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وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي

Badji Mokhtar University - Annaba

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قسم الآداب و اللغة الإنجليزية



Didactics

Master II-Language Sciences

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Academic Year: 2021-2022

Didactics Syllabus

Master 2: Language Sciences

Introduction to Didactics

1. Learning: Factors and Processes
2. Understanding Post method pedagogy
 - 2.1. Postmethod Condition
 - 2.2. Postmethod Pedagogy
3. Teacher awareness
4. Classroom Management
5. Using technology in the classroom
6. Syllabus Design
7. Curriculum Development
8. Textbook Evaluation

1. Description of the Module

The module of Didactics is designed to master 2 students of English option Language sciences. The module is for one semester. It is concerned with learning factors and processes, understanding post method pedagogy, Teacher's self-awareness (Teachers' beliefs and reflective teaching), classroom management, educational technology, syllabus and curriculum design and textbook evaluation. This module focuses on developing learners' knowledge and awareness for an effective teaching/ learning situation as future teachers of English. This module is once a week for 1h.30.

2. Objectives

On a successful completion of the module, master 2 students through debates, discussions, individual/pair/ group works, think/pair/share technique will be able to:

1. Gain awareness of the processes and factors affecting the learning process.
2. Explain the reasons behind the post method conditions; recognize macro strategies and the micro strategies marking the post method pedagogy.
3. Identify the teacher's beliefs and reflective teaching practice as the essential components of teacher's self-awareness.
4. Recognize the components of classroom management and gain awareness of the effective conduct with learners' troublesome behavior.
5. Identify educational technologies and discuss the advantages and disadvantages of using Information and communication technologies in the classroom.
6. Identify then contrast syllabus design from curriculum development and recognize the main elements of each.

7. Define textbook evaluations and recognize the most important criteria to be considered.

3. Procedure

1. Learners should prepare the lessons for every session depending on the syllabus provided at the beginning of the year.
2. Students will first discuss their lesson preparation through classroom discussion or pair/group work in order to answer guiding questions.
3. The lessons' will be sent via email by the teacher after every session and sometimes before the lesson in the case of detailed lessons to ease classroom discussion.
4. The lessons end with homework that learners submit next session or to be discussed next session.

4. Assessment

TEFL is a module with two marks: the TD 50% and the exam (50%).

✓ TD mark is based on the following criteria:

1. Students' presence.
2. Students' participation.
3. Students' regular work.
4. The written test/quiz.

✓ The exam mark is totally based on the written exam.

5. Proposed Reading list

- Arnold, J. (1999). *Affect in language learning*. Cambridge University Press.
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Richards, J. C & Lockhart, C. 2007. Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms.

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Richards, J.C. & Farrell, T. S. C. 2005. Professional Development for Language Teachers.

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Saville-Troike, M. 2006. Introducing Second Language Acquisition. Cambridge University

Press.

Scrivener, J. 2011. Learning Teaching. Mcmillan Publishers Limited.

Introduction to Didactics

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able:

1. Provide a brief history of Didactics
2. Distinguish between method and methodology.

Brief History of Didactics

According to *Encyclopedia of Life Support Systems*, in Greek, the verb *dídasko* can be translated as to teach, to communicate, to learn. Also the adjective *didaktós* which means either teachable, communicable, announceable or taught, communicated.

Similarly, Navarro & Piñeiro (2012, p. 234) confirm that the word didactic comes from the Greek language “*didaskein*”. It means teaching and “*tékne*” suggests art; “art of teaching”. Didactic refers to the principles, phenomena, forms, precepts, and laws of teaching with no subject in particular (Stöcker, 1964). Hence they define didactic as the discipline that studies techniques, procedures, strategies, and methods to enhance the teaching process for students to approach in a wide, deep, and significant way the knowledge in the process of acquisition of English as a foreign language. They add that didactic strategies should be seen as: on purpose organization of the teaching and learning process structure to achieve goals, in which students not only learn a subject matter, but also gain knowledge of other forgotten contents as the capacity of cooperation, respect for oneself and the others’ differences, and value of people as human beings.

According to Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning (2013, p.197)

The terminology *Didactique des langues* (*Language teaching methodology*) is used in France to designate the discipline of foreign language teaching reflects the history of the field. Thus, since the beginning of the twentieth century the general term ‘pedagogy’ had been used and the profession spoke of language pedagogy. The 1950s and 1960s were the period when the scientific approach to language teaching developed due to the influence of linguistics and applied linguistics. The term *didactique des langues* (‘language didactics’) appeared in the 1970s, following the success of W.F. Mackey’s book, Language Teaching Analysis (1965) translated into French in 1972 with the title *Principles de didactique analytique*. The creation of this new designation corresponded to a break with tradition: it expressed the will to have foreign language teaching recognized as an autonomous discipline with its own objectives. Michel Dabène (1972: 10), the then director of CRÉDIF, along with the inspector Denis Girard (1972), was one of the first in France to speak of ‘language didactics’ to cover a specific discipline that takes into account the nature and the purpose of language teaching and not only the nature and functioning of language.

According to *Self-Access Booklets: Introduction to Didactics*, Didactics is one of the Sciences of Education. In particular, it deals with the processes of teaching and learning. It is different from other Education Sciences in that it concentrates specifically on how teachers, learners and knowledge interact and support one another. Because of this reason, it is a key subject in the teacher education curriculum. Given its emphasis it acts as a hinge between the general education subjects and the subject specific disciplines, which make up the core of a teacher's knowledge.

Method and methodology

According to Kumaravadivelu (2008, p.162) a distinction between *method* and *methodology* was made. Method is a construct; methodology is a conduct. Method is an expert's notion derived from an understanding of the theories of language, of language learning, and of language teaching. It is also reflected in syllabus design, textbook production, and, above all, in recommended classroom procedures. Methodology, on the other hand, is what the teacher does in the classroom in order to maximize learning opportunities for the learner (p.163). Each established method is supposed to have a specified set of theoretical principles and a specified set of classroom practices. One might, therefore, think that the different methods provide different pathways to language learning and teaching. That is not so. In fact, there is considerable overlap in their theory and practice.

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- Encyclopedia of Life Support Systems (EOLSS). QUALITY OF HUMAN RESOURCES:
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<https://www.eolss.net/sample-chapters/c11/E1-12-90.pdf>
- Navarro, D & Piñeiro, M. 2012. Didactic Strategies for Teaching English as a Foreign
language in seventh and eighth Grades in secondary schools in costa rica áñina, *Artes
y Letras, Univ. Costa Rica XXXVI (2): 233-251 / ISSN:0378-0473*

Self-Access Booklets: Introduction to Didactics. Programa de Políticas lingüísticas

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Learning: Factors and Processes

Objectives of the lesson

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Identify the broad factors affecting learning
2. Recognize the three main processes of learning: Input, intake and out put
3. Clarify the Intake factors: INTAKE
4. Explain the Intake processes: Inferencing, Structuring and restructuring
5. Distinguish between the intake processes.

Learning Factors

According to Sumague (2010), various factors affect the process of learning and they are **broadly** categorized into three types as physiological factors, psychological factors; and environmental factors as follows: (p. 41- 47) .

a) Physiological Factors

The physiological factor includes: Sense perception, physical health; fatigue; time and day of learning; food and drink; atmospheric conditions; and age.

1. Sense Perception: Perception and sensation are the foundation of all kinds of cognitive learning. If the potential of perception is weak, then the amount of learning will be very less. For example, a blind man generally learns very less as compared to a normal man. In the process of learning, impairment of sense organs is a drawback.

2. Physical Health: Health, in the process of learning matters a lot. If the health is poor, it greatly hampers the learning. It has been said that, sound mind exists only in a sound body. Good physical health provides vitality and strength to pursue learning activities for a better education. A person having diseases or any other health issue is considered handicapped for any kind of mental activity.

3. Fatigue: Sensory or muscular fatigue causes mental boredom as well as indolence. Various factors at home or in the school environment may cause mental and physical fatigue, such as bad seat arrangement, lack of accommodation, inadequate ventilation, unhealthy clothing, poor light and pure nutrition. Long hours of study also cause fatigue that eventually affects the capacity of learning.

4. Time of Learning: It has been observed that morning and evening hours are considered as the best time to study. During the day hours, there is a reduction in the mental capacity.

5. Food and Drink: Nutrition is highly important for efficient mental activity. Poor nutrition affects the learning in adverse manner. The kind of food consumption plays a crucial role. The consumption of caffeine, alcoholic drinks, tobacco, and various other addictive items have harmful effect on the neuro-muscular system of a person and eventually on the capacity of learning, as these items slows down the functioning of brain.

6. Atmospheric Conditions: Humidity and high temperature lower the mental efficiency. Lack of proper illumination, low ventilation, noise and physical discomfort affects the capacity of learning. All kinds of distractions affect the concentration power and this last affects the efficiency of learning.

7. Age: The capacity of learning differs with the age of person. There are certain subjects that can be better learnt at an early age and some other during adulthood. Some complex

issues and problems cannot be solved till the person is suitably mature to learn school subjects much easily as compared to the uneducated adults.

b) **Psychological Factors**

The psychological factors include: mental health; motivation and interest; success, praise, and blame; rewards and punishment.

1. Mental Health: Mental tension, mental illnesses, conflicts, complexes, and mental diseases hamper the process of learning. Concentration basically requires mental peace as well as absence of mental complex or conflict. Some of the learners find it very difficult to prepare for the examination, just because of fear of the examination as well as anxiety neurosis. *A serene, calm and balanced mind have the potential to concentrate and learn in a better way.*

2. Motivation and Interest: Learning cannot take place without motivation. Learning without any purpose is not considered as learning. Every person is encouraged by motivation to learn new things. When there is no motive, the person will not feel interested in learning. The behavior of people in learning is mainly energized by the motives, selected by motives and directed by motives.

- i. **Motives Energize Behavior:** Thirst and hunger induce procurement of food, rewards are responsible for further success and failure or punishment encourages actions for achievement.
- ii. **Motives Select Behavior:** Only those acts of learning are selected that have some kind of motive. A boy observes toys or other things that made him interested.

- iii. **Motives Direct Behavior:** Motives encourage the person; stimulate him to do certain desired actions. They direct the energies of people to reach their set aims or goals.

c) Environmental Factors

The environmental factors mainly include: working conditions; and organizational set-up.

