to learn the foreign literature in its original form. In this article, the concept of the grammar translation method will be discussed and some techniques or approaches used in translation will be thoroughly explained.

Characteristics of GTM:-

- It helps to learn a foreign language and its correct [sentence structure](#).
- Allows the students to be able to read and write a new language.
- To enable students to use interchangeable words and phrases.
- They get to learn new vocabulary and new words.
- It does not enable students' skills in listening and speaking of foreign language.
- GTM classes are primarily conducted in the mother tongue.
- Focus on pronunciation and communication aspects is lesser than reading and writing.

The procedure of Grammar Translate Method –

1. In the first step, a paragraph is read by a teacher, and some difficult words are marked out of it.
2. Secondly, these marked words are converted into the native language of students.
3. Then, a paragraph is read once again and is translated by a teacher, line by line.
4. Then all the Grammatical items are taught about to students.
5. Students can also be asked to convert the passage of their native language into a foreign language to make it more clear to them.

Merits of Grammar Translation Method

- It makes the concept more clear and new words, [phrases](#), and vocabulary is introduced.
- Learning gets easy as the conduction is done in the native language.
- It promotes the skills of reading and writing effectively.
- For class conduction, very less teacher material aid is needed and also, this method can be taught in overcrowded classes.
- Students feel comfortable as the [mother tongue](#) is used to teach any foreign language and they are free to ask the questions in between.

Demerits of Grammar Translation Method

- One of the major disadvantages of GTM is that it restricts the skills of speaking and listening to a foreign language.
- The natural order of learning any language is listening, speaking, reading, and writing. But, in GTM, [reading](#) is facilitated first.

- Proper conversational skills in a foreign language still remain a hurdle.
- GTM focuses on formal and bookish [grammar rules](#). So it does not enhance proper learning of the foreign language.
- It takes time to translate each and every word under GTM as students are well versed in their mother tongue and they need time to think to Translate.

Techniques of GTM

1. Filling the blanks

The teacher gives the exercises of some sentences or passages where some blanks will be there and students are asked to fill that missing words as per their own knowledge of translation or [vocabulary](#) of the foreign language.

These blanks can be out of the literary texts or the chapter which has been taught by the teacher previously.

2. Use words in sentences

This is a very common technique where the teacher gives some new words from the vocabulary to the students and students will be asked to make new sentences by using that word in their sentence. It is generally called making sentences.

In this, the students are judged whether they have understood the new word correctly or whether they use the word in the sentence correctly or not.

3. Topic composition

In this technique, students are asked to write any passage on the given topic by the teacher. They will be expected to write a few lines about the topic.

4. Passage translation

In contrast to the previous point, a passage or a piece of text will be provided to the students and they will be asked to translate that whole passage, word to word, in their notebooks via writing or speaking.

The main aim of passage translation is to make them understand that the grammar of the native language and foreign language is different and the word usage should be accurately done.

5. Comprehension questions

This technique is generally used in teaching any foreign language. In this, an unseen passage will be given to the students out of which they will be asked some questions and they are expected to answer those questions in their native language or the foreign language whatever they want.

The main purpose of this technique is to find out whether the students are able to translate the passage in their language and able to find out the answers.

6. Word meanings

The grammar translation method can never be complete without the knowledge of proper vocabulary and some important words of the foreign language. So this is one of the techniques where the teacher makes the students memorize all the difficult vocabulary on their own and students are expected to learn those words in order to

translate them if they are found out in the lines anywhere in the texts of foreign language.

7. Inference building

This is again, one of the common and widely used practices by the teachers to teach grammar translation methods to the students. In this technique, again, a literary text will be provided to the students out of their books. They will be asked to write the central idea of the passage in their own words.

In this way, they will be able to translate the passage and they can write something in foreign language in their own words too.

8. Summary writing

Similar to the previous point, a chapter will be discussed among the students in the mother tongue. At the end of the chapter, students will be given the exercise of writing a summary of that story or chapter. It is one of the common techniques to teach GTM to the students and it is widely accepted.

Just like writing a central idea, the summary is much more than that. It aids the students in translating and writing the text in a foreign language in their own words.

Criticisms

GTM is not away from criticisms too. Many authors and literary heads have condemned this approach as they believed that, this method just facilitates reading and writing skills but does not focus on conversational skills.

It also makes the students dull and boring as they get habitual of translating each line word by word and do not get quick in translation. This method also takes much time to translate.

Moreover, despite learning the vocabulary of a new language, they will not be much able to communicate with others as they only know how to write and take time for it. That's why, I hear many of the students saying, "mam, can we write instead of speaking?"

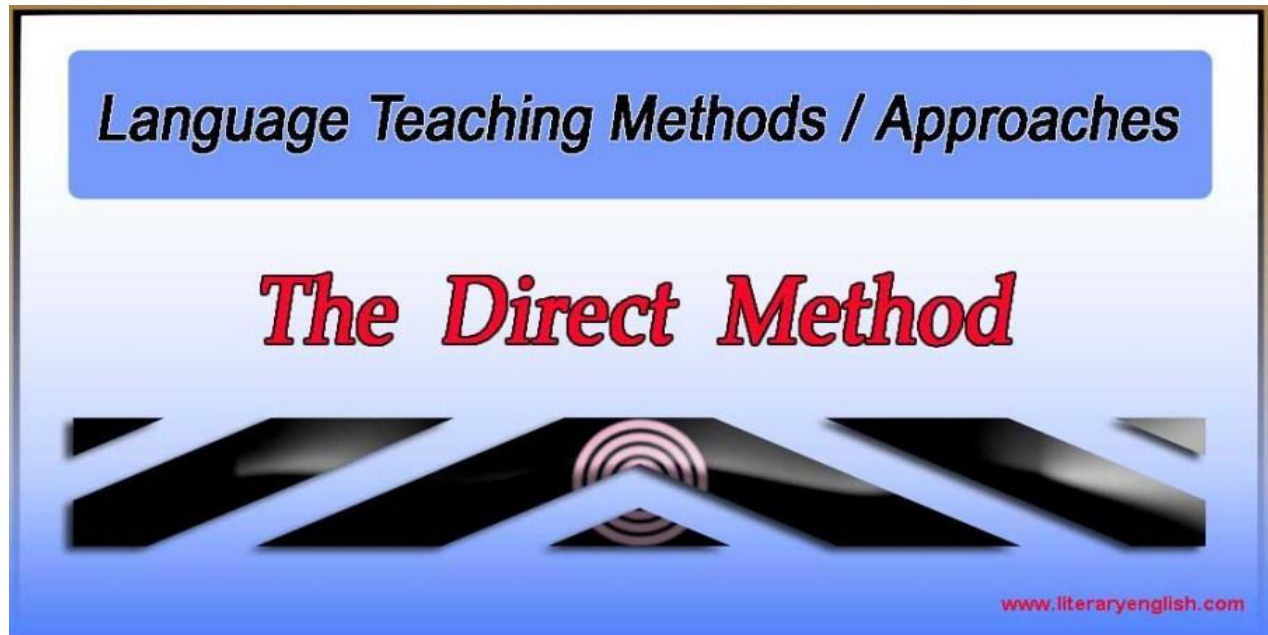
Conclusion

GTM is nothing but a method of teaching any foreign language in its simplest way. It is one of the oldest methods used since ages to teach Latin or Greek languages and now, modern languages too. English as a foreign language can be easily learned with this method.

Students can also enroll now in [BDS Online IELTS Preparation Course](#) today where you will get access to anytime/anywhere IELTS classes, with 400+ detailed video lectures, sample papers, and live classes by Dr. Roma. Candidates can also sign up for [IELTS Dr. Roma Writing Templates + Cue Cards Course](#) to get ready essay templates and solutions latest IELTS essay topics. So let's get started with IELTS writing practice.

Department of English, UGV

Course Title: Introduction to ELT, Course Code: ENG-203
6th Semester
Week-3



Direct Method | Language Teaching Method

Grammar Translation Method was one of the old-fashioned language teaching methods. With the passage of time, this method was no more effective. During the last decade of the 19th century, a new language teaching method emerged. Because GTM had failed to meet the language teaching requirements of modern society where multiple disciplines were in practice. The failure of GTM led to the creation of the **Direct Method**. This method focused on the ability to use language rather than to analyze as the goal of language teaching.

The Direct Method was started in France and Germany around 1900. It replaced the Grammar Translation Method and other traditional methods and approaches. Moreover, it replaced C. J. Dodson's bilingual method of language teaching. International language schools like Inlingua and Berlitz also adopted direct language teaching methods.

Why Direct Method Replaced GTM?

The Grammar Translation Method was based on a set of specific rigid rules: dictation, cramming of rules, translation, and writing. The major drawback in GTM was lack of practical use of target language. There was no practice of spoken language and as a result; learners were good at reading and able to write sentences but they were unable to use that language in spoken context.

Main Focus of Direct Method

In Direct Method, spoken word was given primacy. The students were taught in the target language. Instruction material was presented orally with help of actions and pictures.

instead of printed form. Learners were not allowed to use their mother/native language to learn the target language. The most important aspect of language learning in Direct Method was the practice of culture in a true sense.

Aims of the Direct Method

- The proponents of DMT believe that language learners should practice target language directly, in the same way as they learned their mother tongue without assistance of any other language.
- DMT basic aim was to make direct interaction of learners to the target language.
- It focuses on making a relation between rule and performance, experience and language, and, thought and expression.
- It aims to learn how to communicate in the target language.
- No more excessive dictation and translation
- No memorizing of rigid grammar rules but concepts are to be taught by means of objects or contexts.
- Reading and writing is practiced with help of oral/verbal instructions.
- It builds listening and speaking competency.
- Grammar is to be taught indirectly rather than cramming of rules.

Activities of Direct Method Teaching in a Language Classroom

- In Direct Method, teacher points to a picture (for learning vocabulary) or makes a gesture (to demonstrate an action) to make sure that learners understand clearly.
- Then teacher introduce that element verbally. (With loud and accurate pronunciation)
- After listening teacher's pronunciation, learners try to pronounce same words.
- Teacher corrects learner's mistakes, pointing to articulatory gestures to show proper shaping of articulators.
- Students repeats same element at the time until they became familiar with it.
- Then teacher introduces the correct use of new element in sentence.
- Teacher makes an example of that element in a sentence or in a phrase.
- Students also practice it to use it in a sentence.
- When learners become familiar with the element, Teacher asks them different questions using that element making yes/no questions or interrogatives.
- ASK & REPLY IN NEGATIVE
- Teacher uses Element in negative situations (e.g. "Are you the President of the United States?" or "Are you the teacher?"); Students says "No". If more advanced, may use the negative with "Not".
- Finally, teacher observes learners carefully for mental stress. If learners become saturate, teacher stops the lesson.
- Teacher review the lesson in a light mood by showing some visuals to release mental stress.

Department of English, UGV

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6th Semester

Week-4

The Audio-lingual Method

Definition

The Audio-lingual Method (also known as the *army method*, the *aural-oral method*, or the *new key*), is a method of foreign language teaching in which the students learn language by repeating/imitating the recurring patterns/dialogues of everyday situations by a succession of drills. The Audio-lingual Method strongly dominated the field of education in the 1950s and 1960s.

Background

First Phase

World War II suddenly necessitated the United States to produce a band of orally proficient speakers of different foreign languages. The US government then commissioned the American universities to develop a special language course for the army officials that would focus on aural or oral skills. This project was established in 1942 and labeled as the **Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP)**. The method was also known as the Informant Method since it employed a native speaker of the language, the informant, and a linguist. The informant served as a source of language for imitation, and the linguist supervised the learning experience. Due to its association with the army, the method, later on, came to be known as the **Army Method**.

Second Phase

Towards the end of the 1950s, there had been an increased attention to foreign language teaching in educational institutions. Therefore, the educational planners came forward to develop a new method of language teaching. This need for change was materialized as per the classroom needs of American colleges and universities. The planners modeled their method based on the Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP), the Structural Linguistics and the [Behaviourist Theory](#). This combination of the trio of approaches led to the development of the **Audio-lingual Method** (a term coined by professor Nelson Brooks in 1964), which was widely adopted for teaching foreign languages in North American colleges and universities.

Characteristics

The basic distinctive features of the Audio-lingual Method are as follows:

Approach

The theoretical bases behind the Audio-lingual Method are as follows:

Theory of language: The theory of language underlying the Audio-lingual Method is Structuralism. According to the structural view, language has the following characteristics:

1. Speech is more basic to language than the written form.

2. Language structure and form are more significant than meaning.
3. Elements in a language are produced in a rule-governed (structural) way.
4. Language samples could be exhaustively described at any structural level of description.
5. Language is structural like a pyramid, that is, the linguistic level is a system within a system.
6. Languages are different since every language has its own unique system.

Theory of Learning: The theory of learning underlying the Audio-lingual Method is Behaviorism, including the following principles:

1. Human beings learn language in the same way as other habits are learned through the process of training or conditioning.
2. As language learning is a process of habit formation, repetition leads to stronger habit formation and greater learning.
3. The learning of a foreign language should be the same as the acquisition of the native language.
4. The habits of the native language will interfere with target language learning.
5. Language cannot be separated from culture as culture represents the everyday behaviour of the people who use the target language.
6. Language learning is the outcome of stimulus (what is taught) – response (learner's reaction to what is being taught) – reinforcement (approval or disapproval of the teacher) chain.
7. Positive reinforcement helps the students to develop correct habits.
8. Mistakes should be avoided as they help to form bad habits.
9. Analogy is a better foundation for language learning than analysis.

Design

The design of the Audio-lingual Method is materialised through the following considerations:

Objectives: The objectives of the Audio-lingual Method are as follows:

1. To enable the students to learn how to use English in everyday oral communication.
2. To encourage the students to produce utterances with accurate pronunciation and grammar.
3. To grow the students' ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations like native speakers.

The syllabus: The Audio-lingual Method follows a [Structural Syllabus](#).

Learner Roles: In the Audio-lingual method the students play a passive role as they don't have any control over the content or the method of learning. The students are mere imitators of the teacher's model. Their sole objective is to follow the teacher's direction and respond as precisely and as promptly as possible.

Teacher Roles: In the Audio-lingual Method the teacher has an active role as he is the sole authority to control and direct the whole learning programme. He monitors and corrects the students' performance. He is also responsible for providing the students with a good model for imitation. The teacher endeavours to keep the students attentive by varying drills and tasks and choosing relevant situations to practice structures.

The Role of Teaching/Learning Materials: In the Audio-lingual Method the materials are predominantly teacher-oriented. The instructional materials basically contains the structured sequence of lessons to be followed, the dialogues, drills, and other practice activities, which would hopefully enable the teacher to develop language mastery in the student.

Technique/Procedure

Typically, the audio-lingual method proceeds through drills or pattern practice. It gives overemphasis on pattern practice since it conditions the students to form habits of correct responses. The teacher strictly conducts, guides and controls the students' behavior in the target language. New vocabulary and structural patterns are presented through sentences/dialogues. The teacher presents the correct model of a sentence/dialogue and the students endeavor to repeat it again and again until they achieve the same accuracy. The students' successful responses are positively reinforced. The teacher allows limited use of mother tongue in the classroom so that the students can learn the target language without any interference from the native language system. In this model, the natural order of skill acquisition is sequenced as listening → speaking → reading → writing. The theory basically concentrates on listening and speaking skills. But it is also true that the oral skills receive most of the attention. The learner's reading and written work is based upon the oral work they did earlier. In the process of pattern practice, the learner first acquires the structural patterns and then the vocabulary items. The grammar rules are taught through examples and drills, but no explicit grammar rules are provided. The vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in the context. Therefore, it is clear that the lessons in the Audio-lingual Method are chiefly built on drills. Generally, the drills are conducted based upon the patterns present in the dialogue:

Repetition Drill: The teacher utters a dialogue and asks the students to listen carefully. The students then try to replicate the dialogue as accurately and as quickly as possible.