1. Working Conditions: Learning is mainly affected by bad conditions of working such as noise, distraction, poor illumination, overcrowding, bad ventilation, uncomfortable stay and bad seating arrangement. The location of learning institute, the internal set-up, the decoration and accommodation, sanitary and healthy conditions are known to be significant for effective learning.

2. Organizational Set-Up: The organizational set-up influences learning in various ways:

a) The timetable should be based on the principles of psychology. It should always avoid boredom and fatigue. Tough or complex systems should be taught during the morning hours. After some periods, there must be intervals.

b) The democratic organization encourages a healthy atmosphere for learning.

c) The relation between a learner and a teacher must be healthy so that there is a kind of mental cooperation and the people are encouraged to learn.

d) There must be some kind of competition. This interclass/ inter-house competitions will encourage people to work more in order to outperform others. However, rivalry and jealousy should be avoided. Group rivalry should be strengthened.

e) The participation or involvement of people must always be active. They should not behave as passive learners.

f) Support and guidance in the selection of activities and subjects in accordance with the age, aptitude and ability of people should be provided. Unguided children may fluctuate from one subject to another, and hence gather no mass.

Learning Processes

According to Saville-Troike (2006), approaches based on information processing (IP) are concerned with the mental processes involved in language learning and use. These include perception and the input of new information; the formation, organization, and regulation of internal (mental) representations; and retrieval and output strategies (p.73). He explains, “**Input** for SLA is whatever sample of L2 that learners are exposed to, but it is not available for processing unless learners actually notice it: i.e. pay attention to it. Then it can become **intake**; “It is at this point of perception of input where priorities are largely determined and where attentional resources are channeled” (pp. 74-75). He adds, **Output** for SLA is the language that learners produce, in speech/sign or in writing.

Kumaravadivelu (2008) discusses five major constructs that constitute the input–output chain, they are: ***input, intake, intake factors, intake processes, and output*** as they relate to adult L2 development in formal contexts

INPUT

Kumaravadivelu (2008, p. 26) defines input as oral and/or written corpus of the target language (TL) to which L2 learners are exposed through various sources, and recognized

by them as language input. This definition posits two conditions: ***availability and accessibility***.

a) ***Availability*** is either input has to be made available to learners or they have to seek it themselves. Three types of input can be identified

- ***Interlanguage input***: the still-developing language of the learners and of their peers with all its linguistically well-formed as well as deviant utterances;
- ***simplified input***: the grammatically and lexically simplified language that teachers, textbook writers, and other competent speakers use in and outside the classroom while addressing language learners; and
- ***nonsimplified input***: the language of competent speakers without any characteristic features of simplification, that is, the language generally used in the media (TV, radio, and newspapers), and also the language used by competent speakers to speak and write to one another. Each of these three sources of input can manifest itself in various forms: spoken and written, formal and informal, and so on.

b) ***Accessibility***: is less obvious than the first but is equally important: input has to be recognized by learners as language input, and accepted by them as something with which they can cope. In other words, input should be ***linguistically and cognitively*** accessible to them.

The language input that is available, but not accessible, is no more than noise. He adds that factors such as learners' needs and wants, as well as their interests and motivation may affect their perception of input.

INTAKE

According to Kumaravadivelu (2008, p. 27), unlike input, the concept of intake is not easy to pin down. The literature on second language acquisition (SLA) presents several conflicting definitions and explanations for the term intake. Amid all the conceptual and terminological ambiguity, two strands of thought emerge: one that treats intake primarily as product, and the other that treats it primarily as process.

- a) **Product view:** intake primarily as a product is a subset of linguistic input exposed to the learner. It is *before* the input is processed by learners. In other words, intake is input, even though it is only a part of it. The product view of intake appears to be severely flawed. It implies that there is no need to differentiate input from intake as shown in Figure 1.

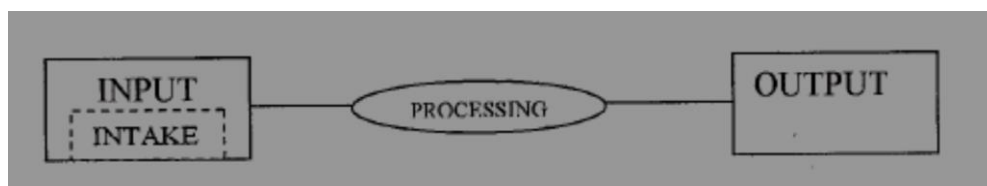


Figure 1: The product view of Intake (Kumaravadivelu, 2008, p. 28)

- b) **The process view**, however, identifies intake as what comes *after* psycholinguistic processing. That is, intake is already part of the learner's IL system. According to the product view, intake then is *unprocessed* language input; according to the process view, it is *processed* language input.

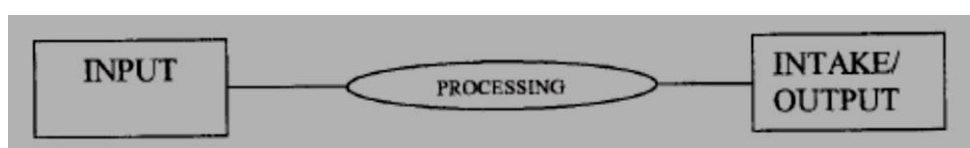


Figure 2: The process view of Intake (Kumaravadivelu, 2008, p. 28)

Kumaravadivelu (2008, p. 28) concludes that intake is an abstract entity of learner language that has been fully or partially processed by learners, and fully or partially assimilated into their developing IL system. It is the result of as yet undetermined interaction between input and intake factors mediated by intake processes. It is not directly observable, quantifiable, or analyzable; it is a complex cluster of mental representations. What is available for empirical verification is the product of these mental representations, generally called *output*. Features of learners' output can be traced, not only to the input they are exposed to, but to the dynamics of intake processes as well. The relationship between input, intake, and output

INTAKE FACTORS

According to Kumaravadivelu (2008, p. 29) *Intake factors* refer to learner internal and external factors that are brought to bear on the psycholinguistic processes of language learning. Just as scholars differ on the concept of intake, they differ widely on their choice of intake factors as well. The major highlighted intake factors can be represented by an acronym, **INTAKE**:

Individual factors: age and anxiety;

Negotiation factors: interaction and interpretation;

Tactical factors: learning strategies and communication strategies;

Affective factors: attitudes and motivation;

Knowledge factors: language knowledge and metalinguage knowledge;

Environmental factors: social context and educational context.

These factors can be classified into two broad categories: *learner internal* and *learner external* factors as shown in Figure 3.

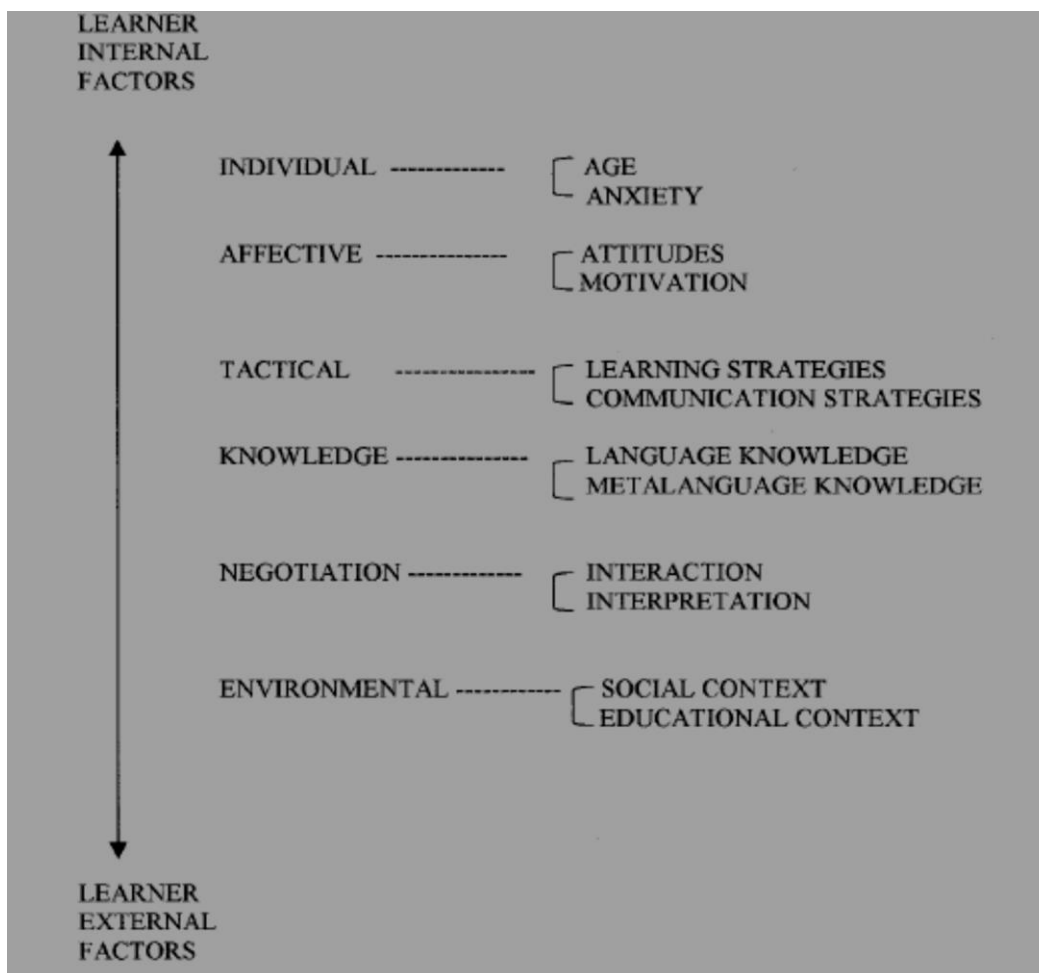


Figure 3: Intake Factors Continuum (Kumaravadivelu, 2008, p. 31)

INTAKE Processes

For Kumaravadivelu (2008, p.45), Intake processes are cognitive mechanisms that at once mediate between, and interact with, input data and intake factors. They consist of mental operations that are specific to language learning as well as those that are required for general problem-solving activities. As procedures and operations that are internal to the

learner, intake processes remain the most vital and the least understood link in the input–intake–output chain. The intake processes that appear to shape L2 development may be grouped under three broad and overlapping categories: ***inferencing, structuring, and restructuring.***

These processes appear to govern what goes on in the learners' mind when they attempt to internalize the TL system, that is, **infer** the linguistic system of the TL from the available and accessible input data, **structure** appropriate mental representations of the TL system, and **restructure** the developing system in light of further exposure and experience.

a) Inferencing

The intake process of *inferencing* involves making a series of intelligent guesses to derive tentative hypotheses about various aspects of the TL system. Inferences are normally made by using all available, at times inconclusive, linguistic and nonlinguistic evidence based on the learner's implicit and explicit knowledge base. ***Implicit knowledge*** refers to information learners intuit about the TL, even though they cannot articulate that information in the form of rules or principles. ***Explicit knowledge*** refers to the learners' knowledge about the TL, their L1, and their knowledge of the world.