Replacement Drill: The teacher utters a dialogue and the students try to repeat the dialogue by replacing a phrase or clause by one word. For instance:

Teacher: I broke the flower vase accidentally.

Students: I broke it accidentally.

Restatement Drill: The teacher says a dialogue and in response the students rephrase it. For example:

Teacher: Tell me to slice the bread.

Students: Slice the bread.

Expansion Drill: The teacher says a dialogue and the students respond by adding a new word in a certain place in the sentence. For Example:

Teacher: I get up early. (always).

Students: I always get up early.

Inflection Drill: In such a drill the students repeat the teacher's utterance by changing the form of a word. For example:

Teacher: I drafted the letter.
Student: I drafted the letters.

Chain Drill: Such a drill features a conversation between the students in a circular sitting around the classroom. The teacher initiates the chain conversation by asking a particular student a question. The student responds and turns to the student next to him. In this way, the students continue the conversation by asking and answering questions to each other.

Transposition Drill: This drill enables the students to be able to change the word order in a sentence when a new word is added. For example:

Teacher: I'm not going to come with you.
Student: Neither am I.

Transformation: The teacher says a dialogue and asks the students to change the form of the sentence, such as an affirmative sentence into a negative or an active sentence into a passive. For example:

Teacher: This is my car (affirmative).
Student: This is not my car (negative).

Dialogue Completion Drill: The teacher says an incomplete dialogue by erasing some words that the students learned earlier. The students then try to complete the dialogue with the missing words. For instance:

Teacher: I ____ never seen such a ____ scenery before.
Students: I have never seen such a beautiful scenery before.

Grammar Games: The teacher sometimes creates an opportunity for the students to practice the newly learned grammatical materials through different games. The games help the students to practice grammar elements in context, although in a limited scope.

Question-and-answer Drill: In this drill, the teacher asks questions and the students try to answer the teacher's question very quickly.

Contrastive Analysis: It is the comparison between the students' native language and the target language. This drill enables the teacher to find out where the students will feel troubled by the interference from the target language.

Use of Minimal Pairs: The teacher familiarizes the students with pair of words which differ in only one sound. For example, alter/altar. The teacher asks the students to find the difference in meaning between the two words.

Integration Drill: The teacher says two separate sentences and the students then combine them into one sentence. For example:

Teacher: I fed the dog./ The dog was very hungry.
Students: I fed the dog which was very hungry.

Single-slot Substitution Drill: The teacher utters a dialogue and also says a word or phrase as a

cue. The students repeat the dialogue by using the cue in appropriate place.

Multiple-slot Substitution Drill: The teacher utters a dialogue and also provides more than one cues. The students repeat the cues in suitable places in the dialogue with necessary changes.

Restoration Drill: Students create a sentence from a sequence of separate words. For example:

Teacher: ran/away/man.

Students: The man ran away.

Advantages

1. This is the first language learning method which is grounded on a solid theory of language learning.
2. This method emphasizes the everyday cultural traits of the target language.
3. It provides the opportunity to learn correct pronunciation and structure.
4. This method made it possible to teach large groups of learners.
5. It puts stress on listening and speaking skills.

Disadvantages

1. The theoretical foundation of the Audio-lingual Method suffers from inadequacy.
2. It is a mechanical method since it demands pattern practice, drilling, memorization or over-learning.
3. It is a teacher dominated method.
4. Here, the learners have a passive role, since they have little control over their learning.
5. This method does not put equal emphasis on the four basic skills, such as listening, speaking, reading and writing.
6. It considers only language form, not meaning.
7. This method does not pay sufficient attention to communicative competence.
8. It prefers accuracy to fluency.

Conclusion

The acceptability of this theory mainly lies in its solid theoretical base. This is also the first language learning method to consider the learner's communicative competence to a certain extent. Despite these positive traits, the theory declined in practice for its dearth of scientific credibility. However, the theory exerted a major influence on the upcoming teaching methods and still continues to be used today in language teaching methodology, although in a limited scope.

Department of English, UGV
Course Title: Introduction to ELT, Course Code: ENG-203
6th Semester
Week-5

Communicative Language Teaching

1. An approach to language teaching
2. Emphasis on interaction
3. The study of “authentic texts” written in the Target Language (TL)
4. Use of the TL both in class and outside of class
5. Much more clinical method that depends on direct communication

Brief history

Noam Chomsky's theory 'communicative competence' gave rise to CLT. The CLT was the product of the dissatisfaction of the educators and linguists for earlier GTM, SLT and ALM. It got developed especially by the British linguist Michael Halliday in 1970s as an approach to communicative language teaching based on interaction. To put it differently, is also a reactional process or style of TL teaching.

Objectives or goals

1. Developing oral or verbal skills prior to reading and writing
2. To face the changeable situations of real life
3. Discovering meaningful teaching ways about meaningful topics
4. Achieving perfect communicative competence

Pillars of CLT

British linguist Michael Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) was one of the pillars of CLT. Halliday identifies seven functions that language has for children in their early years.

1. **Instrumental:** In this stage, children use language to express their needs. For example: water, want juice etc.
2. **Regulatory:** Children order others to do work in this stage such as 'go away'.
3. **Interactional:** Here in stage, language is used to contact others and form relationships. As for example: Love you, mummy.

4. **Personal:** Personal stage of CLT focuses on expressing the feelings, opinions and individual identity. For an instance: Me good girl.
5. **Heuristic:** This stage is called knowledge gaining stage through observation and questioning. In that place: What are you doing?
6. **Imaginative:** Here in this stage, language is used to tell stories or jokes. To put it differently, it means creating imaginative environment.
7. **Representational:** Representational stage refers to convey facts and information.

Syllabus of CLT

British linguist D. A. Wilkins was the pioneer or proponent of the syllabus of CLT. According him, national functional syllabus must be the syllabus of CLT but there are other proposals too which are as follows:

1. Structures plus functions
2. Structural, functional and instrumental
3. Interactional
4. Task-based
5. Learner generated

Principles of The Communicative Approach:

1. Language learning is learning to communicate using the target language.
2. The language used to communicate must be appropriate to the situation, the roles of the speakers, the setting and the register. The learner needs to differentiate between a formal and an informal style.
3. Communicative activities are essential. Activities should be presented in a situation or context and have a communicative purpose. Typical activities of this approach are games, problem-solving tasks, and role-play. There should be information gap, choice and feedback involved in the activities.
4. Learners must have constant interaction with and exposure to the target language.
5. Development of the four macro skills — speaking, listening, reading and writing — is integrated from the beginning, since communication integrates the different skills.
6. The topics are selected and graded regarding age, needs, level, and students' interest.
7. Motivation is central. Teachers should raise students' interest from the beginning of the lesson.
8. The role of the teacher is that of a guide, a facilitator or an instructor.
9. Trial and error are considered part of the learning process.
10. Evaluation concerns not only the learners' accuracy but also their fluency.

Main Features and Techniques:

1. Meaning is paramount.
2. Dialogues, if used, enter around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
3. Contextualization is a basic premise. Meaning cannot be understood out of context. Teachers using this approach will present a grammar topic in a meaningful context.
4. Language learning is learning to communicate, and effective communication is sought.
5. Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
6. Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
7. Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
8. Reading and writing can start from the first day.
9. Communicative competence is the desired goal.
10. Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
11. Students are expected to interact with other people through pair and group work.

Classroom activities or teaching procedure

CLT teachers choose classroom activities based on what they believe is going to be most effective for students developing communicative abilities in the target language (TL). They promote collaboration, fluency, and comfort in the TL. The six activities listed and explained below are commonly used in CLT classrooms.

1. Role-play

Role-play is an oral activity usually done in pairs; whose main goal is to develop students' communicative abilities in a certain setting.

2. Interviews

An interview is an oral activity done in pairs; whose main goal is to develop students' interpersonal skills in the TL.

3. Group work

Group work is a collaborative activity whose purpose is to foster communication in the TL, in a larger group setting.

4. Information gap

Information gap is a collaborative activity, whose purpose is for students to effectively obtain information that was previously unknown to them, in the TL.

5. Opinion sharing

Opinion sharing is a content-based activity, whose purpose is to engage students' conversational skills, while talking about something they care about.

6. Scavenger hunt

A scavenger hunt is a mingling activity that promotes open interaction between students.

Teachers role in CLT

Teachers have certain roles to play in CLT which are:

1. To facilitate communication for students
2. To play the role of an independent participant
3. Monitoring the class with attention and motivation
4. Talking less but to be listener mostly.
5. Maintaining appropriate classroom environment without being autocratic rather being process manager and counsellor.

Role of learners

As CLT is an approach based on interaction, the learners must perform the following duties in CLT class.

1. To be energetic participant
2. No to be showy using unusual and bombastic words while interaction in group and pair but to focus communicative skills in simple and general way
3. Following self-reliant process

Advantages and disadvantages of CLT

Advantages or benefits

1. Communicative approach is much more pupil-orientated, because it is based on pupils' needs and interests.
2. Communicative approach seeks to personalize and localize language and adapt it to interests of pupils. Meaningful language is always more easily retained by learners.
3. Seeks to use authentic resources. And that is more interesting and motivating for children.
4. Children acquire grammar rules as a necessity to speak so is more proficient and efficient.

Disadvantages or limitations

1. It pays insufficient attention to the context in which teaching and learning take place.
2. The Communicative Approach often seems to be interpreted as: “if the teacher understands the student, we have good communication” but native speakers of the target language can have great difficulty understanding students.
3. Another disadvantage is that the CLT approach focuses on fluency but not accuracy. The approach does not focus on error reduction but instead creates a situation where learners are left using their own devices to solve their communication problems. Thus, they may produce incoherent, grammatically incorrect sentences.
4. CLT demands improved training for the teachers.
5. CLT also demands for small class that is absolutely impossible in developing countries.

There is nothing in the world that is over criticism and does not possess any limitation. CLT is no exception of this universal concept. But it is still popular approach rather than method for Target Language (TL) teaching and will remain effective and acclaimed even in the most developed stage of post method pedagogy.

Department of English, UGV

Course Title: Introduction to ELT, Course Code: ENG-203

6th Semester

Week-6

Identify and discuss the challenges in implementing CLT in Bangladesh

Introduction

CLT which stands for **Communicative Language Teaching** is an approach to the teaching of second and foreign languages. In 2001, CLT was introduced from six standard to twelve standards but in reality, it is not seen at all since 95% students after passing twelve years of education cannot read and write standard English let alone fluent speaking.

The major challenges in implementing CLT

Nonetheless, government's introduction of CLT in Bangladesh, the successful implementation of CLT is hampered due to sundry factors. In recent years, several

researchers have made attempts to investigate the challenges of implementing CLT in Bangladesh.

Mammoth class size

One of the maximal challenges to implementing CLT in Bangladesh is a number of students in the classroom. An American linguist Larsen-Freeman, (2000) in her book “**Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching**” has emphasized on the small class for implementing CLT. The number of students in language should be limited within 25-30.

Teacher-student ratio

Another challenge for CLT in Bangladesh is teacher – student ratio. In the institutions of Bangladesh, the ratio between teacher and student could not be determined. But according to the Cambridge University Education Policy, teacher – student ratio must be 1: 12.

Cultural inexpediency

Cultural inappropriateness that is another major challenge in respect of Bangladesh to redact CLT reflects a long tradition of unconditional obedience to authority. Rahman and Karim (2015) asserted, “One of the implementation problems of CLT in Bangladesh is that the approach is not always appropriate with the socio-cultural context of the country” (p. 84). Besides students have lack of team spirit.

Mismatch between curriculum and assessment

The English curriculum of Bangladesh is based on four skills of language – listening, speaking, reading and writing. But the teachers lay assertion on reading and writing and the exam system is also based on reading and writing devoid of listening and speaking.

Lack of orientation or tendency

No initiative has so far been taken by the government of Bangladesh to familiarize CLT with the teaching community though the teachers are repeatedly urged to adapt to CLT. According to the researchers, a nationwide orientation has not yet been possible to introduce CLT among the teachers in Bangladesh.

The British Council in Bangladesh offers 40-hour intensive training in CLT. However, the cost of this training program is pretty high. Only a few private colleges in and around the capital city can afford to get their teachers trained from the British Council. Moreover, teachers of Bangladesh in general have almost no access to national, regional and international seminars, conferences and journals on CLT.

Lack of pre-service and in-service training

In Bangladesh, “a pre-service training” is not required to join as English teachers in any level. Besides, “in-service” opportunity for training in CLT in Bangladesh is almost absent (Rahman and Karim, 2015, p. 84). The government has not yet been able to establish a Teachers’ Training College for tertiary level English teachers. Therefore, lack of training facilities in CLT is a big challenge to implementing CLT in Bangladesh.

Other challenges

1. Economic constraints
2. Teachers’ deficiency in spoken English
3. Inadequate technological support
4. Lack of research facility etc.

Suggestions or recommendations

Several researchers have come up with their recommendations to overcome the challenges to implementing CLT in Bangladesh. Most of them have given similar types of recommendations based on the context of Bangladesh. However, different researchers have emphasized different aspects. For example,

1. Making the class size smaller and providing adequate teaching aids appropriate for CLT.
2. Providing massive CLT training for English teachers and lessening English teachers’ work-load.
3. Improving the infrastructures to make suitable for CLT and increasing teachers’ remunerations.
4. The modification of exam system to make it communicative.
5. Government of Bangladesh should take long term policy for the implementation of CLT.
6. Motivating the learners to speak English.
7. A language club should be established in every school.

Conclusion

To sum up, it must be asserted that possessing four skills of English is impossible without redacting CLT. The above recommendations must be weapon to implement CLT in Bangladesh.

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6th Semester
Week-7

A Task-based approach

In recent years a debate has developed over which approaches to structuring and planning and implementing lessons are more effective. This article presents an overview of a task-based learning approach (TBL) and highlights its advantages over the more traditional Present, Practice, and Produce (PPP) approach.



This article also links to the following activity.

Try - *Speaking activities* - Task-based speaking - planning a night out

- Present Practice Produce
- The problems with PPP
- A Task-based approach

- The advantages of TBL
- Conclusion

Present Practice Produce (PPP)

During an initial teacher training course, most teachers become familiar with the PPP paradigm. A PPP lesson would proceed in the following manner.

- First, the teacher **presents** an item of language in a clear context to get across its meaning. This could be done in a variety of ways: through a text, a situation build, a dialogue etc.
- Students are then asked to complete a controlled **practice stage**, where they may have to repeat target items through choral and individual drilling, fill gaps or match halves of sentences. All of this practice demands that the student uses the language correctly and helps them to become more comfortable with it.
- Finally, they move on to the production stage, sometimes called the 'free practice' stage. Students are given a communication task such as a role play and are expected to **produce** the target language and use any other language that has already been learnt and is suitable for completing it.

The problems with PPP

It all sounds quite logical but teachers who use this method will soon identify problems with it:

- Students can give the impression that they are comfortable with the new language as they are producing it accurately in the class. Often though a few lessons later, students will either not be able to produce the language correctly or even won't produce it at all.
- Students will often produce the language but overuse the target structure so that it sounds completely unnatural.

- Students may not produce the target language during the free practice stage because they find they are able to use existing language resources to complete the task.

A Task-based approach

Task -based learning offers an alternative for language teachers. In a task-based lesson the teacher doesn't pre-determine what language will be studied, the lesson is based around the completion of a central task and the language studied is determined by what happens as the students complete it. The lesson follows certain stages.

Pre-task

The teacher introduces the topic and gives the students clear instructions on what they will have to do at the task stage and might help the students to recall some language that may be useful for the task. The pre-task stage can also often include playing a recording of people doing the task. This gives the students a clear model of what will be expected of them. The students can take notes and spend time preparing for the task.

Task

The students complete a task in pairs or groups using the language resources that they have as the teacher monitors and offers encouragement.

Planning

Students prepare a short oral or written report to tell the class what happened during their task. They then practice what they are going to say in their groups. Meanwhile the teacher is available for the students to ask for advice to clear up any language questions they may have.

Report

Students then report back to the class orally or read the written report. The teacher chooses the order of when students will present their reports and may give the students some quick feedback on the content. At this stage the teacher may also play a recording of others doing the same task for the students to compare.

Analysis

The teacher then highlights relevant parts from the text of the recording for the

students to analyze. They may ask students to notice interesting features within this text. The teacher can also highlight the language that the students used during the report phase for analysis.

Practice

Finally, the teacher selects language areas to practice based upon the needs of the students and what emerged from the task and report phases. The students then do practice activities to increase their confidence and make a note of useful language.

The advantages of TBL

Task-based learning has some clear advantages

- Unlike a PPP approach, the students are free of language control. In all three stages they must use all their language resources rather than just practising one pre-selected item.
- A natural context is developed from the students' experiences with the language that is personalised and relevant to them. With PPP it is necessary to create contexts in which to present the language and sometimes they can be very unnatural.
- The students will have a much more varied exposure to language with TBL. They will be exposed to a whole range of lexical phrases, collocations and patterns as well as language forms.
- The language explored arises from the students' needs. This need dictates what will be covered in the lesson rather than a decision made by the teacher or the coursebook.
- It is a strong communicative approach where students spend a lot of time communicating. PPP lessons seem very teacher-centred by comparison. Just watch how much time the students spend communicating during a task-based lesson.
- It is enjoyable and motivating.

Conclusion

PPP offers a very simplified approach to language learning. It is based upon

the idea that you can present language in neat little blocks, adding from one lesson to the next. However, research shows us that we cannot predict or guarantee what the students will learn and that ultimately a wide exposure to language is the best way of ensuring that students will acquire it effectively. Restricting their experience to single pieces of target language is unnatural.

For more information see '*A Framework for Task-Based Learning*' by Jane Willis, Longman; '*Doing Task-Based Teaching*' by Dave and Jane Willis, OUP 2007.

Also see www.willis-elt.co.uk

Richard Frost, British Council, Turkey

Department of English, UGV

Course Title: Introduction to ELT, Course Code: ENG-203

6th Semester

Week-8

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL)

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL), known as **computer-aided instruction (CAI)** in British English and **computer-aided language instruction (CALI)** in American English,^[1] Levy (1997: p. 1) briefly defines it as "the exploration and study of computer applications in language teaching and learning."^[2] CALL embraces a wide range of information and communications technology "applications and approaches to teaching and learning foreign languages, ranging from the traditional drill-and-practice programs that characterized CALL in the 1960s and 1970s to more recent manifestations of CALL, such as those utilized virtual learning

environment and Web-based distance learning. It also extends to the use of corpora and concordancers, interactive whiteboards,^[3] computer-mediated communication (CMC),^[4] language learning in virtual worlds, and mobile-assisted language learning (MALL).^[5]

The term CALI (computer-assisted language instruction) was used before CALL, originating as a subset of the broader term CAI (computer-assisted instruction). CALI fell out of favor among language teachers, however, because it seemed to emphasize a teacher-centered instructional approach. Language teachers increasingly favored a student-centered approach focused on learning rather than instruction. CALL began to replace CALI in the early 1980s (Davies & Higgins, 1982: p. 3).^[6] and it is now incorporated into the names of the growing number of professional associations worldwide.

An alternative term, technology-enhanced language learning (TELL),^[7] also emerged around the early 1990s: e.g. the TELL Consortium project, University of Hull.

The current philosophy of CALL emphasizes student-centered materials that empower learners to work independently. These materials can be structured or unstructured but typically incorporate two key features: interactive and individualized learning. CALL employs tools that assist teachers in facilitating language learning, whether reinforcing classroom lessons or providing additional support to learners. The design of CALL materials typically integrates principles from language pedagogy and methodology, drawing from various learning theories such as behaviourism, cognitive theory,

constructivism, and second-language acquisition theories like Stephen Krashen's. monitor hypothesis.

A combination of face-to-face teaching and CALL is usually referred to as blended learning. Blended learning is designed to increase learning potential and is more commonly found than pure CALL (Pegrum 2009: p. 27).^[8]

See Davies *et al.* (2011: Section 1.1, *What is CALL?*).^[9] See also Levy & Hubbard (2005), who raise the question *Why call CALL "CALL"?*^[10]

History

[edit]

CALL dates back to the 1960s, when it was first introduced on university mainframe computers. The PLATO project, initiated at the University of Illinois in 1960, is an important landmark in the early development of CALL (Marty 1981).^[11] The advent of the microcomputer in the late 1970s brought computing within the range of a wider audience, resulting in a boom in the development of CALL programs and a flurry of publications of books on CALL in the early 1980s.

Dozens of CALL programs are currently available on the internet, at prices ranging from free to expensive,^[12] and other programs are available only through university language courses.

There have been several attempts to document the history of CALL. Sanders (1995) covers the period from the mid-1960s to the mid-1990s, focusing on CALL in North America.^[13] Delcloque (2000) documents the history of CALL worldwide, from its beginnings in the 1960s to the dawning of the new

millennium.^[14] Davies (2005) takes a look back at CALL's past and attempts to predict where it is going.^[15] Hubbard (2009) offers a compilation of 74 key articles and book excerpts, originally published in the years 1988–2007, that give a comprehensive overview of the wide range of leading ideas and research results that have exerted an influence on the development of CALL or that show promise in doing so in the future.^[16] A published review of Hubbard's collection can be found in *Language Learning & Technology* 14, 3 (2010).^[17]

Butler-Pascoe (2011) looks at the history of CALL from a different point of view, namely the evolution of CALL in the dual fields of educational technology and second/foreign language acquisition and the paradigm shifts experienced along the way.^[18]

See also Davies et al. (2011: Section 2, *History of CALL*).^[9]

Typology and phases

[edit]

During the 1980s and 1990s, several attempts were made to establish a CALL typology. A wide range of different types of CALL programs was identified by Davies & Higgins (1985),^[19] Jones & Fortescue (1987),^[20] Hardisty & Windeatt (1989)^[21] and Levy (1997: pp. 118ff.).^[2] These included gap-filling and Cloze programs, multiple-choice programs, free-format (text-entry) programs, adventures and simulations, action mazes, sentence-reordering programs, exploratory programs—and "total Cloze", a type of program in which the learner has to reconstruct a whole text. Most of these early programs still exist in modernised versions.

Since the 1990s, it has become increasingly difficult to categorise CALL as it now extends to the use of blogs, wikis, social networking, podcasting, Web 2.0 applications, language learning in virtual worlds and interactive whiteboards (Davies et al. 2010: Section 3.7).^[9]

Warschauer (1996)^[22] and Warschauer & Healey (1998)^[23] took a different approach. Rather than focusing on the typology of CALL, they identified three historical phases of CALL, classified according to their underlying pedagogical and methodological approaches:

- Behavioristic CALL: conceived in the 1950s and implemented in the 1960s and 1970s.
- Communicative CALL: 1970s to 1980s.
- Integrative CALL: embracing Multimedia and the Internet: 1990s.

Most CALL programs in Warschauer & Healey's first phase, Behavioristic CALL (1960s to 1970s), consisted of drill-and-practice materials in which the computer presented a stimulus and the learner provided a response. At first, both could be done only through text. The computer would analyse students' input and give feedback, and more sophisticated programs would react to students' mistakes by branching to help screens and remedial activities. While such programs and their underlying pedagogy still exist today, behaviouristic approaches to language learning have been rejected by most language teachers, and the increasing sophistication of computer technology has led CALL to other possibilities.

The second phase described by Warschauer & Healey, Communicative CALL, is based on the communicative approach that became prominent in the late 1970s and 1980s (Underwood 1984).^[24] In the communicative

approach the focus is on using the language rather than analysis of the language, and grammar is taught implicitly rather than explicitly. It also allows for originality and flexibility in student output of language. The communicative approach coincided with the arrival of the PC, which made computing much more widely available and resulted in a boom in the development of software for language learning. The first CALL software in this phase continued to provide skill practice but not in a drill format—for example: paced reading, text reconstruction and language games—but the computer remained the tutor. In this phase, computers provided context for students to use the language, such as asking for directions to a place, and programs not designed for language learning such as *Sim City*, *Sleuth* and *Where in the World is Carmen Sandiego?* were used for language learning. Criticisms of this approach include using the computer in an ad hoc and disconnected manner for more marginal aims rather than the central aims of language teaching.

The third phase of CALL described by Warschauer & Healey, Integrative CALL, starting from the 1990s, tried to address criticisms of the communicative approach by integrating the teaching of language skills into tasks or projects to provide direction and coherence. It also coincided with the development of multimedia technology (providing text, graphics, sound and animation) as well as Computer-mediated communication (CMC). CALL in this period saw a definitive shift from the use of the computer for drill and tutorial purposes (the computer as a finite, authoritative base for a specific task) to a medium for extending education beyond the classroom. Multimedia CALL started with interactive laser videodiscs such as *Montevidisco* (Schneider & Bennion 1984)^[25] and *A la rencontre de*

Philippe (Fuerstenberg 1993),^[26] both of which were simulations of situations where the learner played a key role. These programs later were transferred to CD-ROMs, and new role-playing games (RPGs) such as *Who is Oscar Lake?* made their appearance in a range of different languages.

In a later publication Warschauer changed the name of the first phase of CALL from Behavioristic CALL to Structural CALL and also revised the dates of the three phases (Warschauer 2000):^[27]

- Structural CALL: 1970s to 1980s.
- Communicative CALL: 1980s to 1990s.
- Integrative CALL: 2000 onwards.

Bax (2003)^[28] took issue with Warschauer & Haley (1998) and Warschauer (2000) and proposed these three phases:

- Restricted CALL – mainly behaviouristic: 1960s to 1980s.
- Open CALL – i.e. open in terms of feedback given to students, software types and the role of the teacher, and including simulations and games: 1980s to 2003 (i.e. the date of Bax's article).
- Integrated CALL – still to be achieved. Bax argued that at the time of writing language teachers were still in the Open CALL phase, as true integration could only be said to have been achieved when CALL had reached a state of "normalisation" – e.g. when using CALL was as normal as using a pen.

See also Bax & Chambers (2006)^[29] and Bax (2011),^[30] in which the topic of "normalisation" is revisited.

Flashcards

[edit]

A basic use of CALL is in vocabulary acquisition using flashcards, which requires quite simple programs. Such programs often make use of spaced repetition, a technique whereby the learner is presented with the vocabulary items that need to be committed to memory at increasingly longer intervals until long-term retention is achieved. This has led to the development of a number of applications known as spaced repetition systems (SRS),^[31] including the generic Anki or SuperMemo package and programs such as BYKI^[32] and phase-6,^[33] which have been designed specifically for learners of foreign languages.

Software design and pedagogy

[edit]

Above all, careful consideration must be given to pedagogy in designing CALL software, but publishers of CALL software tend to follow the latest trend, regardless of its desirability. Moreover, approaches to teaching foreign languages are constantly changing, dating back to grammar-translation, through the direct method, audio-lingualism and a variety of other approaches, to the more recent communicative approach and constructivism (Decoo 2001).^[34]

Designing and creating CALL software is an extremely demanding task, calling upon a range of skills. Major CALL development projects are usually managed by a team of people:

- A subject specialist (also known as a content provider) – usually a language teacher – who is responsible for providing the content and

pedagogical input. More than one subject specialist is required for larger CALL projects.

- A programmer who is familiar with the chosen programming language or authoring tool.
- A graphic designer, to produce pictures and icons, and to advise on fonts, colour, screen layout, etc.
- A professional photographer or, at the very least, a very good amateur photographer. Graphic designers often have a background in photography too.
- A sound engineer and a video technician will be required if the package is to contain substantial amounts of sound and video.
- An instructional designer. Developing a CALL package is more than just putting a text book into a computer. An instructional designer will probably have a background in cognitive psychology and media technology, and will be able to advise the subject specialists in the team on the appropriate use of the chosen technology (Gimeno & Davies 2010).^[35]

CALL inherently supports learner autonomy, the final of the eight conditions that Egbert et al. (2007) cite as "Conditions for Optimal Language Learning Environments". Learner autonomy places the learner firmly in control so that he or she "decides on learning goals" (Egbert et al., 2007, p. 8).^[36]

It is all too easy when designing CALL software to take the comfortable route and produce a set of multiple-choice and gap-filling exercises, using a simple authoring tool (Bangs 2011),^[37] but CALL is much more than this; Stepp-Greany (2002), for example, describes the creation and management of an environment incorporating a constructivist and whole language philosophy.

According to constructivist theory, learners are active participants in tasks in which they "construct" new knowledge derived from their prior experience. Learners also assume responsibility for their learning, and the teacher is a facilitator rather than a purveyor of knowledge. Whole language theory embraces constructivism and postulates that language learning moves from the whole to the part, rather than building sub-skills to lead towards the higher abilities of comprehension, speaking, and writing. It also emphasises that comprehending, speaking, reading, and writing skills are interrelated, reinforcing each other in complex ways. Language acquisition is, therefore, an active process in which the learner focuses on cues and meaning and makes intelligent guesses. Additional demands are placed upon teachers working in a technological environment incorporating constructivist and whole language theories. The development of teachers' professional skills must include new pedagogical as well as technical and management skills. Regarding the issue of teacher facilitation in such an environment, the teacher has a key role to play, but there could be a conflict between the aim to create an atmosphere for learner independence and the teacher's natural feelings of responsibility. In order to avoid learners' negative perceptions, Stepp-Greany points out that it is especially important for the teacher to continue to address their needs, especially those of low-ability learners.^[38]

Multimedia

[edit]

Language teachers have been avid users of technology for a very long time. Gramophone records were among the first technological aids to be used by language teachers in order to present students with recordings of native speakers' voices, and broadcasts from foreign radio stations were used to

make recordings on reel-to-reel tape recorders. Other examples of technological aids that have been used in the foreign language classroom include slide projectors, film-strip projectors, film projectors, videocassette recorders and DVD players. In the early 1960s, integrated courses (which were often described as multimedia courses) began to appear. Examples of such courses are *Ecouter et Parler* (consisting of a coursebook and tape recordings)^[39] and *Deutsch durch die audiovisuelle Methode* (consisting of an illustrated coursebook, tape recordings and a film-strip – based on the Structuro-Global Audio-Visual method).^[40]

During the 1970s and 1980s standard microcomputers were incapable of producing sound and they had poor graphics capability. This represented a step backwards for language teachers, who by this time had become accustomed to using a range of different media in the foreign language classroom. The arrival of the multimedia computer in the early 1990s was therefore a major breakthrough as it enabled text, images, sound and video to be combined in one device and the integration of the four basic skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing (Davies 2011: Section 1).^[41]

Examples of CALL programs for multimedia computers that were published on CD-ROM and DVD from the mid-1990s onwards are described by Davies (2010: Section 3).^[41] CALL programs are still being published on CD-ROM and DVD, but Web-based multimedia CALL has now virtually supplanted these media.