Similarly, inferencing can be made using ***inductive*** as well as ***deductive*** reasoning. That is, learners can infer how a particular subsystem of language works by moving inductively from the particular to the general (i.e. from examples to rules), or moving deductively from the general to the particular. Furthermore, L2 learners may benefit from the processes of *overgeneralization* and *language transfer* to make inferences about the TL system. Using ***intralingual*** cues, they may overgeneralize certain features of the TL system on the basis of any partial learning that may have already taken place. Similarly, using interlingual cues,

learners may transfer certain phonological, morphological, syntactic, or even pragmatic features of their first language.

He adds that *Inferencing* is particularly useful when the learners are able to pay attention to the new features presented in the input data in order to find the gap between what is already known and what needs to be learned anew. The process of inferencing can be expected to vary from learner to learner because it reflects individual cognitive capabilities involving the connections made by learners themselves and not the connections inherently found in the input data. It can lead to working hypotheses that in turn may lead to interim conclusions that are tested against new evidence and are subsequently rejected or refined. Inferencing thus may entail framing new insights or reframing what is already vaguely or partially known (p.46).

b) Structuring

It refers to the complex process that governs the establishment of mental representations of the TL, and their evolution in the course of IL development. It refers to how the L2 system is framed in the mind of the learner (p.46). It combines elements of analysis and control:

- ✓ **Analysis** is connected to language knowledge, and control is connected to language ability. As learners begin to understand how the L2 system works, and as their mental representations of the system become more explicit and more structured, they begin to see the relationships between various linguistic categories and concepts.
- ✓ **Control** is the process that allows learners “direct their attention to specific aspects of the environment or a mental representation as problems are solved in real time” (Bialystok, 2002, p. 153).

In other words, the intake process of structuring helps learners construct, structure and organize the symbolic representational system of the TL by gradually making explicit the implicit knowledge that shape their IL performance. It also guides the gradual progress the learners make from unanalyzed knowledge, consisting of prefabricated patterns and memorized routines, to analyzed knowledge, consisting of propositions in which the relationship between formal and functional properties of the TL become increasingly apparent to the learners.

Compared to inferencing, structuring gives learners not only a deeper understanding of the properties and principles of the TL system, but also a greater control over their use for communicative purposes. It helps them pay selective attention to relevant and appropriate input data in order to tease out specific language problems. It can also regulate the flow of information between short-term and long-term memory systems, taking the responsibility for differential applicability of interim knowledge to various situations before interim knowledge gets fully established.

c) Restructuring

For Kumaravadivelu (2008, p. 47), restructuring denotes neither an incremental change in the structure already in place nor a slight modification of it but ***the addition of a totally new structure to allow for a totally new interpretation***. It results in learners abandoning their initial hunch and **opting for a whole new hypothesis**. It marks a strategy shift that coordinates, integrates, and reorganizes task components resulting in more efficient intake processing.

To sum up, the intake processes of inferencing, structuring, and restructuring constitute the mental mechanisms governing L2 development. They work in tandem in as yet

undetermined ways to facilitate or constrain the formation of mental representations of the TL system. They seem to operate at various points on the implicit–explicit continuum, triggering incidental learning at some times and intentional learning at some other times. In conjunction with various intake factors, these processes help learners synthesize the developing knowledge into grammar, and internalize it so as to effectively and efficiently access it in appropriate contexts of language use.

Output

Kumaravadivelu (2008, p.48), *Output* refers to the corpus of utterances that learners actually produce orally or in writing. In addition to well-formed utterances that may have already been structured and/or restructured, the learner output will contain, deviant utterances that cannot be traced to any of the three major sources of input because they are the result of an interplay between intake factors and intake processes. Traditionally, output has been considered not as a mechanism for language learning but as **evidence** of what has already been learned.

In a later work, Swain (1995) identified three possible functions of output (cited in Kumaravadivelu (2008, p.48):

- a) The *noticing function* relates to the possibility that when learners try to communicate in their still-developing target language, they may encounter a linguistic problem and become aware of what they do not know or know only partially. Such an encounter may raise their awareness, leading to an appropriate action on their part.
- b) The hypothesis-testing function of output relates to the possibility that when learners use their still developing TL, they may be experimenting with what works

and what does not work. Moreover, when they participate in negotiated interaction and receive negative feedback, they are likely to test different hypotheses about a particular linguistic system.

- c) The metalinguistic function of output relates to the possibility that learners may be consciously thinking about language and its system, about its phonological, grammatical, and semantic rules in order to guide them to produce utterances that are linguistically correct and communicatively appropriate.

For Saville-Troike (2006), meaningful production practice helps learners by:

- Enhancing fluency by furthering development of automaticity through practice
- Noticing gaps in their own knowledge as they are forced to move from semantic to syntactic processing, which may lead learners to give more attention to relevant information
- Testing hypotheses based on developing interlanguage, allowing for monitoring and revision
- Talking about language, including eliciting relevant input and (collaboratively) solving problems (p. 75)

An Interactive Framework of Intake Processes

The interactive framework consists of input, intake factors, **a *central processing unit* (CPU)**, and output. The CPU consists of the cognitive processes of inferencing, structuring, and restructuring. The initial phase of intake processing is probably activated when learners begin to pay attention to the linguistic input they deem accessible or comprehensible. The input, with bits and pieces of information about the TL system, enters the CPU either directly or through any one or more intake factors. The entry initiates the

process of language construction. At this early stage, intake processing appears to operate at several layers, some of which may depend heavily on temporary, limited capacity, short-term working memory systems that in turn involve, to a large degree, prefabricated routines and idiomatic expressions (p. 51).

An important task of the CPU at this stage appears to be to reduce the pressure on working memory systems by coding the incoming pieces of information into some meaningful organizational schemas. Such coding, which is probably a precursor to fully established mental representations, is assisted by the intake process of *inferencing*. Inferencing helps learners derive working hypotheses about syntactic, semantic and pragmatic aspects of the TL. Depending on the learning and teaching situation, learners might get various types of positive evidence, that is, well-formed utterances exposed to them, and negative evidence, that is, explicit corrections from their teachers or other competent speakers of the language, both of which will help them reject or refine their working hypotheses. This level of intake processing involving attention-allocation, short-term memory, and integration of pieces of information constitutes a part of what has been called *controlled information processing* (Figure 4).

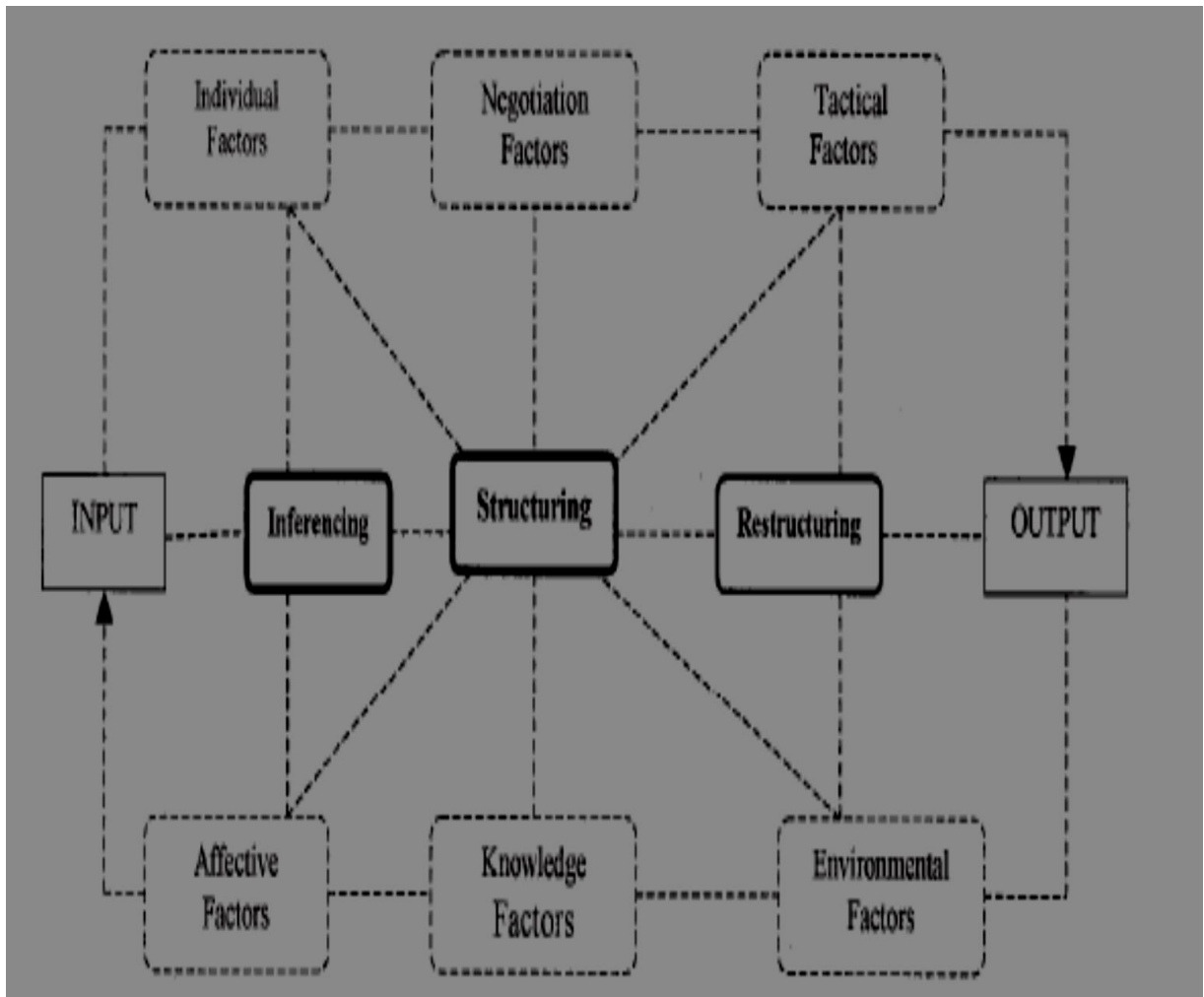


Figure 4: An Interactive Framework of Intake processes (Kumaravadivelu, 2008, p. 50)

The interactive framework also suggests that the linguistic input is not processed linearly by proceeding step by step from one intake factor through another, or from one intake process through another. Instead, the entire operation is seen as interactive and parallel, responding simultaneously to all available factors and processes at a given point of time.