Following the arrival of multimedia CALL, multimedia language centres began to appear in educational institutions. While multimedia facilities offer many opportunities for language learning with the integration of text, images,

sound and video, these opportunities have often not been fully utilised. One of the main promises of CALL is the ability to individualise learning but, as with the language labs that were introduced into educational institutions in the 1960s and 1970s, the use of the facilities of multimedia centres has often devolved into rows of students all doing the same drills (Davies 2010: Section 3.1).^[41] There is therefore a danger that multimedia centres may go the same way as the language labs. Following a boom period in the 1970s, language labs went rapidly into decline. Davies (1997: p. 28) lays the blame mainly on the failure to train teachers to use language labs, both in terms of operation and in terms of developing new methodologies, but there were other factors such as poor reliability, lack of materials and a lack of good ideas.^[42]

Managing a multimedia language centre requires not only staff who have a knowledge of foreign languages and language teaching methodology but also staff with technical know-how and budget management ability, as well as the ability to combine all these into creative ways of taking advantage of what the technology can offer. A centre manager usually needs assistants for technical support, for managing resources and even the tutoring of students. Multimedia centres lend themselves to self-study and potentially self-directed learning, but this is often misunderstood. The simple existence of a multimedia centre does not automatically lead to students learning independently. Significant investment of time is essential for materials development and creating an atmosphere conducive to self-study. Unfortunately, administrators often have the mistaken belief that buying hardware by itself will meet the needs of the centre, allocating 90% of its budget to hardware and virtually ignoring software and staff training needs (Davies et al. 2011: *Foreword*).^[43] Self-access language learning centres or

independent learning centres have emerged partially independently and partially in response to these issues. In self-access learning, the focus is on developing learner autonomy through varying degrees of self-directed learning, as opposed to (or as a complement to) classroom learning. In many centres learners access materials and manage their learning independently, but they also have access to staff for help. Many self-access centres are heavy users of technology and an increasing number of them are now offering online self-access learning opportunities. Some centres have developed novel ways of supporting language learning outside the context of the language classroom (also called 'language support') by developing software to monitor students' self-directed learning and by offering online support from teachers. Centre managers and support staff may need to have new roles defined for them to support students' efforts at self-directed learning: v. Mozzon-McPherson & Vismans (2001), who refer to a new job description, namely that of the "language adviser".^[44]

Internet

[edit]

The emergence of the World Wide Web (now known simply as "the Web") in the early 1990s marked a significant change in the use of communications technology for all computer users. Email and other forms of electronic communication had been in existence for many years, but the launch of Mosaic, the first graphical Web browser, in 1993 brought about a radical change in the ways in which we communicate electronically. The launch of the Web in the public arena immediately began to attract the attention of language teachers. Many language teachers were already familiar with the concept of hypertext on stand-alone computers, which made it possible to

set up non-sequential structured reading activities for language learners in which they could point to items of text or images on a page displayed on the computer screen and branch to any other pages, e.g. in a so-called "stack" as implemented in the HyperCard program on Apple Mac computers. The Web took this one stage further by creating a worldwide hypertext system that enabled the user to branch to different pages on computers anywhere in the world simply by pointing and clicking at a piece of text or an image. This opened up access to thousands of authentic foreign-language websites to teachers and students that could be used in a variety of ways. A problem that arose, however, was that this could lead to a good deal of time-wasting if Web browsing was used in an unstructured way (Davies 1997: pp. 42–43),^[42] and language teachers responded by developing more structured activities and online exercises (Leloup & Ponterio 2003).^[45] Davies (2010) lists over 500 websites, where links to online exercises can be found, along with links to online dictionaries and encyclopaedias, concordancers, translation aids and other miscellaneous resources of interest to the language teacher and learner.^[46]

The launch of the (free) *Hot Potatoes* (Holmes & Arneil) authoring tool, which was first demonstrated publicly at the EUROCALL 1998 conference, made it possible for language teachers to create their own online interactive exercises. Other useful tools are produced by the same authors.^[47]

In its early days the Web could not compete seriously with multimedia CALL on CD-ROM and DVD. Sound and video quality was often poor, and interaction was slow. But now the Web has caught up. Sound and video are of high quality and interaction has improved tremendously, although this does depend on sufficient bandwidth being available, which is not always the

case, especially in remote rural areas and developing countries. One area in which CD-ROMs and DVDs are still superior is in the presentation of listen/respond/playback activities, although such activities on the Web are continually improving.

Since the early 2000s there has been a boom in the development of so-called Web 2.0 applications. Contrary to popular opinion, Web 2.0 is not a new version of the Web, rather it implies a shift in emphasis from Web browsing, which is essentially a one-way process (from the Web to the end-user), to making use of Web applications in the same way as one uses applications on a desktop computer. It also implies more interaction and sharing. Walker, Davies & Hewer (2011: Section 2.1)^[48] list the following examples of Web 2.0 applications that language teachers are using:

- Image storage and sharing
- Social bookmarking
- Discussion lists, blogs, wikis, social networking
- Chat rooms, MUDs, MOOs and MUVES (virtual worlds)
- Podcasting
- Audio tools
- Video sharing applications and screen capture tools (referring to both video screen capture tools and screenshot tools)
- Animation tools – comic strips, movies, etc.
- Mashups
- Blog assisted language learning (BALL)^[49]

There is no doubt that the Web has proved to be a main focus for language teachers, who are making increasingly imaginative use of its wide range of

facilities: see Dudeney (2007)^[50] and Thomas (2008).^[51] Above all, the use of Web 2.0 tools calls for a careful reexamination of the role of the teacher in the classroom (Richardson 2006).^[52]

Corpora and concordancers

[edit]

Corpora have been used for many years as the basis of linguistic research and also for the compilation of dictionaries and reference works such as the Collins Cobuild series, published by HarperCollins.^[53] Tribble & Barlow (2001),^[54] Sinclair (2004)^[55] and McEnery & Wilson (2011)^[56] describe a variety of ways in which corpora can be used in language teaching.

An early reference to the use of electronic concordancers in language teaching can be found in Higgins & Johns (1984: pp. 88–94),^[57] and many examples of their practical use in the classroom are described by Lamy & Klarskov Mortensen (2010).^[58]

It was Tim Johns (1991), however, who raised the profile of the use of concordancers in the language classroom with his concept of Data-driven learning (DDL).^[59] DDL encourages learners to work out their own rules about the meaning of words and their usage by using a concordancer to locate examples in a corpus of authentic texts. It is also possible for the teacher to use a concordancer to find examples of authentic usage to demonstrate a point of grammar or typical collocations, and to generate exercises based on the examples found. Various types of concordancers and where they can be obtained are described by Lamy & Klarskov Mortensen (2011).^[58]

Robb (2003) shows how it is possible to use Google as a concordancer, but he also points out a number of drawbacks, for instance there is no control over the educational level, nationality, or other characteristics of the creators of the texts that are found, and the presentation of the examples is not as easy to read as the output of a dedicated concordancer that places the key words (i.e. the search terms) in context.^[60]

Virtual worlds

[edit]

Virtual worlds date back to the adventure games and simulations of the 1970s, for example Colossal Cave Adventure, a text-only simulation in which the user communicated with the computer by typing commands at the keyboard. Language teachers discovered that it was possible to exploit these text-only programs by using them as the basis for discussion. Jones G. (1986) describes an experiment based on the Kingdom simulation, in which learners played roles as members of a council governing an imaginary kingdom. A single computer in the classroom was used to provide the stimulus for discussion, namely simulating events taking place in the kingdom: crop planting time, harvest time, unforeseen catastrophes, etc.^[61]

The early adventure games and simulations led on to multi-user variants, which were known as MUDs (Multi-user domains). Like their predecessors, MUDs were text-only, with the difference that they were available to a wider online audience. MUDs then led on to MOOs (Multi-user domains object-oriented), which language teachers were able to exploit for teaching foreign languages and intercultural understanding: see Donaldson & Kötter (1999)^[62] and (Shield 2003).^[63]

The next major breakthrough in the history of virtual worlds was the graphical user interface. Lucasfilm's Habitat (1986), was one of the first virtual worlds that was graphically based, albeit only in a two-dimensional environment. Each participant was represented by a visual avatar who could interact with other avatars using text chat.

Three-dimensional virtual worlds such as Traveler and Active Worlds, both of which appeared in the 1990s, were the next important development. Traveler included the possibility of audio communication (but not text chat) between avatars who were represented as disembodied heads in a three-dimensional abstract landscape. Svensson (2003) describes the Virtual Wedding Project, in which advanced students of English made use of Active Worlds as an arena for constructivist learning.^[64]

The 3D world of Second Life was launched in 2003. Initially perceived as another role-playing game (RPG), it began to attract the interest of language teachers with the launch of the first of the series of SLanguages conferences in 2007.^[65] Walker, Davies & Hewer (2011: Section 14.2.1)^[48] and Molka-Danielsen & Deutschmann (2010)^[66] describe a number of experiments and projects that focus on language learning in Second Life. See also the Wikipedia article Virtual world language learning.

To what extent Second Life and other virtual worlds will become established as important tools for teachers of foreign languages remains to be seen. It has been argued by Dudeney (2010) in his *That's Life* blog that Second Life is "too demanding and too unreliable for most educators". The subsequent discussion shows that this view is shared by many teachers, but many others completely disagree.^[67]

Regardless of the pros and cons of Second Life, language teachers' interest in virtual worlds continues to grow. The joint EUROCALL/CALICO Virtual Worlds Special Interest Group^[68] was set up in 2009, and there are now many areas in Second Life that are dedicated to language learning and teaching, for example the commercial area for learners of English, which is managed by Language Lab,^[69] and free areas such as the region maintained by the Goethe-Institut^[70] and the EduNation Islands.^[71] There are also examples of simulations created specifically for language education, such as those produced by the EC-funded NIFLAR^[72] and AVALON^[73] projects. NIFLAR is implemented both in Second Life and in Opensim.

Human language technologies

[edit]

Human language technologies (HLT) comprise a number of areas of research and development that focus on the use of technology to facilitate communication in a multilingual information society. Human language technologies are areas of activity in departments of the European Commission that were formerly grouped under the heading language engineering (Gupta & Schulze 2011: Section 1.1).^[74]

The parts of HLT that is of greatest interest to the language teacher is natural language processing (NLP), especially parsing, as well as the areas of speech synthesis and speech recognition.

Speech synthesis has improved immeasurably in recent years. It is often used in electronic dictionaries to enable learners to find out how words are pronounced. At word level, speech synthesis is quite effective, the artificial voice often closely resembling a human voice. At phrase level and sentence

level, however, there are often problems of intonation, resulting in speech production that sounds unnatural even though it may be intelligible. Speech synthesis as embodied in text to speech (TTS) applications is invaluable as a tool for unsighted or partially sighted people. Gupta & Schulze (2010: Section 4.1) list several examples of speech synthesis applications.^[74]

Speech recognition is less advanced than speech synthesis. It has been used in a number of CALL programs, in which it is usually described as automatic speech recognition (ASR). ASR is not easy to implement. Ehsani & Knodt (1998) summarise the core problem as follows:

"Complex cognitive processes account for the human ability to associate acoustic signals with meanings and intentions. For a computer, on the other hand, speech is essentially a series of digital values. However, despite these differences, the core problem of speech recognition is the same for both humans and machines: namely, of finding the best match between a given speech sound and its corresponding word string. Automatic speech recognition technology attempts to simulate and optimize this process computationally."^[75]

Programs embodying ASR normally provide a native speaker model that the learner is requested to imitate, but the matching process is not 100% reliable and may result in a learner's perfectly intelligible attempt to pronounce a word or phrase being rejected (Davies 2010: Section 3.4.6 and Section 3.4.7).^[41]

Parsing is used in a number of ways in CALL. Gupta & Schulze (2010: Section 5) describe how parsing may be used to analyse sentences, presenting the learner with a tree diagram that labels the constituent parts of

speech of a sentence and shows the learner how the sentence is structured.^[74]

Parsing is also used in CALL programs to analyse the learner's input and diagnose errors. Davies (2002)^[76] writes:

"Discrete error analysis and feedback were a common feature of traditional CALL, and the more sophisticated programs would attempt to analyse the learner's response, pinpoint errors, and branch to help and remedial activities. ... Error analysis in CALL is, however, a matter of controversy. Practitioners who come into CALL via the disciplines of computational linguistics, e.g. Natural Language Processing (NLP) and Human Language Technologies (HLT), tend to be more optimistic about the potential of error analysis by computer than those who come into CALL via language teaching. [...] An alternative approach is the use of Artificial Intelligence (AI) techniques to parse the learner's response – so-called *intelligent CALL* (ICALL) – but there is a gulf between those who favour the use of AI to develop CALL programs (Matthews 1994)^[77] and, at the other extreme, those who perceive this approach as a threat to humanity (Last 1989:153)".^[78]

Underwood (1989)^[79] and Heift & Schulze (2007)^[80] present a more positive picture of AI.

Research into speech synthesis, speech recognition and parsing and how these areas of NLP can be used in CALL are the main focus of the NLP Special Interest Group^[81] within the EUROCALL professional association and the ICALL Special Interest Group^[82] within the CALICO professional association. The EUROCALL NLP SIG also maintains a Ning.^[83]

Impact

[edit]

The question of the impact of CALL in language learning and teaching has been raised at regular intervals ever since computers first appeared in educational institutions (Davies & Hewer 2011: Section 3).^[84] Recent large-scale impact studies include the study edited by Fitzpatrick & Davies (2003)^[85] and the EACEA (2009) study,^[86] both of which were produced for the European Commission.

A distinction needs to be made between the impact and the effectiveness of CALL. Impact may be measured quantitatively and qualitatively in terms of the uptake and use of ICT in teaching foreign languages, issues of availability of hardware and software, budgetary considerations, Internet access, teachers' and learners' attitudes to the use of CALL,^[87] changes in the ways in which languages are learnt and taught, and paradigm shifts in teachers' and learners' roles. Effectiveness, on the other hand, usually focuses on assessing to what extent ICT is a more effective way of teaching foreign languages compared to using traditional methods – and this is more problematic as so many variables come into play. Worldwide, the picture of the impact of CALL is extremely varied. Most developed nations work comfortably with the new technologies, but developing nations are often beset with problems of costs and broadband connectivity. Evidence on the effectiveness of CALL – as with the impact of CALL – is extremely varied and many research questions still need to be addressed and answered. Hubbard (2002) presents the results of a CALL research survey that was sent to 120 CALL professionals from around the world asking them to articulate a CALL research question they would like to see answered. Some

of the questions have been answered but many more remain open.^[88] Leakey (2011) offers an overview of current and past research in CALL and proposes a comprehensive model for evaluating the effectiveness of CALL platforms, programs and pedagogy.^[89]

A crucial issue is the extent to which the computer is perceived as taking over the teacher's role. Warschauer (1996: p. 6) perceived the computer as playing an "intelligent" role, and claimed that a computer program "should ideally be able to understand a user's spoken input and evaluate it not just for correctness but also for appropriateness. It should be able to diagnose a student's problems with pronunciation, syntax, or usage and then intelligently decide among a range of options (e.g. repeating, paraphrasing, slowing down, correcting, or directing the student to background explanations)."^[22] Jones C. (1986), on the other hand, rejected the idea of the computer being "some kind of inferior teacher-substitute" and proposed a methodology that focused more on what teachers could do with computer programs rather than what computer programs could do on their own: "in other words, treating the computer as they would any other classroom aid".^[90] Warschauer's high expectations in 1996 have still not been fulfilled, and currently there is an increasing tendency for teachers to go down the route proposed by Jones, making use of a variety of new tools such as corpora and concordancers, interactive whiteboards^[3] and applications for online communication.^[4]

Since the advent of the Web there has been an explosion in online learning, but to what extent it is effective is open to criticism. Felix (2003) takes a critical look at popular myths attached to online learning from three perspectives, namely administrators, teachers and students. She concludes:

"That costs can be saved in this ambitious enterprise is clearly a myth, as are expectations of saving time or replacing staff with machines."^[91]

As for the effectiveness of CALL in promoting the four skills, Felix (2008) claims that there is "enough data in CALL to suggest positive effects on spelling, reading and writing", but more research is needed in order to determine its effectiveness in other areas, especially speaking online. She claims that students' perceptions of CALL are positive, but she qualifies this claim by stating that the technologies need to be stable and well supported, drawing attention to concerns that technical problems may interfere with the learning process. She also points out that older students may not feel comfortable with computers and younger students may not possess the necessary meta-skills for coping effectively in the challenging new environments. Training in computer literacy for both students and teachers is essential, and time constraints may pose additional problems. In order to achieve meaningful results she recommends "time-series analysis in which the same group of students is involved in experimental and control treatment for a certain amount of time and then switched – more than once if possible".^[92]

Types of technology training in CALL for language teaching professionals certainly vary. Within second language teacher education programs, namely pre-service course work, we can find "online courses along with face-to-face courses", computer technology incorporated into a more general second language education course, "technology workshops", "a series of courses offered throughout the teacher education programs, and even courses specifically designed for a CALL certificate and a CALL graduate degree"^[93] The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

has identified four levels of courses with only components, namely "web-supplemented, web-dependent, mixed mod and fully online".^[94]

There is a rapidly growing interest in resources about the use of technology to deliver CALL. Journals that have issues that "deal with how teacher education programs help prepare language teachers to use technology in their own classrooms" include *Language Learning and Technology* (2002), *Innovations in Language Learning and Teaching* (2009) and the TESOL international professional association's publication of technology standards for TESOL includes a chapter on preparation of teacher candidates in technology use, as well as the upgrading of teacher educators to be able to provide such instruction. Both CALICO and EUROCALL have special interest groups for teacher education in CALL.^[95]

Department of English, UGV
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6th Semester
Week-9

Situational Language Teaching

Situational Language Teaching (SLT)

Situational Language Teaching (SLT) is called oral approach. In this method, vocabulary and grammar are taught through oral practice. It is much more clinical method that relies less on direct communication. SLT was developed by applied linguists from 1930s to 1950s. It became the accepted British approach to English language teaching by the 1950s.

Approach

There are four basic objectives or purposes or approaches of SLT:

1. Practical command of the four basic skills of a language through structure.
2. Accuracy in both pronunciation and grammar.
3. Ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations.
4. Automatic control of basic structures.

Design or Syllabus:

1. Basic words and phrases.
2. Basic sentence structures and patterns.
3. Everything is to be taught against the backdrop of situations.

More Notes of ELT

Procedure or Features:

A situational presentation of new sentence patterns and repeated drills of the patterns are central for SLT. According Richards and Rodgers (2001), the followings are the features of SLT:

1. Speaking and listening begins from the very outset.
2. As medium of instruction, the target language is to be used in classroom.
3. New chapters are introduced and practiced in accordance with the backdrop of situations.
4. Only essential vocabulary is covered.
5. Grammar is taught step by step that means from simple to complex.
6. Reading and writing are gradually introduced after establishing basic grammatical and lexical concept.

Finally, it is to be said that SLT is an interesting second language teaching method which is widely used throughout the world.

Situational Language Teaching (Oral Approach)

The *Oral Approach* or *Situational Language Teaching* is an approach developed by British applied linguists between the 1930s and the 1960s. While it is unknown for many teachers, it had a big influence on language courses till the 1980s. Textbooks such as *Streamline English* (Hartley and Viney 1979) was designed following the SLT approach principles.

~~The Official Website of the Ministry of National Education of Turkey is <http://www.ttb.gov.tr>~~

Vocabulary And Grammar Control

Situational Language Teaching is characterized by two major features:

1. Focus on both vocabulary and reading is the most salient trait of SLT. In fact, mastery of a set of high-frequency vocabulary items is believed to lead to good reading skills.
2. An analysis of English and a classification of its prominent grammatical structures into sentence patterns (also called situational tables) is believed to help learners internalize grammatical rules.

Behavioristic Background

The behavioristic view of language learning constitutes the cornerstone of Situation Language Teaching. The approach gives primacy to the processes over the conditions of learning. The following processes are noted in this approach:

1. The act of receiving knowledge or material
2. Repetition to fix that knowledge or material in memory.
3. The use of the knowledge or material in actual practice until it becomes a personal skill.

The behaviorist theory of learning is based on the principle of habit formation. Mistakes are banned so as to avoid bad habit formation. Following the premises of behaviorism, a teacher presents language orally, then in written form.

SLT Objectives

The objectives of Situational Language Teaching involve accurate use of vocabulary items and grammar rules in order to achieve a practical mastery of the four basic skills. Learners must be able to produce accurate pronunciation and use of grammar. The ultimate aim is to be able to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations with an automatic control of basic structures and sentence patterns.

The Syllabus, Techniques, And Activities

Situational Language Teaching syllabus is designed upon a word list and structural activities. Grammar teaching involves a situational presentation of new sentence patterns and drills to practice these patterns. The teacher moves from controlled to freer practice of structures and from oral use of sentence patterns to their automatic use in speech, reading, and writing.

Typical lesson

According to Situational Language Teaching, a lesson starts with stress and intonation practice followed by a revision and a presentation of new materials (mainly structures or vocabulary). The teacher then proceeds to oral practice and drilling of the elements presented. Finally, the lesson ends with reading activity or written exercises.

Advantages

Situational Language Teaching is still attractive to many teachers who still believe in the structural practice of language. Its practicality in the teaching of grammar patterns has contributed to the survival of the approach until recently. Besides, its emphasis on oral practice still attracts support among language teachers.

Disadvantages

Many premises underlying the approach have been criticized. For example, Chomsky (1957) showed that the structural and the behavioristic approaches to language are simply unfounded as they do not explain the fundamental feature of language learning: the ability to create novel and unique sentences. Children do not acquire their mother tongue through repetition and habit

formation. There must be, however, an innate predisposition that leads them to a certain kind of linguistic competence.

Read more on Situational Language Teaching:

- Check Richards & Rogers' book: [Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching \(Cambridge Language Teaching Library\)](#)
- Brown's book: [Principles of Language Learning and Teaching \(6th Edition\)](#)

References:

To read more on Situational Language Teaching and other methods:

- Richards, J. C. & Rogers, T. S. (1986). Approaches and methods in language teaching: A description and analysis. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
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Teaching in Mixed Ability Classes

You've got a student, let's call them student A, who has finished the worksheet before you've even had chance to finish handing it round to the entire class. And then there's another student, student B, at the back, who isn't even sure how to tackle it at all. Not

an ideal situation, right? Unfortunately, it sometimes happens and it can be a worry for all [TEFL teachers](#) (not just new ones). So, what do you do? Do you leave student A to sit there and twiddle their thumbs whilst the rest of the class catches up, or move on and leave poor old student B to keep their fingers crossed and hope for the best? Neither seems great, right?

Never fear! It's all a bit of a balancing act but there **are** ways to manage situations like these, and you might even find that you enjoy teaching mixed ability classes by the end of it!

Find our **5 Top Tips** for managing mixed ability classes below:

1. Structure your lessons so that activities have more open-ended possibilities

For example, put your class into small groups and suggest an activity such as 'write as many sentences about X, in X amount of time'. This will mean that all groups will be able to contribute to the best of their ability without feeling either inadequate or under-challenged.

2. Create ongoing activities

As there will be students who finish their work ahead of the rest of the class, why not create ongoing individual projects for students to resume once they've completed all set tasks? This is a great way to avoid exasperated sighs and 'this is far too easy' glares. E.g. get students to keep a journal.



3. Use level-specific material

If the ability levels between students are very distinct, then you can include adaptations to your exercises to make them suit both levels, providing a harder and an easier option. Make sure you don't make this distinction obvious however, as the student receiving the easier activity is likely to lose confidence in their abilities, if it's made clear to the whole class that they aren't at the level of the highest performing student.

4. Communicate equally with the whole class

Remember when you were in school (yep, for some of us that was a while ago now...) and your teachers picked the same students again and again? Felt kind of irritating, didn't it? Make sure not to make this mistake in your teaching. Rotate the people you call on and treat every student as an individual. You can also make sure they all know their contribution to the lesson is valued, by praising each student often. Remember the ratio 1:5, for every 1 negative thing you say, you need to counteract it with 5 positives.



5. Use positive pair-work

Pairing up weaker and a stronger student for activities will allow the two to communicate and help each other in a less public environment. The stronger student will feel like they have more responsibility and the weaker student will receive one-to-one help. However, never (never, never) make it obvious this is why you are doing the pair work. Be sensitive to students feelings and discreet.

Teaching mixed ability classes might feel like a minefield initially, but armed with these 5 Top Tips you'll be breezing through it in no time, and teaching these types of classes will do wonders for your teaching skills. Not only does teaching different levels of ability keep you finely tuned-in to your students' needs, it also provides you with a great opportunity to be more creative in the classroom. Plus, think how satisfying it will feel to know you've kept everyone busy/challenged/happy!

One best teacher award coming your way!



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Mixed-Ability Classes: Factors, Challenges and Advantages

May 16, 2017 | [0 comments](#)

As an EFL teacher, it is seldom that you have a class of students who have the same language learning levels. As such, it is well known that mixed-ability classes are the norm and not an exception.

If you are new to teaching, you might be wondering what is meant by a mixed-ability class. A mixed-ability class, also called a heterogeneous class, means that you have students in the same class who have various levels of language proficiency. Mixed-ability and heterogeneous are, to some extent, misleading terms, as no two learners have identical proficiencies, especially in a language learning class. Thus, homogeneous classes cannot and do not exist, and all classes, in fact, are heterogeneous. However, mixed-ability is used to describe those classes where significant gaps are present in learning proficiencies in one, single class, and the weaknesses, strengths, and approaches to learning of the students are notable.

In this article, we will look at factors that affect the 'mixed-ability-ness' of your class, possible problems that ESL teachers face, advantages to teaching these classes, and tips and strategies for dealing with these classes (and students).

Mixed-Ability Factors in a Class

There are at least nine factors that can affect learners' characteristics in a single ESL class. These comprise:

- Maturity and age (Do you have a class in which the students are not just age nine, but ages 17 to 36?)
- Multiple intelligences
- Learning styles (Do you have a class in which some students have auditory learning styles, others have visual learning styles and the remainder of students of kinaesthetic learning styles?)
- Language levels and aptitudes
- Native language (Do you have a class where all the students speak Mandarin Chinese at home, or do you have a class in which the students speak Cantonese, Italian, German and Russian at home?)
- Learner autonomy
- Reason for learning English
- Cultural background

Common Teacher Problems in These Classrooms

There are numerous problems and challenges that EFL teachers will and can face when teaching mixed-ability classes. From the [Wits Language School](#), these are some typical problems:

In addition to these problems above, there are also other challenges that EFL teachers face. One of these is discipline, and this ties in closely with [classroom management](#). This challenge usually occurs when the students in the class feel frustrated; the stronger (or advanced students) may feel that they are not being challenged enough and are not learning as much as they can, while the weaker (or – more politically correct term – less advanced) students feel that the tasks and learning materials are too difficult or the teacher does not assist them enough.

Secondly, student participation is another worry. In a mixed-ability class, the teacher will find that the stronger students generally participate more than the less advanced students. This may be due to the shy nature of the less advanced students or because they are very aware that they are not the top students in the class and are scared of getting the answer wrong. Lack of participation can also lead to the less advanced students performing even less (or worse) in class. Ideally, you want all students to participate equally in class; however, this is almost never the case.

The third challenge stems from individual awareness in that the EFL teacher may not be able to follow and track the progress of all the students as closely, and further to this, the teacher might not

be able to devote the time and attention needed to less advanced students. In a mixed-ability class, the teacher might find that they spend too much time on the stronger students; an effort should be made to spend more time assisting the less advanced students.

Advantages to Teaching Mixed-Ability Classes

While the challenges and problems associated with mixed-ability classes may seem overwhelming, there are advantages to teaching and learning to manage these classes. Carol Ann Tomlinson, in her book, *The Differentiated Classroom: Responding to the Needs of All Learners*, might have stated it best: "A secure teacher comes away from today with important questions to puzzle about overnight and the belief that today contains insights necessary for a more effective tomorrow." ESL teachers are provided with plenty of opportunities in mixed-ability classes to further develop as teachers as they need to embrace different problem-solving approaches to help deal with difficulties faced in the classroom and also experiment with a wide range of teaching approaches to see what works best. In addition to this, other advantages include the fact that from a mixed-ability class, the teacher can tap into different student experiences, knowledge, and ideas to give interesting student-centered lessons, and in these classes, students can help each other and, by extension, learn a lot from their fellow classmates.

Conclusion

While it may seem daunting to teach mixed-ability classrooms, EFL teachers should instead see it as a challenge and adventure. As a teacher, you will never be able to grow, develop and learn if you only ever had easy classes to teach. Those are, of course, nice and should be appreciated as such, but mixed-ability classes are challenging and they challenge the teacher teaching them. You need to experiment, adapt and problem-solve, all of which will make you an even better teacher.

About the Author

Denine Walters is currently a freelance writer, editor/proofreader, and ESL teacher. Previously, she taught online English lessons to students from all around the world and, before that, she lived and taught English to young learners in Taiwan. In her free time, she likes to read, do scrapbooking and grammar quizzes, and travel.

TEACHING IN LARGE CLASSES



LARGE CLASSES

Large classes present an instructor with a unique set of challenges, such as reducing anonymity, enhancing student engagement, and grading.

MAKING A LARGE CLASS SMALL

It's easy for students to feel anonymous in a large class, and to disengage as a result. Even if the classroom is large, you should try to make it feel like a small class for your students.

- Learn as many names as you can. When students respond to your questions, ask for their names and use them when commenting on the response ("May I ask your name? Yes, you're right Dan. But let me ask you to clarify something you said."). Have your students use each other's names ("With whom do you agree, Jamal? Mary or Tara?").
- Work hard to be accessible to your students. Try to arrive early to class and stay for a while afterward. During this time, engage your students in conversation and give them the opportunity to ask questions they might not ask during class.
- Be a person to your students. Share your hobbies with them. Have conversations with them that aren't related to the class material.
- Enter the students' space. Walk around the classroom, in front of the lectern, and up the aisles.

USE ACTIVE LEARNING TECHNIQUES

No class is too large for active learning techniques. One may be tempted simply to lecture, but the same techniques often used in small classes can be adapted for large classes.

- Make your classes interactive. You may want to try to use i>clickers, which were developed right here at Illinois. For a more low-tech solution, ask your students multiple-choice questions and have them raise their hands to indicate their answer.
- Use short, "low-stakes" writing exercises to help develop your students' writing skills. Even if the entire class turns in a one-page typed paper, they can be graded quickly as either being "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory." You can reduce the grading load by having half the class write one week and the other half the week after.
- Have the students work in pairs or small groups. The size of the class may preclude you from using some group techniques, but students can have discussions with their neighbors in classes of any size.