Homework

1. In a chart, compare and contrast between the three processes of learning: Input, intake and output.

2. In a chart, compare between the three processes of intake.
3. Using mapping, demonstrate the learning processes with the main details.

References

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Understanding Post method pedagogy:

Post-method Condition

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Clarify the postmethod condition
2. Explain the limits of “method”.

The limits of method

According to Brown (2002), in the century spanning the mid-1880s to the mid-1980s, the language teaching profession was involved in what many pedagogical experts would call a search. That search was for a single, ideal method that would successfully teach students a foreign language in the classroom. Hence, methods are no longer the milestones of language teaching journey for the following reasons (p 9):

1. Methods are too prescriptive, assuming too much about a context before the context has even been identified. They are therefore overgeneralized in their potential application to practical situations.
2. Generally, methods are quite distinctive at the early, beginning stages of a language course and rather indistinguishable from each other at later stages. In the first few days of a Community Language Learning class, for example, the students witness a unique set of experiences in their small circles of translated language whispered in

their ears. But, within a matter of weeks, such classrooms can look like any other learner-centered curriculum.

3. It was once thought that methods could be empirically tested by scientific quantification to determine which one is “best.” We have now discovered that something as artful and intuitive as language pedagogy cannot ever be so clearly verified by empirical validation.

However, Brown (2002) adds that although traces of the principal ingredients of the old methods still effectively find their way into our array of pedagogical options for treatment, our profession has emerged into an era of understanding a vast number of language teaching contexts and purposes, and an even larger number of student needs, learning styles, and affective traits (p.17). Nevertheless, Kumaravadivelu (2008) advances that the nature and the scope of method was under critical thoughts. He clarifies that the concept of method has severe limitations that have long been overlooked by many. They relate mainly to its ambiguous usage and application, to the exaggerated claims made by its proponents and consequently to the gradual erosion of its utilitarian value. What is meant by postmethod condition? How is it different from the earlier state of affairs? (p. 162).

The Myths of Method

The established methods were motivated and maintained by multiple myths listed as follows:

- ❑ *Myth #1: There is a best method out there ready and waiting to be discovered:*
There was the obsession with a search for the best method.
- ❑ *Myth #2: Method constitutes the organizing principle for language teaching.*

There was a belief that the concept of method can constitute the core of the entire language learning and teaching operations. Method was treated as an all-pervasive, all-powerful entity. It has guided the form and function of every conceivable component of language teaching including curriculum design, syllabus specifications, materials preparation, instructional strategies, and testing techniques.

- ❑ *Myth #3: Method has a universal and a historical value.* Our quest for the best method has always directed us toward finding a universal, a historical method that can be used anywhere and everywhere. There are several drawbacks that are inherent in this outlook. First of all, established methods are founded on idealized concepts geared toward idealized contexts. Secondly, our search for a universally applicable method has been predominantly and inevitably a top-down exercise. That is, the conception and construction of methods have been largely guided by a one-size-fits-all approach that assumes a common clientele with common goals. Thirdly, ignored local knowledge as people have been learning and teaching foreign languages long before modern methods arrived on the scene.
- ❑ *Myth #4: Theorists conceive knowledge, and teachers consume knowledge.* In the field of language teaching, there is a clearly perceptible dichotomy between theory and practice, resulting in an unfortunate division of labor between the theorist and the teacher. The artificial dichotomy between theory and practice has also led us to believe that teachers would gladly follow the principles and practices of established methods. However, it has been found that
 - Teachers who claim to follow a particular method do not conform to its theoretical principles and classroom procedures at all;
 - Teachers who claim to follow different methods often use the same classroom procedures;

- Teachers who claim to follow the same method often use different procedures, and
- Teachers develop and follow in their classroom a carefully crafted sequence of activities not necessarily associated with any particular method. In other words, teachers seem to be convinced that no single theory of learning and no single method of teaching will help them confront the challenges of everyday teaching. They use their own intuitive ability and experiential knowledge to decide what works and what does not work. There is thus a significant variance between what theorists advocate and what teachers do in their classroom.
- *Myth #5: Method is neutral, and has no ideological motivation:* The concept of method has little theoretical validity and even less practical utility. Its meaning is ambiguous, and its claim dubious.

As a result, the deep discontent with the concept of method accumulating for a considerable length of time has finally resulted in the emergence of the *postmethod condition*.

Homework

In a chart format, summarize the limitations and myths related to “method”.

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Brown, D. 2002. English Language Teaching in the “Post-Method” Era: Toward Better Diagnosis, Treatment, and Assessment. In Richards, J. C & Renandya, W.A. 2002. Methodology in Language Teaching(9-18). Cambridge University Press.

Kumaravadivelu, B. 2008. *Understanding Language Teaching From Method to Postmethod*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Postmethod Pedagogy

Objectives of the lesson

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Recognize the three parameters of postmethod pedagogy
2. Distinguish between the three parameters
3. Develop awareness of the macro-strategies related to the post method pedagogy

According to Kumaravadivelu (2008, p. 170), the *postmethod condition* is a sustainable state of affairs that compels us to fundamentally restructure our view of language teaching and teacher education. It urges to review the character and content of classroom teaching in all its pedagogical and ideological perspectives.

Pedagogic Parameters

Postmethod pedagogy can be visualized as a three-dimensional system consisting of three pedagogic parameters: particularity, practicality, and possibility. They are explained as follows:

✓ *The Parameter of Particularity*

The most important aspect of postmethod pedagogy is its *particularity*. That is to say, any postmethod pedagogy “*must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural*

milieu” (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 171). The parameter of particularity then rejects the very idea method-based pedagogies are founded upon namely, there can be one set of teaching aims and objectives realizable through one set of teaching principles and procedures. The parameter of particularity emphasizes local exigencies and lived experiences; “It involves a critical awareness of local conditions of learning and teaching that policymakers and program administrators have to seriously consider in putting together an effective teaching agenda” (p.172). More importantly, it involves practicing teachers, either individually or collectively, observing their teaching acts, evaluating their outcomes, identifying problems, finding solutions, and trying them out to see once again what works and what doesn’t. In that sense, the particular is so deeply embedded in the practical, and cannot be achieved or understood without it. The parameter of particularity, therefore, merges into the parameter of *practicality*.

✓ ***The Parameter of Practicality***

The parameter of practicality relates broadly to ***the relationship between theory and practice***, and narrowly to the teacher’s skill in monitoring his or her own teaching effectiveness. The parameter of practicality, then, focuses on teachers’ reflection and action, which are also based on their insights and intuition.

✓ ***The Parameter of Possibility.***

The position that pedagogy is closely linked to power and dominance and is aimed at creating and sustaining social inequalities. They stress the importance of acknowledging and highlighting ***students’ and teachers’ individual identity***. They also stress the “the need to develop theories, forms of knowledge, and social

practices. The parameter of possibility is also concerned with language ideology and learner identity language education provides its participants with challenges and opportunities for a continual quest for subjectivity and self identity.

In sum, the three pedagogic parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility constitute the conceptual foundation for a postmethod pedagogy. They have the potential to function as operating principles, guiding various aspects of L2 learning and teaching.

Macrostrategies and Microstrategies

For Kumaravadivelu (2001), *Macrostrategies* are general plans derived from currently available theoretical, empirical, and pedagogical knowledge related to L2 learning and teaching. A macrostrategy is a broad guideline on which teachers can generate their own location-specific, need-based microstrategies or classroom procedures. In other words, macrostrategies are made operational in the classroom through microstrategies. The strategic framework comprises 10 macrostrategies as follows:

1. *Maximize learning opportunities*

Teaching is the process of creating and utilizing learning opportunities. Teachers are seen both as creators of learning opportunities for their learners and utilizers of learning opportunities created by learners. As creators of learning opportunities teachers need to strike a balance between their role as planners of teaching acts and their role as mediators of learning.

2. *Facilitate negotiated interaction*

It refers to meaningful learner–learner, learner–teacher interaction in class where the learners have the freedom and flexibility to initiate and navigate talk, not just

react and respond to it. Negotiated interaction means that the learner should be actively involved

3. *Minimize perceptual mismatches*

Communication in general has been defined as a gradual reduction of uncertainty. What impact classroom activities will have on the learning process depend as much on learner perception as on teacher preparation, as much on learner interpretation as on teacher intention. It is therefore essential to sensitize ourselves to the potential sources of mismatch between teacher intention and learner interpretation.

4. *Activate intuitive heuristics*

One way of activating the intuitive heuristics of the learner is to provide enough textual data so that the learner can infer certain underlying rules of form and function. A good deal of linguistic and discoursal information can be conveyed, not directly through rules, but indirectly through examples. Learners may be encouraged to find the rule-governing pattern in the examples provided.

5. *Foster language awareness;*

Language awareness refers to the deliberate attempt to draw learners' attention to the formal properties of their L2 in order to increase the degree of explicitness required to promote L2 learning. Language awareness is based on strategies that emphasize understanding, general principles, and operational experience

6. *Contextualize linguistic input;*

It is the teacher who can succeed or fail in creating contexts that encourage meaning-making in the classroom.

7. *Integrate language skills;*

Language skills are essentially interrelated and mutually reinforcing.