GRADING CONSIDERATIONS

- Don't use the class size as an excuse for slow grading turnaround. Take the class size into account when planning assessments. Balance the time required to write your test questions and the time required to grade them. For example: essay questions can be written quickly but take time to grade; quality multiple-choice questions take time to write but can be graded quickly.
- Certain grading scales lend themselves to more efficient grading. For example, it can be easier to determine whether a short in-class paper deserves a mark of "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory" compared to determining whether it deserves an A, B, C, etc. For assignments that have a low impact on students' grades, consider using one of these easier grading scales.

PRACTICAL ISSUES

The larger the class, the more complicated its logistics. Some structure is required to keep order in a large class, but careful planning can help the class feel more flexible to your students.

- Consider using online tools, such as a course management system for announcements and handouts. Students may miss an announcement you make at the end of class, due to the noise of the class packing up. By making announcements via email or a course website, they are more likely to get them. Similarly, by putting handouts online, students can get them if they miss class—just be sure to put handouts online far enough in advance so students can print them out before class.
- Since large classes usually require rigid schedules, make sure your students are aware of the schedule.

WORKING WITH TEACHING ASSISTANTS AND GRADERS

If you have teaching assistants or graders for your course, see our [advice on working with teaching assistants](#).

How Students Perceive Large Classes

Students in large classes might take full of advantage of large classes to do other thing rather than learning such as:

1. Students can sit at the back of the class where they will not be seen, they might spend some time there doing homework, chatting with peers, and disrupting the class.
2. A student might hesitate to communicate in large classes because the eyes of many people are on them.
3. A student might not get involved in classes because they haven't heard the instructions clearly since large classes make listening instruction almost impossible.
4. Students feel like the teacher is not focused on them and that he is only interested in those students who are seated in the front row.

Tips for Teaching Large Classes

These are some tips for teaching large classes

1. Start the class by giving the **rules of participation** so you can keep an **atmosphere of respect** regardless of the tasks they are going to complete during your lesson.
2. Use a variety of activities that will motivate and engage all learners.
3. Focus more on activities that students can do **in pairs** or in **small groups**.
4. Have your classroom seating arranged in a way that **you can move freely** around the classroom.
5. Make sure students communicate with each other, **don't ask students to create and perform dialogues in front**

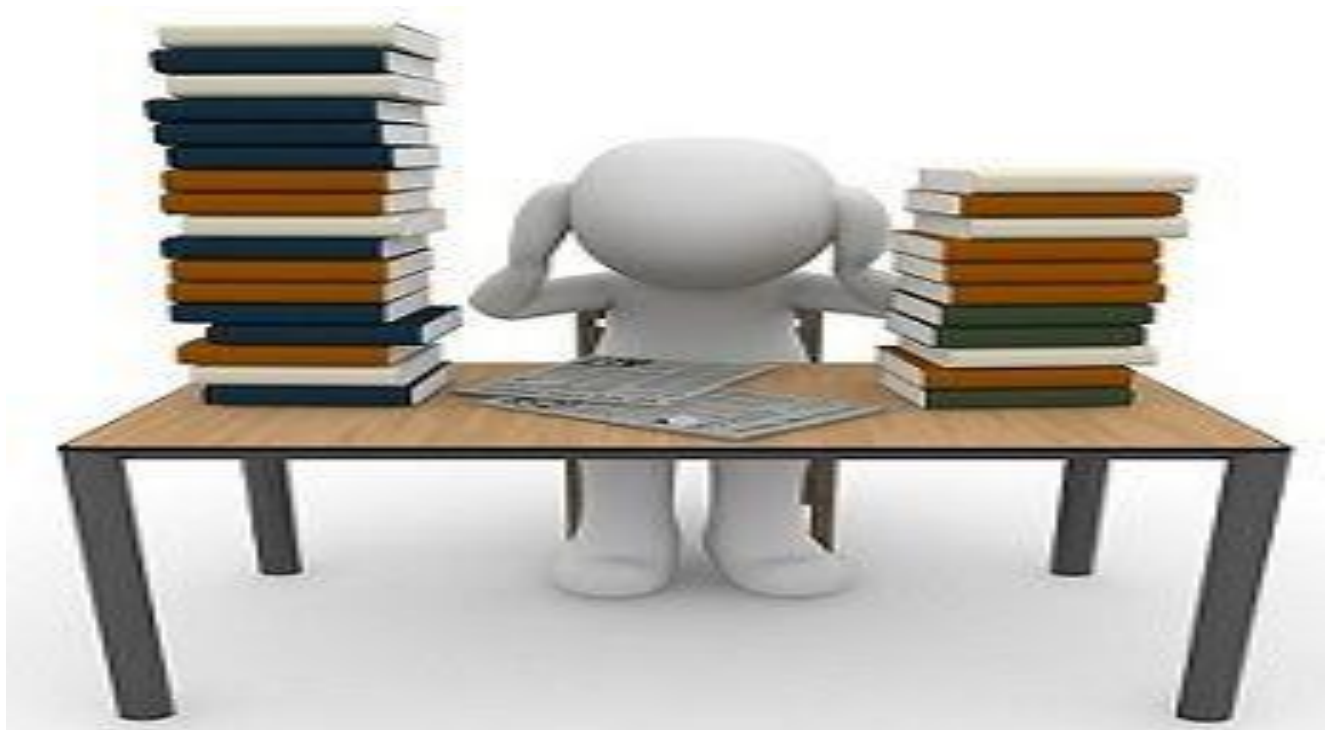
of the class because students can get easily distracted if they just have to listen.

6. Make sure that the tasks performed in class **are tailored for the level of the students you are teaching**, if the activities you brought to the class are too difficult for the students, you would have a hard time trying to clarify instructions and answer questions.
7. Encourage your students that know the subject better than others to go and **help their classmates** that are having difficulties understanding and completing a task.
8. In communicative classes, **have students switch places** so they can go and interact with other classmates, that will give you the opportunities to move around classroom and listen to other group works.
9. Feel good with **communicative noise** in the classroom, it is not very likely that large classes will keep quiet during your lesson. The only noise that should concern you is **disruptive noise**.
10. Don't give instructions **until you have the attention** of all your students, give your instructions using a clear voice, check for understanding and encourage student to ask question regarding the tasks that they have to complete.
11. **Introduce innovation to your classes**, students might feel more engaged into your class if they can **incorporate mobile phones** into their learning.
12. Last but not least, make classes meaningful and fun, prepare some games to make the class more entertaining,

you can't approach a large class as you would normally approach a small class.

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Syllabus and Curriculum



When it comes to education, the two concepts which pop up in our mind which are commonly misconstrued are syllabus and curriculum. **Syllabus** connotes the subjects as well as the topics covered in

the course of study. On the other hand, **curriculum** implies the chapters and academic content taught in school or college. It alludes to the knowledge, skills and competencies students should learn during study.

The fundamental difference between syllabus and curriculum is that the former is focused towards a particular subject. Unlike, the latter, which is related to the all-round development of a student. Similarly, there are other differences between these two, that are discussed in the article provided below, take a read.

Definition of Syllabus

The syllabus is defined as the documents that consist of topics or portion covered in a particular subject. It is determined by the examination board and created by the professors. The professors are responsible for the quality of the course. It is made available to the students by the teachers, either in hard copy or electronic form to bring their attention towards the subject and take their study seriously.

A syllabus is considered as a guide to the in charge as well as to the students. It helps the students to know about the subject in detail, why it is a part of their course of study, what are the expectations from students, consequences of failure, etc. It contains general rules, policies, instructions, topics covered, assignments, projects, test dates, and so on.

Definition of Curriculum

The curriculum is defined as the guideline of the chapters and academic content covered by an educational system while undergoing a particular course or program.

In a theoretical sense, curriculum refers to what is offered by the school or college. However, practically it has a wider scope which covers the knowledge, attitude, behaviour, manner, performance and skills that are imparted or inculcated in a student. It contains the teaching methods, lessons, assignments, physical and mental exercises, activities, projects, study material, tutorials, presentations, assessments, test series, learning objectives, and so on.

The curriculum is well planned, guided and designed by the government or the educational institution. It is aimed at both physical and mental

development of a student. It is the overall learning experience that a student goes through during the particular course of study.

Key Differences Between Syllabus and Curriculum

The basic differences between syllabus and curriculum are explained in the point given below:

1. The syllabus is described as the summary of the topics covered or units to be taught in the particular subject. Curriculum refers to the overall content, taught in an educational system or a course.
2. Syllabus varies from teacher to teacher while the curriculum is same for all teachers.
3. The term syllabus is a Greek origin, whereas the term curriculum is a Latin origin.
4. The curriculum has a wider scope than the syllabus.
5. The syllabus is provided to the students by the teachers so that they can take an interest in the subject. On the other hand, normally the curriculum is not made available to the students unless specifically asked for.
6. Syllabus is descriptive in nature, but the curriculum is prescriptive.
7. Syllabus is set for a particular subject. Unlike curriculum, which covers a particular course of study or a program.
8. Syllabus is prepared by teachers. Conversely, a curriculum is decided by the government or the school or college administration.
9. The duration of a syllabus is for a year only, but curriculum lasts till the completion of the course.

Comparison Chart

BASIS FOR COMPARISON	SYLLABUS	CURRICULUM
Meaning	Syllabus is the document that contains all the portion of the concepts covered in a subject.	Curriculum is the overall content, taught in an educational system or a course.
Origin	Syllabus is a Greek term.	Curriculum is a Latin term.
Set for	A subject	A course
Nature	Descriptive	Prescriptive

BASIS FOR COMPARISON	SYLLABUS	CURRICULUM
Scope	Narrow	Wide
Set out by	Exam board	Government or the administration of school, college or institute.
Term	For a fixed term, normally a year.	Till the course lasts.
Uniformity	Varies from teacher to teacher.	Same for all teachers.

Conclusion

Curriculum and Syllabus are the terms of education, imparted to the students by teachers. It means the knowledge, skills or qualifications that are passed on from one generation to another. A subject syllabus is a unit of the curriculum. The two terms differ in a sense that curriculum is a combination of some factors which helps in the planning of an educational program, whereas a syllabus covers the portion of what topics should be taught in a particular subject.

The Different Types Of Syllabus According To Reilley

Although six different types of language teaching syllabi are treated here as though each occurred “purely,” in practice, these types rarely occur independently of each other. Almost all actual language-teaching syllabi are combination of two or more of the types. The characteristics, differences, strengths, and weaknesses of individual syllabi are defined as follows:

1. Structural (formal) Syllabus

- - The content of language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures, usually grammatical, of the language being taught.
 - Examples include nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, subordinate clauses, and so on.

2. A notional/ functional syllabus

- - The content of the language teaching is a collection of the functions that are performed when language is used, or of the notions that a language is used to express
 - Examples of the functions include: informing, agreeing, apologizing, requesting; examples of notions includes age, size, color, comparison, time, and so on.

3. Situational syllabus

- - The content of language teaching is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. A situation usually involves several participants who are engaged in some activity in a specific meeting.
 - The language occurring in the situation involves a number of functions, combined into a plausible segment of discourse.
 - The primary purpose of a situational language-teaching syllabus is to teach the language that occurs in the situations.
 - Examples of the situations include: seeing the dentist, complaining to the landlord, buying a book at the bookstore, meeting a new student, and so on.

4. A skill-based syllabus

- - The content of language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part using language.
 - Skills are things that people must be able to do to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or setting in which the language use can occur. While the situational syllabi group functions together into specific settings of the language use, skill-based syllabi group linguistic competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse) together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, giving effective oral presentations, and so on.
 - The primary purpose of the skill-based instructions is to learn the specific language skill.

- A possible secondary purpose is to develop more general competence in the language, learning only incidentally any information that may be available while applying the language skills.

5. A task-based syllabus

- - The content of the teaching is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the student wants or needs to perform with the language they are learning.
 - The tasks are defined as activities with a purpose other than language learning, but, as in the content-based syllabus, the performance of the tasks is approached in a way intended to develop second language ability.
 - Tasks integrate language (and other) skills in specific settings of the language.
 - Task-based teaching differs from situation-based teaching in that while situational teaching has the goal of teaching the specific language content that occurs in the situation (pre-defined products), task-based teaching has the goal of teaching students to draw on resources to complete some piece of work (a process). The students draw on a variety of language forms, functions, and skills often in an individual and unpredictable way, in completing the tasks.
 - Tasks can be used for language learning are, generally, tasks that the learners actually have to perform in any case. Examples include: Applying for a job, talking with a social worker, getting housing information over the telephone, and so on.

6. A content-based syllabus

- - 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 content learning. The content teaching is not organized around the language teaching, but vice-versa.
 - Content-based language teaching is concerned with information, while task-based language teaching is concerned with communicative and cognitive processes.
 - An example of content-based language teaching is a science class taught in the language the students need or want to learn, possibly with linguistic adjustment to make the science more comprehensible

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The Structural Syllabus

INTRODUCTION

A Structural Syllabus (also known as the *Grammatical Syllabus*, the *Formal Syllabus*, the *Traditional Syllabus*, the *Synthetic Syllabus*) is one in which grammatical structures form the central organizing feature. The Structural or Grammatical Syllabus is one of the most common types of syllabus and still today we can see the contents pages of many course books set out according to grammatical items. The Structural Syllabus derives its content largely from the structural linguists. It is a product-oriented content-based syllabus. Here the focus is on the knowledge and skills which learners should gain as a result of instruction, not on how they can attain them. The synthetic teaching strategy is essential to produce such a syllabus. The Structural Syllabus happens to be the best-known example of a Synthetic Syllabus. The synthetic approach to syllabus design, according to **Wilkins** is:

A synthetic language teaching strategy is one in which the different parts of a language are taught separately and step by step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built up.

MAJOR CHARACTERISTICS

The major characteristics of the Structural Syllabus are as follows:

Theoretical Bases: The underlying assumptions behind the Structural Syllabus are that:

- Language is a system which consists of a set of grammatical rules; learning a language means learning these rules and then applying them to practical language use.
- The syllabus input is selected and graded according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity. These syllabuses introduce one item at a time and require mastery of that item before moving on to the next.
- This type of syllabus maintains that it is easier for students to learn a language if they are exposed to one part of the grammatical system at a time.

Content: The content of the syllabus is determined by giving top priority to teaching the grammar or structure of the target language. The Structural Syllabus generally consists of two components:

1. A list of linguistic structures, that is, the grammar to be taught, and
2. A list of words, that is, the lexicon to be taught.

Sequencing and Grading: Very often the items on each list are arranged in order showing which are to be taught in the first course, which in the second, and so on. The criteria for sequencing are various. The teacher regards the items from the point of view of levels or stages. For example, beginning, intermediate, advanced, or grades, 1,2,3, etc.

Objectives: Grammar makes up the core of the syllabus. Whatever rules are followed, learning a language means learning to master the grammar rules of the target language. In addition, it is also expected that the students will learn adequate basic vocabulary.

The teacher in following the syllabus may use either the [Audio-lingual Method](#) or the [Grammar Translation Method](#), or a combination of the two or an eclectic approach. Whichever he uses, the content of the syllabus is determined by giving top priority to teaching the grammar or structure of the language.

Procedure: In the initial stage of teaching, the linguistic components of the type of performance desired are analyzed. Next, the language is broken down into small grammatical components and presented in a strictly controlled sequence. The sequence is arranged in accordance with increasing complexity, from simple grammatical structure to more complex grammatical structure. The learners are exposed at one time to a limited sample of the target language. The teacher moves progressively through the syllabus until, theoretically, all the structures of the target language have been taught. The learner's job is to re-synthesize language that has been taken apart, and presented to him in small parts. This synthesis takes place only in the final stage of learning, the so-called advanced stage.