8. *Promote learner autonomy*

The postmethod learner is an autonomous learner. Because language learning is largely an autonomous activity, promoting learner autonomy is vitally important. It involves helping learners learn how to learn, equipping them with the metacognitive, cognitive, social, and affective strategies necessary to self-direct their own learning, raising the consciousness of good language learners about the learning strategies they seem to possess intuitively, and making the strategies explicit and systematic so that they are available to improve the language-learning abilities of other learners as well.

9. *Ensure social relevance*

Social relevance refers to the need for teachers to be sensitive to the societal, political, economic, and educational environment in which L2 education takes place.

10. *Raise cultural consciousness.*

Culture teaching has always been an integral part of L2 teaching. Traditionally, it is aimed at creating in the L2 learner an awareness of and empathy toward the culture of the L2 community.

Microstrategies

Microstrategies are classroom procedures that are designed to realize the objectives of a particular macrostrategy (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 2012). Each macrostrategy can have any number of, and any type of, microstrategies, depending on the local learning and teaching situation. However, microstrategies are conditioned and constrained by the national, regional, or local language policy and planning, curricular objectives, institutional resources, and a host of other factors that shape the learning and teaching enterprise in a

given context. Most of all, they have to be designed keeping in mind the learners' needs, wants, and lacks, as well as their current level of language knowledge/ability.

Homework

1. In a chart format, compare between the three parameters of post method pedagogy.
2. Using mapping, summarize the macrostrategies of the post method pedagogy.

Reference

Kumaravadivelu, B. 2008. *Understanding Language Teaching From Method to Postmethod*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Teacher Awareness

Objectives of the lesson

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Define teaching
2. Identify the components of teacher's beliefs
3. Recognize the phases of the reflective teaching cycle
4. Be aware of the different stances of reflection

Teaching

According to Bartlett (1997, p. 204) teaching as an interactive process that needs to develop shared understandings in a community of knowledge users and developers. He advocates that teaching becomes pedagogy when teachers involve learners in learning inside and outside the classroom. Richards, Ho & Giblin (1996) define teaching as a cognitive as well as a behavioural activity which is concerned with knowledge, awareness, beliefs and skills. For Cowan (2006, p. 100), teaching is the purposeful creation of situations from which motivated learners should not escape without learning or developing. Teaching is a continuous process of thought and action; it is the tool of fostering learning in an interactive atmosphere; it is also the art of involving learners in their learning inside and outside the classroom. Teachers' awareness is mainly considered with teachers' beliefs and reflective teaching. Stern (2001, p. 21), further, explains that a theory of language teaching always implies concepts of language learning; he defines teaching as the activities which are intended to bring about language learning.

Teachers' Beliefs

Richards (2000) argues for two dimensions of teacher knowledge that influence teachers' understanding and practice of teaching. The first relates to subject matter and curriculum issues and the way of presenting the content of the lesson in an effective way. The second kind of knowledge relates to teachers' implicit theories of teaching including their personal and subjective philosophy and their understanding of what constitutes good teaching. He considers teachers' belief system as the primary source of teachers' classroom practices since it includes: attitudes, values, expectations, theories and assumptions about teaching and learning that develop through time. In addition, Freeman & Richards (1996) show that teachers' previous learning, knowledge and beliefs about teaching serve as a powerful determinant of teachers' perceptions and practices; they are often resistant to change. Xu (2012) highlights that teacher's beliefs are important for understanding and improving educational process. They closely guide language teachers to adopt their teaching strategies for coping with their daily language teaching challenges, influence their general well-being, and in turn, shape language learners' learning environment, their motivation and their language achievement and ability (p. 1397).

Williams and Burden (1997) further clarify that teachers' beliefs include beliefs about learners, learning and themselves (Figure 1). Teacher's beliefs about learners include teacher-learner power relationship, awareness of learners' differences and motivation strength. Next, teachers' beliefs about learning refer to learning as a means to an end, to pass examinations or as a life-long process. They advance; "We can only be really effective teachers if we are clear in our minds what we mean by learning because only then we can know what kinds of learning outcomes we want our learners to achieve" (p. 60). Finally, teachers' beliefs about themselves consider teacher's conception of themselves

as persons and what kind of social interaction they believe is the most appropriate for their learners. It deals with what the teacher as a person brings to the classroom concerning teacher-learner relationship: “the language teacher needs to convey a sense of self-confidence in using the language whilst at the same time respecting learners’ attempts to express themselves and their views in the language” (pp. 62-63)

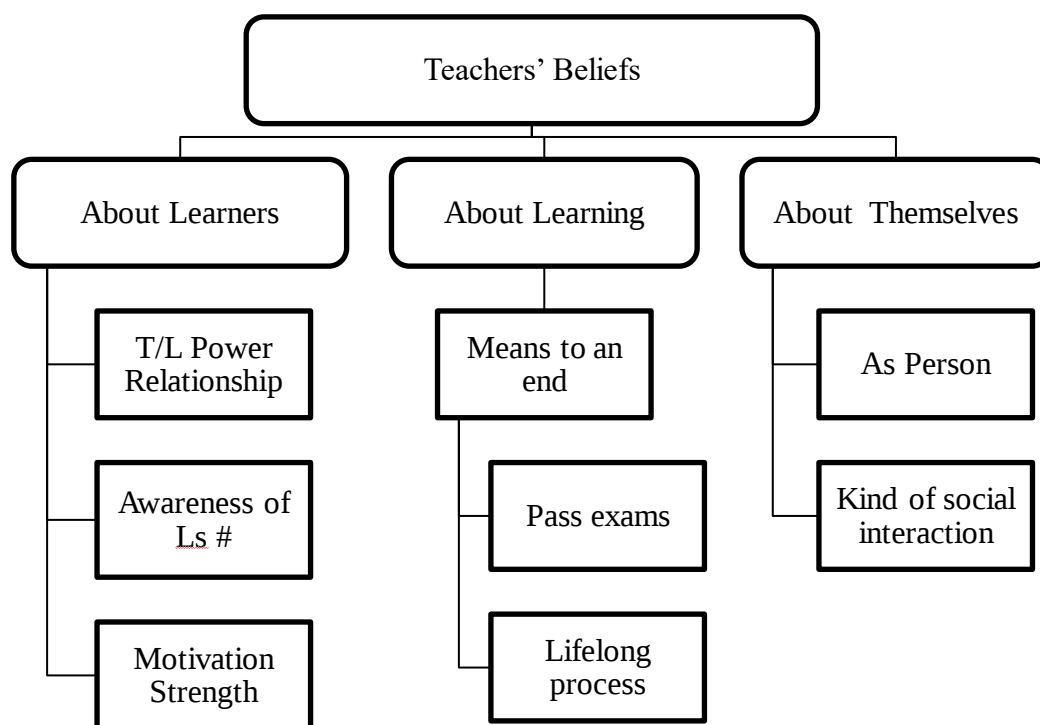


Figure 1: Components of Teachers’ Beliefs based on Williams and Burden (1997) Division

They further clarify that in every teaching act teachers define themselves as persons and teachers, and their views of teaching mirror their view of themselves and their teaching behaviour reflect their essence as persons. Besides, teaching is an expression of values and attitudes, not just information or knowledge. Teachers must recognize that they themselves are constantly involved in a lifelong process of learning and change.

Richards & Lockhart (2007) explain teachers' belief systems are founded on the goals, values, and beliefs teachers hold in relation to the content and process of teaching, and their understanding of the systems in which they work and their roles within it. These beliefs and values serve as the background to much of the teachers' decision making and action (p. 30). They further explain that teachers' belief system developing gradually over time and they are derived from different sources as follows:

1. *Their own experience as language learners:* All teachers were once students, and their beliefs about teaching are often a reflection of how they themselves were taught.
2. *Experience of what works best:* A teacher may have found that some teaching strategies work well and some do not.
3. *Established practice.* Within a school, an institution, or a school district, certain teaching styles and practices may be preferred.
4. *Personality factors.* Some teachers have a personal preference for a particular teaching pattern, arrangement, or activity because it matches
5. *Educationally based or research-based principles:* Teachers may draw on their understanding of a learning principle in psychology, second language acquisition, or education and try to apply it in the classroom.
6. *Principles derived from an approach or method.* Teachers may believe in the effectiveness of a particular approach or method of teaching and consistently try to implement it in the classroom (p. 31).

Richards & Lockhart (2007) further refer to different types of teachers' beliefs: beliefs about English, beliefs about learning, beliefs about teaching, beliefs about the program and the curriculum, beliefs about language teaching as a profession. These beliefs

can be explained with special reference to certain questions as shown in the following table:

Table 1: Richards & Lockhart (2007) Teacher's belief system

Beliefs about English	• Why do you think English is an important language? • Do you think English is more difficult to learn than other languages? • What do you think the most difficult aspects of learning English are (e.g., grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation)? • Which dialect of English do you think should be taught (e.g., British, American, other)? • Do you think it is important to speak English with native-like pronunciation? • How does English sound to you compared to other languages you know? • What attitudes do you think your learners associate with English? • Do you think English has any qualities that make it different from other languages?
Beliefs about learning	• How do you define learning? • What are the best ways to learn a language? • What kinds of exposure to language best facilitate language learning? • What kinds of students do best in your classes? • What kinds of learning styles and strategies do you encourage in learners? • What kinds of learning styles and strategies do you discourage in learners? • What roles are students expected to assume in your classroom?
Beliefs about teaching	• How do you see your role in the classroom? How would this be apparent to a visitor? • What teaching methods do you try to implement in your classroom? • What teaching resources do you make use of? • How would you define effective teaching? • What is your approach to classroom management? • What are the qualities of a good teacher?

Beliefs about the program and the curriculum	• What do you think are the most important elements in an effective language teaching program? • What do you think the role of textbooks and teaching materials in a language program should be? • How useful do you think instructional objectives are in teaching? • How do you decide what you will teach? • To what extent is your teaching based on your students' needs? • What is your attitude toward assessment in a language program? • What changes would you like to see in your program?
Beliefs about language teaching as a profession	• How would you characterize English teaching (or the language you teach) as a profession? • What changes do you think are necessary in the language teaching profession? • What kind of training do you think language teachers need? • What kinds of professional development activities best support teaching? • What kind of support for professional development is available at a school you are familiar with? • What is the most rewarding aspect of teaching for you? • Do you think language teachers should be evaluated throughout their careers? If so, what form should this evaluation take?

Reflective Teaching

According to Richards & Farrell (2005), engaging in self-reflection and evaluation becomes an important part of teachers' professional development. For Knezevic & Scholl (1996), "reflection has the power to help the teacher connect experience and theoretical knowledge in order to use the area of expertise more effectively" (p. 79). Celce-Murcia &

Olshtain (2000) argue that the language teacher is faced with the need to develop professional knowledge and expertise through reflection and self analysis. They clarify,

Reflective language teachers pay special attention to various events that take place in the classroom and then reflect on their actions, decisions and overall performance in the classroom. On the basis of such reflection as well as previous experience, teachers can develop personal and professional convictions that will guide their work in the future and provide them with theoretical constructs as well as practical techniques that work. (p. 222)

Bartlett (1997) recognized double meaning in reflective teaching: a) relationship between an individual's thought and action, and b) the relationship between teaching actions and the purposes of education in society. Farrell (2003) explains that "Reflection enables teachers to experience and enjoy a new level of self-articulated professionalism" (p. 14). He further distinguishes between routine action and reflective action. The first refers to unconscious practice that is carried out as an unanalyzed chunk, teachers may not be aware of a particular behaviour which has been previously internalized. The second- reflective teaching- can benefit ESL/EFL teachers in getting rid of the routine behavior allowing them to act in a more intentional way and develop awareness of their own teaching practice.

The reflective Teaching Cycle

Bartlett (1997) suggests five non linear phases involved in the cycle of reflection: mapping, informing, contesting, appraising and acting (Figure 2).

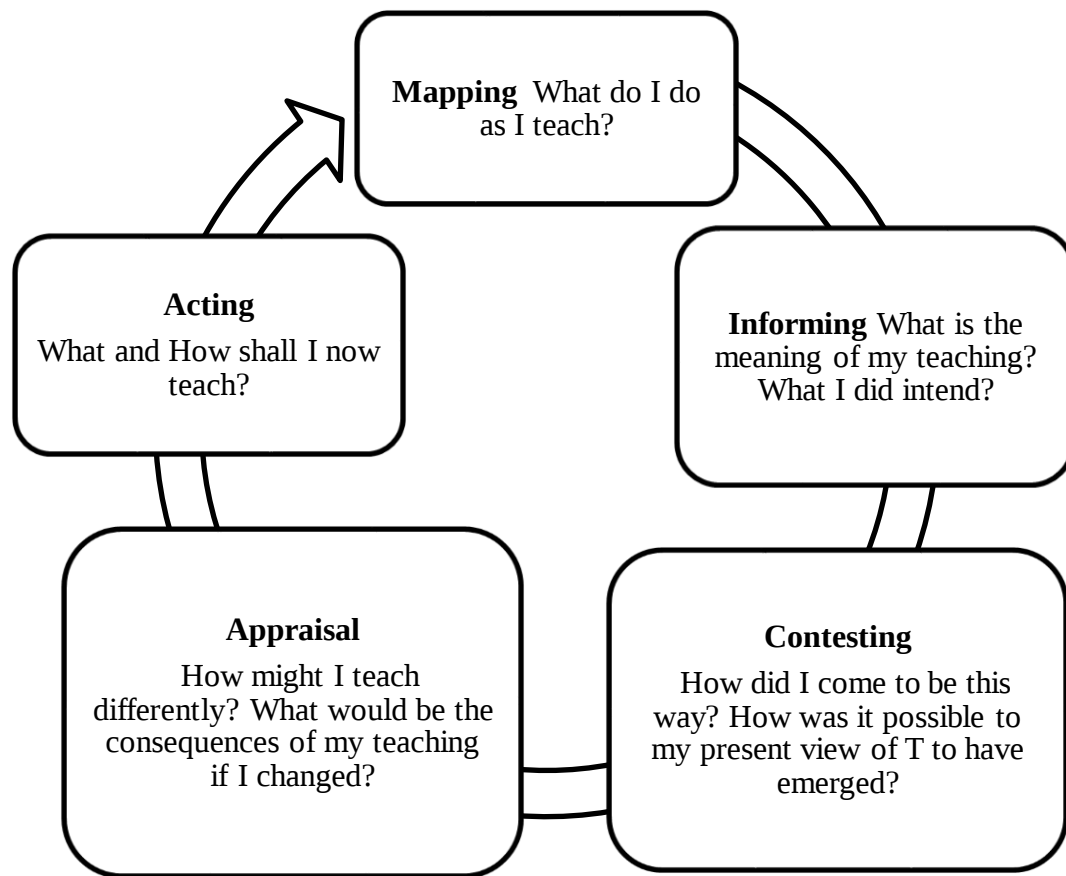


Figure 2: The reflective teaching cycle based on Bartlett (1997) stages

First, mapping is represented by the following question: “What do I do as a teacher?” “It involves the observation and the collection of information about one’s own teaching. It can be through audio/visual means or journal/diary writing. He clarifies, “we begin not only to observe but we take the first step in reflecting on and about our practice” (p. 209). Second, informing refers to “what is the meaning of my teaching?” “What did I intend?” It deals with the consideration of the first record in order to make meaning of it. Informing may occur after a teaching sequence or a lesson; besides, it can be accomplished individually or in discussion with others. This offers the possibility of extending one’s insight about oneself as a teacher and a member of a larger community. This supports the idea of teaching as interaction since teaching cannot be separated from one’s students, culture, expectations about life and how one wants to participate in the society. The

outcome of this phase of informing is the distinction between teaching as a routine and teaching as reflection which searches for the best possible solution based on informed choice.

Third, contesting deals with “how did I come to be this way?” “How was it possible for my present view of teaching to have emerged?” This phase considers the ideas and the reasons that uncover one’s teaching assumptions. The phases of mapping and informing consider one’s theories about teaching, while the contesting phase confronts the reasons for one’s teaching actions; “Contestation involves a search for inconsistencies and contradictions in what we do and how we think”(p. 212).

Fourth, appraisal deals with “how might I teach differently?” or “what would be the consequences to learning if I changed...?” This phase leads to a search for alternative paths of action, in which a link is established between the thinking dimension of reflection and the search for teaching ways with one’s new understanding. Acting, the last phase in the cycle, deals with “what and how shall I now teach?” There is continuity between the preceding phases and the phase of putting in action new ideas about one’s teaching. This cycle, as Bartlett advances, offers a regular approach to the process of making committed choice as the basis of effective teaching. This cycle helps the teacher to **move from the unconscious incompetence to the conscious competence**. Scales (2008) points out that successful teaching requires teachers to constantly challenge and develop their practice by regular reflection and review. Hence, reflection is an ongoing process of critical consideration of one’s teaching theories and actions.

Reflection Types

Boud (2001, p.10-15), in the following model, notifies that the conventional view that reflection occurs only after an event pictures teachers as passive respondents to events; then, he distinguishes three occasions of reflection: before, during and after an event . First, reflection in anticipation of events emphasizes the planning for future events with three main aspects: 1) a focus on the learner, 2) a focus on all aspects of the context and 3) a focus on learning skills and strategies. Second, reflection in the midst of action denotes one's engagement in the learning experience which includes:

- 1) Noticing: attention directed towards both the external world of events and the internal world of thoughts and feelings; “Noticing affects the extent to which we become actively involved in the process, whether or not this fact is observable by others” (p: 13).
- 2) Intervening: refers to the action taken to change a situation, they might not be observable. He clarifies that the focus on thoughts and feelings rather the external activities is a form of intervention.
- 3) Reflection –in –action: encompasses reflection on noticing and intervening to interpret events. It represents the move from the unconscious to the conscious analysis of the events.
- 4) Reflection after events: He emphasizes that this is not simply a process of thinking, but also involves feelings, emotions and decision making. It includes a return to the experience, attending feelings and reevaluation of that experience.

Third, reevaluation of the experience includes relating new information with the already known ones, seeking relationships and then making the resulting knowledge one's own; “Reevaluation is about finding shape, pattern, and meaning in what has been

produced” (p. 15). He comments that pair and group activities represent occasions for learners to transform perspectives and challenge old patterns of learning; “It is only through give and take with others and by confronting the challenges they pose that critical reflection can be promoted” (passim). Finally, he pinpoints that reevaluation marks the end of one cycle and the beginning of another one.

Homework

1. Synthesizing Williams & Burden (1997) and Richards & Lockhart (2007) teachers’ beliefs.
2. In a chart, demonstrate the different types of reflection.
3. Learners’ synthesize the lesson, and provide a summary of what constitute teachers’ awareness (through charting, mapping, or any other method they prefer)

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Classroom Management

Objectives of the lesson

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to

1. Define class-management.
2. Identify the goals of classroom management
3. Identify the components of class management
4. Recognize the importance of getting learners' attention for an effective class-management.
5. Consider the importance of giving and checking instructions.
6. Identify different students' groupings as part of effective class-management.
7. Recognize troublesome situations and how to deal with them.
8. Be aware of the importance of discipline for a successful classroom management.

Definition of Classroom management

Teachers' most important role is to create conditions in which learning can take place.