ADVANTAGES

Many learning principles implicit in a structural approach are sound. The merits of a Structural Syllabus are as follows:

- The learner moves from simpler to more complex grammatical structures and may grasp the grammatical system more easily.
- Teaching and testing are relatively simple because teachers deal with discrete-point knowledge and skills. The teachers need not be fluent in the language they teach since grammatical explanations and drills do not require a high level of language proficiency.
- It is very much helpful to develop writing skills.
- It enriches student's basic vocabulary.
- Sequencing and selection of teaching items is not as difficult as it with other syllabuses.

DISADVANTAGES

Despite its numerous advantages, it has few shortcomings too. The drawbacks of a Structural Syllabus are as follows:

- The potential disadvantage of the Structural Syllabus is that it over-emphasizes language structure and neglects communicative competence. It does not address the immediate communication needs of the learner who is learning a language within the context of a community where the language is spoken. In fact, the sociolinguistic aspects of communicative

competence are not in focus at all in a strictly structural syllabus. It is, therefore, more useful in a context where the language learner does not have immediate communication needs.

- It hampers the student's creative sides because it confines him/her within the walls of some specific rules.
- Here the role of the student is passive since it is the teacher who is deciding what to teach in which stage. It is, thus, a teacher dominated syllabus.

CONCLUSION

Despite its drawbacks, it is still the most accepted model for designing course plans. As a result, we can neither reject nor discriminate this type of syllabus entirely. There is no existence of a perfect syllabus type, and the Structural Syllabus is no exception in this respect. So, it is wise to select a combined or integrative syllabus, rather than a particular one. And the Structural Syllabus is eligible enough to provide some important guidelines for the combined syllabus.

Notional–functional syllabus

Origin

The notional-functional syllabus has its roots in the broader movement of communicative language teaching (CLT), which emerged in the 1970s as a response to the shortcomings of traditional grammar-focused language instruction. CLT emphasized the importance of language as a means of communication and sought to prioritize the development of learners' ability to use language in real-life situations.

Within the CLT framework, the concept of notions and functions emerged as key components for organizing language instruction. Notions refer to the semantic categories or concepts that language expresses, such as time, location, quantity, and relationships. Functions, on the other hand, are the communicative purposes for which language is used, such as requesting, apologizing, describing, and persuading.

Development and evolution

The notional-functional syllabus developed as a way to operationalize the notions and functions approach within language teaching. Early pioneers such as Wilkins (1976) and Munby (1978) made significant contributions to the development of this syllabus.

One of the notable characteristics of the notional-functional syllabus was its focus on real-life communicative tasks rather than isolated grammatical structures. Language instruction was designed around meaningful language use in various contexts, allowing learners to practise and develop their language skills in authentic situations.

Over time, the notional-functional syllabus has undergone adaptations and variations to suit different teaching contexts and learner needs. Educators and researchers incorporated insights from second language acquisition theories, pragmatic considerations, and pedagogical approaches to refine and expand the application of the syllabus.

The notional-functional syllabus continues to influence language teaching practices, and its principles have been incorporated into various language teaching methods and curricula worldwide.

Key Principles and Concepts

Notions

[Notions](#) in the notional-functional syllabus refer to the semantic categories or concepts that language expresses. They represent the underlying meaning and ideas conveyed through language use. Notions can include a wide range of topics such as time, location, quantity, manner, comparison, and more. By focusing on notions, language instruction aims to provide learners with the vocabulary and language structures necessary to express and understand these fundamental concepts.

Functions

Functions in the notional-functional syllabus are the communicative purposes for which language is used. They represent the specific intentions and goals that individuals have when using language. Functions can include requesting, giving advice, expressing opinions, making suggestions, and many others. Language instruction that emphasizes functions seeks to develop learners' ability to use language effectively and appropriately in various communicative contexts.

The integration of notions and functions in language instruction allows learners to develop a comprehensive understanding of how language is used to convey meaning and achieve communicative goals. By focusing on both the semantic content and the communicative functions of language, learners acquire the necessary tools to express themselves accurately and fluently in real-life situations.

Language activities and tasks designed within the notional-functional syllabus are often organized around notions and functions. Learners engage in meaningful language practice by using language to convey specific meanings and achieve communicative purposes. This approach encourages learners to develop communicative competence, enabling them to use the language effectively and appropriately in diverse contexts.

The notions and functions approach recognizes the importance of both form and meaning in language learning. While language structures and grammar play a role in language instruction, they are integrated into meaningful communication, allowing learners to develop a balanced proficiency in all aspects of language use.

Characteristics [editedit source](#)

Focus on Communication [editedit source](#)

The notional-functional syllabus places a strong emphasis on the development of communicative competence. It prioritizes the ability to use language effectively in real-life communication situations over rote memorization of grammatical rules or vocabulary lists. Language instruction within this syllabus aims to provide learners with the skills and strategies needed to understand and express themselves in authentic communicative contexts. Through interactive activities, role-plays, and meaningful language tasks, learners are encouraged to actively engage in communication, fostering their ability to negotiate meaning and convey their intended messages.

Contextualized Language Learning [editedit source](#)

In the notional-functional syllabus, language learning is contextualized within real-world situations. Language instruction is designed to reflect the authentic use of language in various contexts, such as social interactions, professional settings, or everyday life scenarios. Learners are exposed to language that is relevant and meaningful to them, allowing them to develop a deeper understanding of how language is used in specific contexts. By connecting language use to meaningful situations, learners can better grasp the pragmatic aspects of communication and develop the necessary skills to adapt their language use to different settings.

Learner-Centred Approach [editedit source](#)

The notional-functional syllabus adopts a learner-centred approach, recognizing the individual needs, goals, and interests of the learners. Language instruction is tailored to the specific linguistic needs and communicative goals of the learners, taking into account their proficiency levels, learning styles, and cultural backgrounds. Learners are actively involved in the learning process, participating in tasks and activities that are meaningful and relevant to their own lives. The syllabus promotes learner autonomy, encouraging learners to take responsibility for their language learning and make choices that align with their personal language learning objectives.

The combination of a focus on communication, contextualized language learning, and a learner-centred approach in the notional-functional syllabus creates an engaging and interactive learning environment. Learners are motivated to use language authentically, develop their language skills within relevant contexts, and actively participate in their own learning journey. These characteristics contribute to the overall effectiveness and practicality of the notional-functional syllabus in promoting language acquisition and meaningful communication.

Implementation[edit](#)[source](#)

The implementation of the notional-functional syllabus requires a dynamic and flexible approach. Teachers continuously monitor learners' progress, adjust lesson plans based on ongoing assessments, and provide opportunities for learners to reflect on their language learning experiences. The integration of needs analysis, targeted lesson planning, and learner-centered classroom techniques ensures that learners receive a comprehensive language learning experience that supports their communicative goals and helps them develop proficiency in using the target language in real-life contexts.

Needs analysis[edit](#)[source](#)

Implementing the notional-functional syllabus begins with conducting a thorough needs analysis of the learners. This analysis involves assessing their linguistic needs, communicative goals, and the specific contexts in which they will use the target language. By understanding the learners' individual requirements, teachers can identify the relevant notions and functions that need to be targeted in the language instruction. Needs analysis may include diagnostic tests, interviews, questionnaires, or observations to gather data about learners' language proficiency, communicative needs, and specific areas for improvement.

Lesson Planning[edit](#)[source](#)

[Lesson planning](#) in the notional-functional syllabus involves selecting appropriate tasks and activities that align with the identified notions and functions. Teachers design lessons that provide opportunities for learners to practice and develop their language skills within authentic contexts. Lesson plans typically include a progression of activities that scaffold learners' understanding and use of language, incorporating a variety of speaking, listening, reading, and writing activities. Tasks may involve role-plays, problem-solving activities, information gap exercises, and simulations, allowing learners to apply the target language in practical and meaningful ways.

Classroom Techniques[edit](#)[source](#)

Classroom techniques in the notional-functional syllabus emphasize learner engagement and interaction. Teachers employ strategies that promote pair work, group work, and collaborative learning to maximize opportunities for communication among learners. Authentic materials such as newspaper articles, videos, or real-life texts are used to expose learners to authentic language use. Teachers facilitate discussions, provide feedback, and encourage learners to reflect on their language use and strategies for effective communication. Error correction focuses on guiding learners towards more accurate and appropriate language use while maintaining the emphasis on meaningful communication.

Benefits and Criticisms[edit source](#)

Benefits[edit source](#)

Fostering Communicative Competence: The notional-functional syllabus prioritizes the development of communicative competence, equipping learners with the necessary skills to effectively engage in real-life communication. By focusing on notions and functions, learners learn how to express themselves accurately and appropriately, negotiate meaning, and comprehend authentic language use.

Encouraging Language Fluency and Accuracy: Through interactive and meaningful language tasks, learners have ample opportunities to practice using the language in context. This approach promotes both fluency and accuracy, as learners develop their ability to produce language spontaneously while also refining their grammatical accuracy and vocabulary usage.

Enhancing Learners' Confidence in Real-Life Situations: The notional-functional syllabus empowers learners by providing them with the tools and language skills necessary to confidently communicate in various contexts. Learners gain the confidence to express their ideas, needs, and opinions in the target language, enabling them to engage in authentic interactions with native speakers.

Criticisms and limitations[edit source](#)

Challenges in Assessment and Testing Assessing learners' progress and proficiency within the notional-functional syllabus can be complex. Traditional assessment methods that focus solely on discrete grammar and vocabulary knowledge may not effectively capture the holistic communicative competence developed through this approach. Designing valid and reliable assessments that reflect learners' ability to use language functionally and meaningfully can pose challenges.

Potential Neglect of Grammatical Accuracy: Critics argue that the notional-functional syllabus may sometimes prioritize meaning and communication to the detriment of

grammatical accuracy. In an effort to encourage authentic language use, there is a possibility that learners' errors or inaccuracies may not be adequately addressed. Balancing the development of fluency and accuracy remains an ongoing consideration in the implementation of this syllabus.

Examples[edit](#)[source](#)

Language Teaching Contexts[edit](#)[source](#)

ESL/EFL Classrooms: The notional-functional syllabus is commonly implemented in English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. It provides learners with the necessary language skills to communicate effectively in English-speaking environments. By targeting notions and functions relevant to daily life, such as [greetings](#), [making requests](#), or [giving directions](#), learners develop practical language abilities for their social and professional interactions.

Content-Based Language Learning: The notional-functional syllabus can be applied in content-based language learning programs, where language instruction is integrated with subject matter content. For example, in a science class, learners may focus on notions and functions related to scientific concepts, such as explaining a process or describing experimental results. This approach enhances both language proficiency and content knowledge simultaneously.

Case Studies[edit](#)[source](#)

Notional-Functional Syllabus in a Beginner-Level English Course: In a beginner-level English course, the notional-functional syllabus can be implemented by introducing basic notions and functions that lay the foundation for effective communication. Notions such as time, location, and quantity can be integrated with functions like greetings, introductions, and making simple requests. Learners engage in interactive activities such as role-plays, pair work, and group discussions to practice using language in realistic situations.

Integration of Notional-Functional Approach in a Specific Language Program: The notional-functional syllabus can be customized and integrated into a specific language program tailored to the needs of a particular learner group. For example, in a business English program, notions and functions relevant to the workplace, such as negotiating, presenting, and telephoning, can be emphasized. Language activities and tasks are designed to simulate real-life business scenarios, enabling learners to develop their language skills in a business context.

Department of English, UGV
Course Title: Introduction to ELT, Course Code: ENG-203
6th Semester
Week-13

Teaching-Learning Material



Teachers often use different learning and language tools and techniques to make learning captivating and impart **quality education**. To make learning more effective, teachers can take the assistance of teaching-learning materials or TLMs. In this article, we will bring to you everything that you need to know about teaching-learning material and more!

Explore: **What Makes A Good Teacher?**

About Teaching-Learning Material

Teachers can make their classes really intriguing and more significant for the students by utilizing a few articles or materials to help their verbal depictions. Utilizing an enormous assortment of materials is found to improve better comprehension of ideas and for making learning seriously fascinating. Teaching-learning material is also called Instructional material or Teaching Aids.

Today, with the emphasis on learning in a student-focused methodology, students need an ever-increasing number of materials to improve their ability to learn together or independently. 'TLM' becomes fundamental to having a superior comprehension of the nature of the subject matter.

Types of Teaching-Learning Material

Here are the types of teaching-learning material and aids to facilitate learning for kids:



Source: U4Uvoice.com

- **Visuals Aids:** Blackboard, Posters, Flashcards, Presentations, Printed textbooks, Graphs and Infographics
- **Audio Aids:** Radio, Tape-recorder and CDs
- **Audio-visual aids:** Videos, Video recordings, Films and Documentaries, Virtual Classrooms
- **Language Laboratory**
- **Computer-Assisted Learning:** Pre-recorded DVDs, CDs, online quizzes, ebooks, podcasts and blogs

Why Do We Need Teaching-Learning Material?

Given below are reasons why Teaching-Learning Material is crucial to learning:

- Learning new ideas becomes simpler if the student is given recognizable materials linked with the subject matter
- Typically little children are drawn to objects of various tones and measures and show their interest in controlling these in different manners which when fed cautiously assists with fostering a propensity for playing with an assortment of articles. This aids in upgrading their creativity.
- TLMs are required for compelling self-learning. With the utilization of proper materials, one can learn on their own with absolute power over their speed of learning.
- By utilizing Teaching Learning Materials, teachers turn amicable; a cordial environment is constructed which significantly helps in learning.

Explore: **Teacher Training Courses**

Characteristics of Good TLM

Given below are a few attributes of good Teaching Learning Material:

- The TLMs should be appealing to the kids. Size, shading (multicolour or splendid or engaging shading blend), development (like moving toys) and in a few cases the smell or/and taste or sound are a portion of the properties of the materials that allure students.
- Familiarity with TLMs will assist with presenting new ideas. The kids can likewise control these materials easily for significant learning of new ideas.
- The novelty of the material additionally draws in the kids. Surprising materials or novel use of natural materials are the appealing highlights of good TLMs.
- The material ought to have utilitarian worth. It is the appropriate utilization that makes the material positive or negative.
- Materials of numerous utilities like dice, sticks, marbles, 3D shapes and blaze cards can have numerous utilizations in practically all branches of knowledge of primary school educational plans and are subsequently more popular as TLMs in the schools.
- The simplicity of taking care of the materials which incorporate toughness, lightweight, and well-being (innocuous for use by kids) is a significant trademark for which such materials are liked in the educating learning measure.

Management of TLM

Given below are certain methods to manage Teaching Learning Material effectively:

- Guarantee accessibility of adequate TLMs for the free utilization by students.

- If you are intending to utilize the locally accessible materials, ask a few students to gather those and bring them to class.
- Before the initiation of the period, gather every one of the materials from the school store or from different sources.
- Use divider exercises, floor exercises, and materials arranged inside and outside the study hall like a nursery, jungle gym and so forth as wellsprings of learning
- Create a little gathering of students in your group who might be the forerunners in the assortment, readiness, and upkeep of the TLMs in the study hall. They ought to be given the duty to figure out the necessary TLMs before the beginning of the period and to supplant the materials in their individual putting away places after the period is finished. The gathering might be changed each month.
- For better support, keep a record (stock book) of TLMs in your group. It would work within finding the harmed and lost articles in order to have a convenient substitution of those articles.
- Once a month, the TLM stock ought to be checked and the store tidied up appropriately

Creative Ideas for TLM



Teaching Learning Materials for Primary Classes

- **Story Books:** Books with stories are excellent teaching and learning tools. Books can be read aloud to the class as a whole, after which students should write a brief essay summarising the text and discussing their impressions of the narrative.
- **Manipulatives:** Gummy bears, bricks, marbles, or even tiny cookies are examples of tangibles/manipulatives that help students learn. In the younger elementary grades, where kids can use them to solve subtraction and addition problems, manipulatives are extremely beneficial.

- **Videos:** There are many websites that provide free educational videos for children in the current digital era. Videos offer authentic, visual examples that can help make learning more engaging, but you must be careful to pick ones that are truly educational.
- **Flashcards:** Even today, in the era of computers and internet-based learning resources, individuals who have learning difficulties like dyslexia can benefit greatly from using flashcards.

Related Read: **Career Objective for a Teacher**

That was all about Teaching-Learning material. We hope this article was insightful for you. For more such informative content, follow **Leverage Edu on Facebook, Youtube, Instagram.**

English Pedagogy is one of the important subjects for the TET exams like **CTET**, **UPPET**, **REET**, **MP TET**, and many more. It is an essential part of an English subject and requires detailed attention to cover it. This study note is on one such important topic: **Teaching-Learning Materials of English Language Teaching**. We will study different teaching material, their characteristics, objective,s and how we can implement them, so read on.

About Teaching Learning Material:

Language is a medium through which one can express one's ideas, thoughts, feelings, and messages. Language teaching is somehow a difficult task as it is basically conditioned by the nature of the subjects. So for making the teaching interesting, a teacher can take the help of teaching-learning materials. While selecting the teaching-learning materials, a teacher should ensure that the skills of reading, understanding, listening, and speaking can be developed.

[Read Full Article](#)

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Teaching-Learning Materials:

The aids used by the teacher or facilitator in the classroom to make his teaching more understandable and effectively are known as the teaching-learning materials or teaching aids. It can be big or small and can be bought or made easily by both the teacher or students. For example, blackboard, map, chart, globe, tape recorder, etc.

Teachers should use teaching-learning materials in an appropriate way. It not only helps students to enhance their learning but also make their learning permanent. Before selecting the teaching aids, teachers should first think about their practical use and assess whether the aim of using aids i.e., the purpose of teaching can be achieved or not. The aids should be student-oriented and should be selected systematically to fulfil the purpose.

Characteristics of Teaching-Learning Materials:

Some of the characteristics of teaching-learning materials are given below:

- Teaching aids can be found easily whether in a market or can be made by teacher or students.
- Teaching aids are cheap and easy to carry.
- Teaching aids should be simple and able to adjust to classroom situations.
- Teaching aids make lessons enjoyable and interesting for the students.
- These aids save time, energy and the burden of a teacher

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Week-14

Language Testing and Evaluation



Forms of Language Assessment

Measuring language proficiency is a complex process that necessitates the use of valid and reliable language testing tools. Language assessments take various forms

depending on the skill or proficiency level being tested. In this post, we'll describe and define different types of language testing so you can better understand the ways you, your students, or your employees can accurately measure their language proficiency.



What Is Language Testing?

Language testing is a broad category of testing that assesses aspects of a person's ability to understand or communicate in a particular language. Language testing is used for a variety of purposes. In academic settings, language testing can assess a student's current abilities or progress for the purposes of academic placement. In professional settings, language testing can determine whether a candidate has the language skills needed for a job. Whatever the context, language assessments can effectively measure a person's language abilities.

Forms of Language Testing

There are five main kinds of language assessments - aptitude, diagnostic, placement, achievement and proficiency tests.



Forms of Language Testing

There are five main types of language assessments — aptitude, diagnostic, placement, achievement, and proficiency tests.

1. Aptitude Tests

Aptitude refers to a person's capacity for learning something. Language aptitude tests assess a person's ability to acquire new language skills. Because of the nature of these tests, they are more general than most other language tests and don't focus on a particular language. Instead, they assess how quickly and effectively a person is able to learn new language skills.

An employer might use an aptitude test to select the best employees to take language courses so they can aid in the setup of a new international branch or provide bilingual customer service.

2. Diagnostic Tests

Diagnostic tests are aimed at diagnosing the state of a person's abilities in a certain area — in this case, their language abilities. In contrast to achievement and proficiency tests, diagnostic tests are typically given at the start of a language learning course or program.

On a diagnostic test, most test-takers encounter questions or tasks that are outside the scope of their abilities and the material they're familiar with. The results of the test reveal the strengths and weaknesses in one's language abilities. Having a student's diagnostic test results can help teachers formulate lesson plans that fill the gaps in the student's current capabilities. Students can also use diagnostic tests to determine which areas they need to work on in order to reach a higher level of proficiency.

3. Placement Tests

Placement tests share some similarities with diagnostic tests. They are used for educational purposes and are administered before a course or program of study begins. In this case, the application is a bit different. Educators and administrators use placement tests to group language learners into classes or study groups according to their ability levels.

A university may give a placement test to determine whether a new French major needs to take introductory French courses or skip over some courses and begin with more advanced classes. Placement tests are also an important type of test in English language teaching at the university level, since international students typically come in with different English-learning backgrounds and proficiency levels.

4. Achievement Tests

An achievement test evaluates a student's language knowledge to show how their learning has progressed. Unlike diagnostic, aptitude, and placement tests, achievement tests only cover information the student should have been exposed to in their studies thus far.

Achievement tests are typically given after a class completes a certain chapter or unit or at the conclusion of the course. A language teacher may give a final exam at the end of the semester to see how well a student has retained the information they were taught over the course of the semester. Achievement tests are typically graded and are meant to reflect how well the language learner is performing in their language learning studies.

5. Proficiency Tests

Proficiency refers to a person's competency in using a particular skill. Language proficiency tests assess a person's practical language skills. Proficiency tests share some similarities with achievement tests, but rather than focusing on knowledge,

proficiency tests focus on the practical application of that knowledge. Proficiency tests measure a language user's comprehension and production against a rating scale such as the [ACTFL](#), [ILR](#), and [CEFR](#) scales.

Whereas most of the tests we've looked at are primarily associated with academic contexts, proficiency tests are useful in a variety of settings. Anyone can take a language proficiency test, regardless of how they learned the language and where they believe they are in their level of competency. Proficiency tests accurately measure the candidate's ability to use a language in real-life contexts.

Types of Language Skills



Listening



Speaking



Reading



Writing

Types of Language Skills

Another way to understand language testing is in terms of language skills. Though you may ask someone whether they "know" a certain language, that general term consists of several distinct skills. The four skills involved in language proficiency are listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

These skills can be categorized by their direction and method of communication. Listening and reading are both ways of receiving language input, whereas speaking and writing are both ways of producing language output. These pairs differ from each other when it comes to the direction of communication. The items within each pair, however, differ by their method of communication. Listening and speaking both involve oral communication while reading and writing involve written communication.

Let's take a closer look at each of the four language skills.

1. Listening

Listening skills in a particular language involve understanding oral communication. When people acquire their first language as babies, listening to their parents and

others speaking around them is the initial step toward comprehension and listening ability. Some people also acquire a second language through immersion, with their listening skills developing earliest.

2. Speaking

People often refer to speaking a language in a general way that encompasses multiple ways of using a language. For example, they may say they speak a certain language when a more accurate statement would be that they are able to communicate in it using all four of the communicative skills. Speaking is a specific skill, however, which, along with listening, is required to negotiate meaning in a conversation. Speaking requires communication in real time and may be one of the most challenging to develop yet most valuable of the four skills.

3. Reading

Comprehension of oral language and written language are two very different skills. The reading skill involves understanding the meaning of written language. A person may be able to speak a language with a high level of proficiency but be completely unable to read it, while other may find it easier to read than speak since they can consume and process the language at their own pace.

The degree of difficulty in learning to read in a second language partly depends on how similar or dissimilar the writing system is from that of a person's first language. For example, most European languages use the Latin alphabet, the world's most widely used alphabetic writing system, making letters appear similar on the page. Therefore, a native English speaker may be able to learn to read in Spanish relatively easily. However, a knowledge of the Latin alphabet won't help you understand Arabic script or Chinese characters. Reading tests can help you determine your proficiency in reading a language

4. Writing

Writing comes with the same challenges involved in reading since writing systems vary across languages. Learning to write in a second language that uses a completely different system from the one you're familiar with can be especially challenging. Writing doesn't come as naturally as speech, even in acquiring our first language, so it can be a challenging skill for language learners. This is why students often take writing courses in their first language throughout their educational careers.



Language Proficiency Tests

Some of the most well-respected tests for assessing these skills include the following:

- **Listening Proficiency Test**
- **Oral Proficiency Interview**
- **Reading Proficiency Test**
- **Writing Proficiency Test**

Language Proficiency Tests

ACTFL's language proficiency tests are designed to assess a person's abilities in the four skills explained above. Some of the most well-respected tests for assessing the above skills include:

- **Listening Proficiency Test:** The Listening Proficiency Test (LPT) is an internet-based test that measures a person's ability to spontaneously understand spoken language in one of 11 languages available. The test-taker listens to recordings and must answer multiple-choice questions about what they hear. The results report the test-taker's level of proficiency in listening.
- **Oral Proficiency Interview:** The Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) evaluates a person's speaking skill in a particular language. An ACTFL-Certified Tester speaks with the test-taker over the phone and gauges their proficiency level against the criteria outlined in one of the proficiency scales. The interview is a useful assessment tool because, though it follows a structure and protocol, it reflects a real-life conversation.
- **Oral Proficiency Interview-computer:** The Oral Proficiency Interview-computer (OPIc) evaluates a person's speaking skill in a particular language. The goal of the OPIc is the same as the OPI: to obtain a ratable sample of speech which a rater can evaluate and compare to the criteria outlined in one of the proficiency scales. The internet-delivered assessment emulates the "live" OPI, but delivery of questions is through a carefully designed program and via a virtual avatar, allowing the test to be taken on demand and at a time convenient to the candidate and proctor.
- **Reading Proficiency Test:** The Reading Proficiency Test (RPT) is an internet-based test during which the candidate reads passages in one of 12 languages and answers multiple-choice questions to demonstrate their reading comprehension in that language. Because of the format of the test, it is machine scored, so results are available immediately upon completion.
- **Writing Proficiency Test:** The Writing Proficiency Test (WPT) is another internet-based test. Rather than answering multiple-choice questions, the test-taker responds in detail to open ended writing prompts. ACTFL-Certified raters assess the candidate's written responses as compared to the guidelines established by one of the proficiency scales. This test is available in a variety of languages.

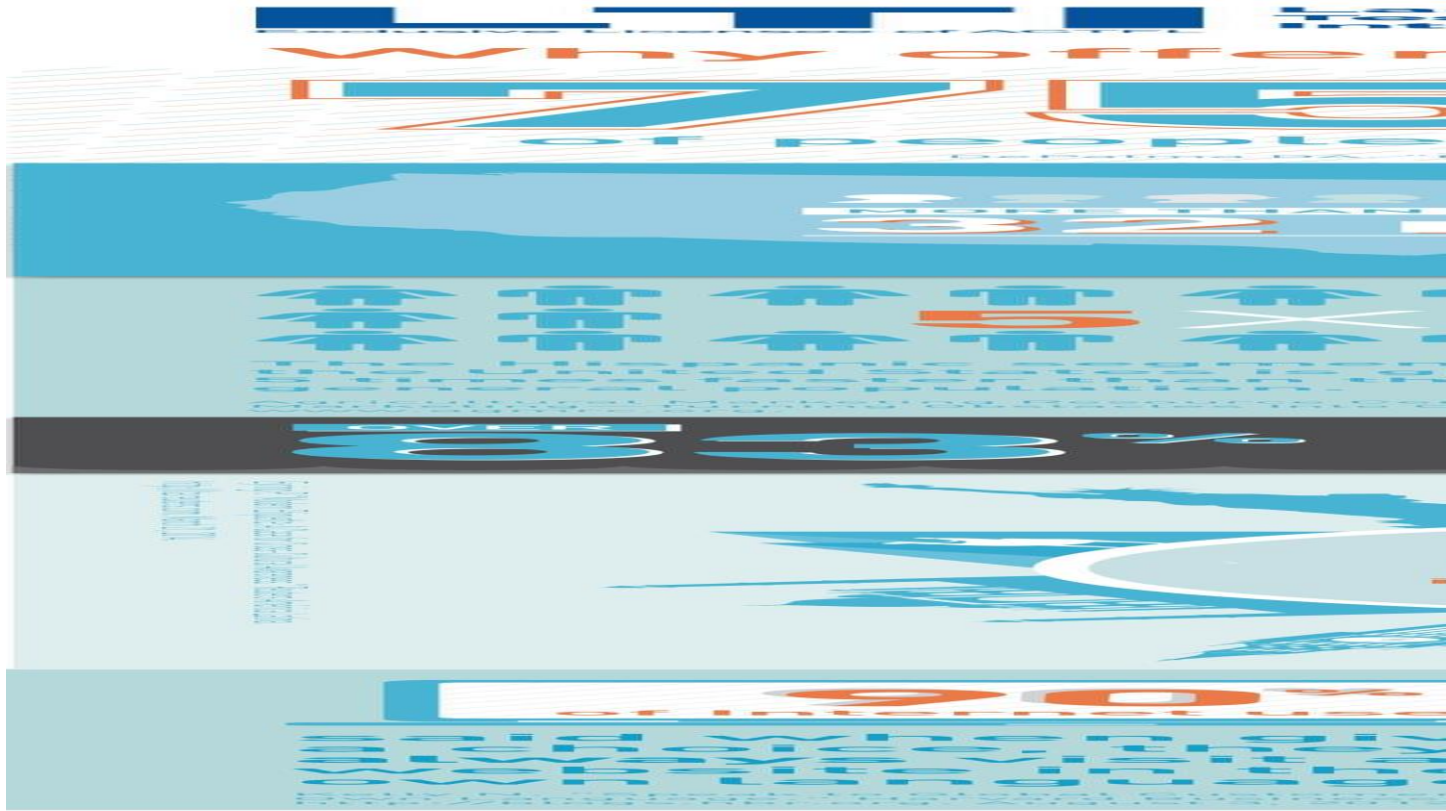
Through each test, the candidate's results are reported according to one of the following scales to objectively measure proficiency:

- The ACTFL scale
- The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) scale
- The Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) scale

The Value of Language Testing

Language testing is a valuable tool both in language-learning contexts and in professional ones. Language tests can define where a student is in their current knowledge and reveal the path forward to greater proficiency. Professionals can use language testing to determine whether their skill set meets the criteria of a job or whether they need further training. At the same time, employers can certify their employees' and new hires' levels of language proficiency and ensure that they are able to successfully complete the tasks required of them without creating risk for the organization.

Language is complex and assessing it can be a complicated endeavor. Thankfully, experts have created tests that effectively assess a person's language skills. As an instructor, employer, student, or professional, all you have to do is take advantage of these tests to get a useful measure of language proficiency.



Accredited ACTFL Language Assessments From Language Testing International (LTI)

Since 1967, ACTFL has been a leader in language proficiency testing. ACTFL assessments are used in over 60 countries and test language ability in more than 120 languages.

Language Testing International (LTI) is the exclusive licensee of ACTFL for the delivery of language assessments. Only ACTFL-certified testers and raters score the tests in order to ensure the reliability of test results. Because of LTI and ACTFL's shared reputation for quality testing and accurate results, many government agencies, academic institutions and major corporations recognize the ACTFL certifications obtainable through ACTFL testing as valid credentials for their students and professionals.

To learn more about language testing for yourself, your students, or your job applicants, [contact LTI](#) today.