Scrivener (2011) explains,

The skills of creating and managing a successful class may be the key to the whole success of a course. An important part of this is to do with **attitude, intentions and personality** and your **relationships with the learners**. However, you also need certain **organizational skills and techniques**. Such items are often grouped together under the heading of 'classroom management'. (p. 54)

He also highlights that classroom management involves both decisions and actions; “ The actions are what is done in the classroom, and the decisions are about whether to do these actions, when, how and who will do them” (p. 55). In fact, successful classroom management is based on certain essential skills as the teacher should be able to look at and read classroom events as they occur and think of possible available options. Then, turn those options into efficient actions as shown in the following Figure1:

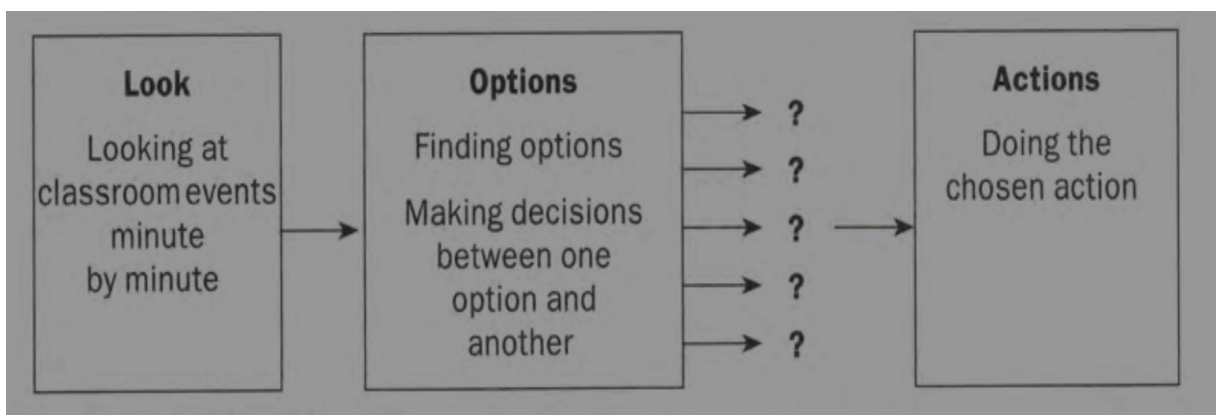


Figure 1: Basic skills of classroom management

Goals of Classroom management

According to Woolfolk (2004), the aim of classroom management is to maintain a positive, productive learning environment. Classroom management has three main goals:

- 1. More time for learning:** Time spent actively involved in specific learning tasks is often called **engaged time** or sometimes **time on task**.

2. **Access to Learning:** Teachers must make sure that students know how to participate in class activities. The key is **awareness**, what are your **rules** and **expectations**? Are they understandable? What unspoken rules or values may be operating? Are you clearly signaling appropriate ways to participate?
3. **Managing for self-management:** This is to help students become better able to **manage themselves**. There should be a shift from demanding obedience to teaching self-regulation and self-control. Through self-control, students demonstrate responsibility by setting goals, making choices, managing time, collaborating to learn. It is important to develop a trusting relation with the teacher and the classmates. “ Encouraging self-management requires extra time, but teaching students how to take responsibility is an **investment well worth the effort**” (pp. 398-399)

Components of Classroom management

Class management includes **rules, routines and procedures**. Rules are fixed instructions about the way of interaction; whereas, routines and procedures are more flexible than rules. They are specific ways of doing things that vary little during the course of the day or the year. Stronge, Tucker & Hindman (2004) refer to four criteria that a rule needs to meet to stay on the list:

1. **Clearly stated** so students know what is expected of them.
2. **Reasonable** so students can realistically follow it.

3. **Enforceable** such that Mandrel will take the time and effort to address any violations.

If he is not willing to invest the effort, then the item may be too trivial or there may be a better solution.

4. **General** so that the rule addresses several behaviors as opposed to one specific misdeed (p. 71)

The rule should be written as a positive statement so that students know what the desired behavior is. Routines commonly include how to enter and leave the classroom, take attendance, secure materials, turn in assignments, make a transition during or between instructional activities, get to safety during drills and actual emergencies, and change from one activity or location to another. In essence, routines shape the classroom climate (p. 67). Procedures refer to all the steps involved in the lesson.

Scrivener (2011) further clarifies that classroom management includes the following areas:

➤ **Activities**

- Setting up activities
- Giving instructions
- Monitoring Activities
- Timing activities (and the lesson as a whole)
- Bringing activities to an end

➤ **Grouping and seating**

- Forming groupings (individual, pairs, groups, plenary)
- Arranging and rearranging seating
- Deciding where you will stand or sit
- Reforming class as a whole group after activities

➤ **Authority**

- Gathering and holding attention
- Deciding who does what
- Establishing or relinquishing authority as appropriate
- Getting someone to do something

➤ **Critical moments**

- Starting the lesson
- Dealing with unexpected problems
- Maintaining appropriate discipline
- Finishing the lesson

➤ **Tools and techniques**

- Using the board and other classroom equipment or aids
- Using gestures to help clarity of instructions and explanations
- Speaking clearly at an appropriate volume and speed.
- Use of silence
- Grading complexity of language
- Grading quantity of language

➤ **Working with people**

- Spreading your attention evenly and appropriately
- Using intuition to gauge what students are feeling
- Eliciting honest feedback from students
- Really listening to students (p. 54-5).

Managing Learner' grouping

According to Harmer (2001), there is various students' grouping: whole class, pair, group, and individual work. **Whole class** is where all students are working together with the teacher at the same time as one group. All the students are locked at the same activity. This grouping reinforces a sense of belonging among the group members and a feeling of security when the whole class is working under the direct authority of the teacher.

Pair work (in two) and **group work** (more than two). There are difficulties associated with pair and group work such as: confusion, noise, no concentration, error making and losing control. However, teachers can usually avoid these potential problems by careful preparation and organization, and by progressively training the learners to participate fully and actively. As result, the advantages of pair and group work far outweigh the drawbacks. They provide variety ad dynamism, increase in individual practice, low stress private practice, interaction with peers and develop learner autonomy.

Individual work refers to the idea of students working on their own. Such individualised learning is a vital step in the development of learner autonomy and promotes the skills of self-reliance. It can be a way of restoring peace and tranquillity to a noisy and chaotic situation. It is beneficial especially in reading and writing. Figure (2) represents seating possibilities in the classroom in addition to students' groupings.

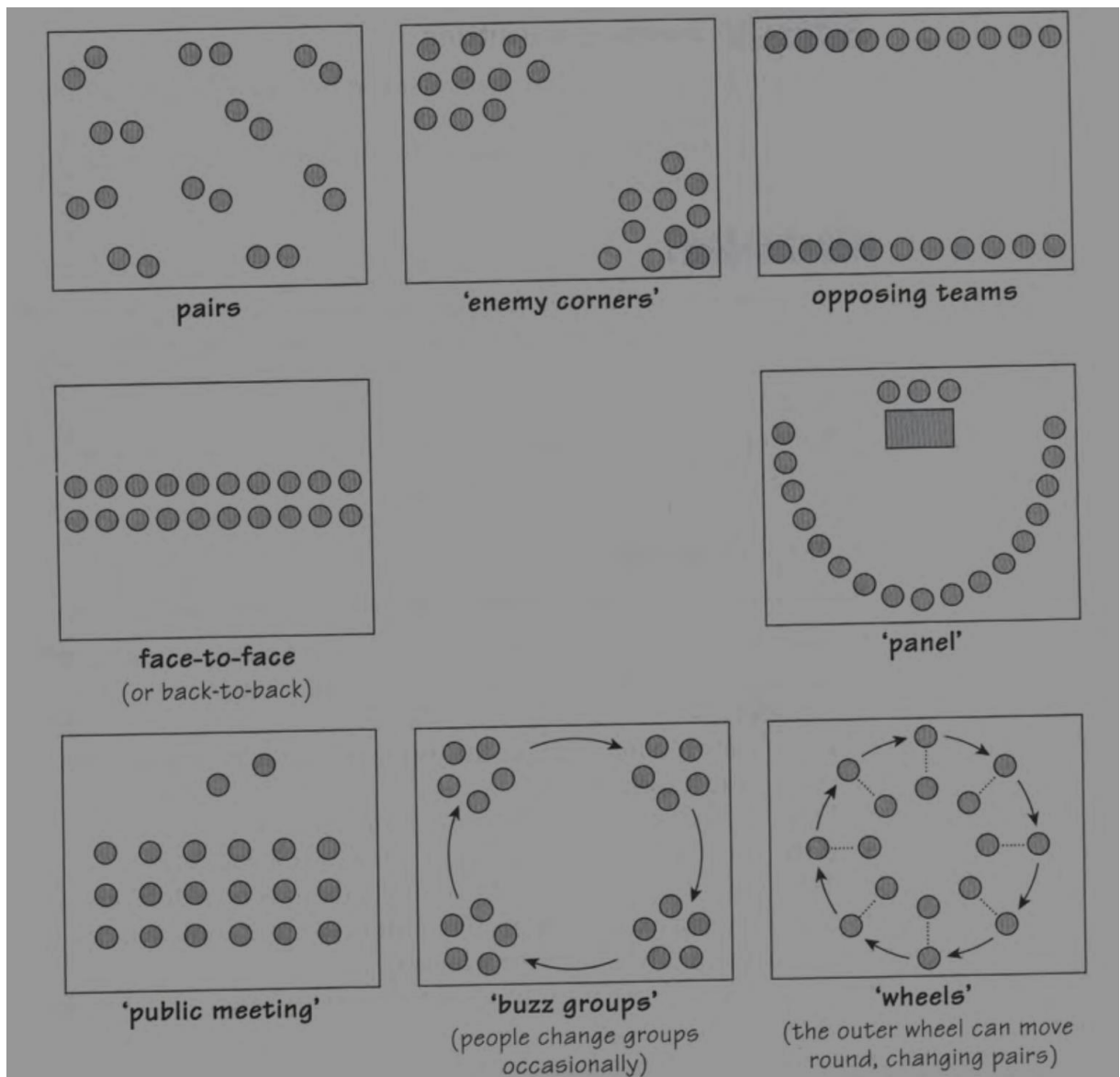


Figure 2: Seating possibilities in a standard classroom (Scrivener, 2011, p. 64)

Giving Instructions

In order to give clear instructions, Scrivener (2011, p. 65) proposes five steps:

1. The teacher should be aware of his own instruction-giving (listen/ record oneself or ask others to watch and give feedback)

2. Pre-plan essential instructions with only essential information in simple, clear language, and sequence it in sensible order. Use short sentences- one sentence for each key piece of information.
3. In class, create silence beforehand, make eye contact with as many students as possible, find an authoritative tone, make sure that they are listening before you start. Use silence and gesture to pace the instructions and clarify their meaning.
4. Demonstrate rather than explain wherever possible.
5. Check that students have understood what to do. Don't assume that everyone will automatically understand what have said. Getting one or two students to tell you what they are going to do.

Getting learners' attention

For Kyriacou (2009), the learning experience should fulfill the three psychological conditions necessary for learning to occur (p. 86):

-Attentiveness: the learning experience must elicit and sustain pupils' attention.

-Receptiveness: the learning experience must elicit and sustain pupils' motivation and mental effort.

-Appropriateness: the learning experience must be appropriate for the educational outcomes desired.

Davies & Pears (2000) see that teachers should be able to get learners' attention fairly quickly when needed. The teacher needs to train the learners to respond to a range of non-verbal signals, for example:

- Stand with the hand raised until you have total silence and everybody's attention.

- Train learners to raise their hands.
- Point at your watch to indicate that you are about to end an activity (p. 20).

Interest is the best way to attract and hold attention, and to get voluntary participation. Classroom atmosphere is also very important (Harmer, 2001). Scrivener (2011, p. 67) proposes this strategy to get learners' attention:

- Start making eye contact with as many learners' as possible
- Establish a gesture that means you want to speak(cupped hand to your ear or holding your hand up)
- Don't look impatiently or anxious. Keep moving your eyes around the room from learner to learner, patiently.
- Think of this as 'gathering attention'. Enjoy it
- Wait as long as necessary until there is silence and learners are looking your way.
- If it does not work, Say OK day it once then go back to the waiting.

He adds that teacher needs to establish authority and use it appropriately. Project his voice clearly, but speak rather than shout. Say what you need to as simply and clearly as possible.

How to prevent learning

Scrivener (2011, p. 75-78) highlights some ways that teachers unintentionally use to hinder or prevent learning:

- **TTT (Teacher Talking Time)**

The more teacher talks, the less opportunities for learners to learn. They need time to think, to prepare what they are going to say and how they are going to say it. Allow them the time and the quiet they need.

- **Echo**

Student: I went to the cinema

Teacher: You went to the cinema. Good. You went to the cinema

Here it is the teacher who gets more practice and not the student. If teachers became aware of their echoing, they should start controlling it.

- **Helpful sentence completion**

Students: I think that smoking is.....

Teacher: a bad thing. Yes I agree. It happens that

The teacher can be desperate for students to say what he wanted them to say to move to the next stage in the lesson. Learners need to finish their sentences.

- **Complicated and unclear instructions**

Unplanned, unstructured instructions are extremely confusing to students.

- **Not checking understanding of instructions**

Even the clearest instructions can be hard to grasp so, after you've given them. It is worth checking that they have been understood

- **Asking Do you understand?**

Checking learners' understanding by asking 'Do you understand?' is useless. The best way to do this is to get students to demonstrate their understanding ex: getting students to repeat the instructions to demonstrate their understanding.

- **Fear of a genuine feedback**

Teacher ‘Did you like my lesson? The more teachers see feedback as a threat to them and to their positions and confidence, the more they will attempt to avoid it or defend themselves against perceived attack.

- **Insufficient authority/over politeness**

Teacher ‘ So if you don’t mind, it would be very nice if you could just stop the activity if you feel that’s ok.’ *In* this way teachers are undermining themselves. If they want to stop an activity say ‘ Stop now, please’

- **The running commentary**

It is boring and unnecessary, tell students what they need to know and stop

- **Lack of confidence in self, learners, materials, activity/making it too easy**

Teachers should try to keep the level of challenge high. Be demanding. Believe that they can do more than they are aware of being able to do-and then help them to do it.

- **Over-helping/over organizing**

- **Flying with the fastest**

- **Not really listening to students**

- **Weak rapport: creation of a poor working environment**

Creating Successful Classrooms

According to Harmer (2007), learning can be disrupted with certain problem behavior from students’ part; “If we are to manage for success, we need to know why it occurs, how to prevent it and, in the last resort, what to do if it happens” (p. 153). Problem behavior rarely occurs in successful language classroom. The keys are students’ engagement and reasonable self-esteem. This is ensured through (pp.153- 159):

- **Behaviour norms:** It is important to think about how to get learners' agreement with these norms and this is achieved by: a) Discussing explicitly the norms, b) Jointly negotiating norms, c) Reviewing and revisiting norms.
- **Ensuring successful behavior:** Well organized study and activity, Plan for engagement, Prioritize success, equity rules, praise is better than blame.
- **Modifying problem behavior:** things sometimes get out of control despite our teachers' efforts to create successful learning environment. This happens when students are disruptive or uncooperative. Here are some strategies:
 - **Act immediately:** unchecked behavior may get steadily worse. Sometimes, it may demand strong action.
 - **Keep calm:** In students' eyes, teachers who have to shout to assert their authority appear to be losing control (Shouting = more noise in the classroom). Don't take what is happening personally. Look at disruptive students in the eye, approach them, keep looking at them and speak in a measured tone.
 - **Focus on the behavior not the student:** Take care not to humiliate an uncooperative student. It is the behavior that matters not the student's character.
 - **Take things forward:** when a simple look or brief comment, teachers' need to think carefully about how they respond. It is always better to be positive rather than negative: let's do this instead of don't do that.
 - **Talk in private**
 - **Use clearly agreed sanctions.**
 - **Use colleagues and the institution**

According to Ur (1999), here are possible characteristics of the disciplined classroom:

1. Learning is taking place.
2. It is quiet.
3. The teacher is in control.
4. Teacher and students are cooperating smoothly.
5. Students are motivated.
6. The lesson is proceeding according to plan.
7. Teacher and students are aiming for the same objective.
8. The teacher has natural charismatic 'authority' (p 121).

He adds that some important factors that contribute to classroom discipline and are potentially within the control of, or influenced by, the teacher are:

- classroom management
- methodology
- interpersonal relationships
- lesson planning
- Student motivation.

Ur (1999, p. 122) cites Wragg (1981) proposed list of practical hints for teachers on classroom discipline:

1. Start by being firm with students: you can relax later.
2. Get silence before you start speaking to the class.
3. Know and use the students' names.
4. Prepare lessons thoroughly and structure them firmly.
5. Be mobile: walk around the class.

6. Start the lesson directly and sustain interest and curiosity.
7. Speak clearly.
8. Make sure your instructions are clear.
9. Have extra material prepared (e.g. to cope with slower/faster-working students).
10. Look at the class when speaking, and learn how to 'scan'.
11. Make work appropriate (to pupils' age, ability, cultural background).
12. Develop an effective questioning technique.
13. Develop the art of timing your lesson to fit the available period.
14. Vary your teaching techniques.
15. Anticipate discipline problems and act quickly.
16. Avoid confrontations.
17. Clarify fixed rules and standards, and be consistent in applying them.
18. Show yourself as supporter and helper to the students.
19. Don't patronize students, treat them with respect.
20. Use humor constructively.
21. Choose topics and tasks that will activate students.
22. Be warm and friendly to the students.

Ur (1999) summarizes how to deal with discipline problems as shown in Figure (3).

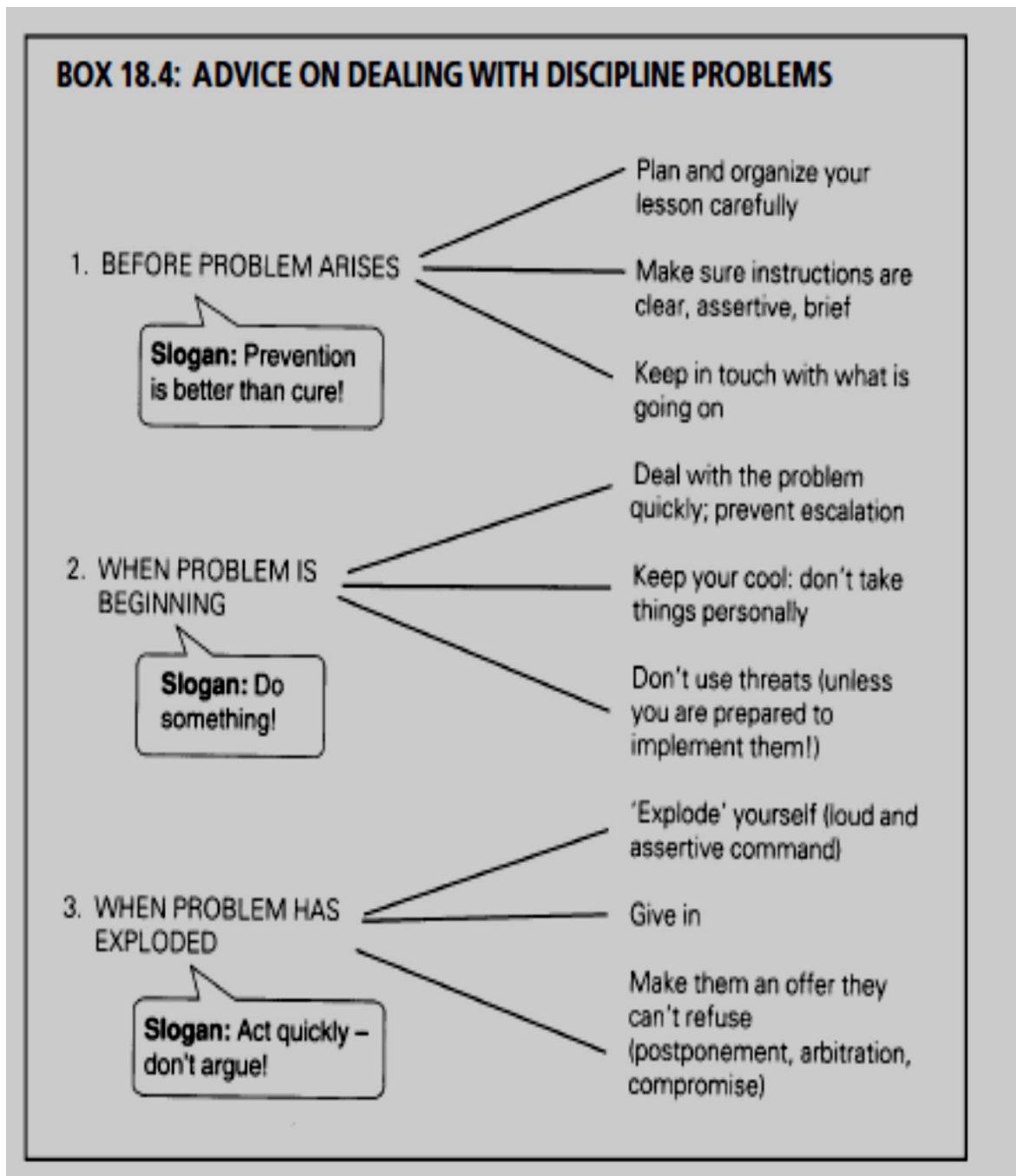


Figure 3: Dealing with Discipline Problems (Ur, 1999, p. 123)

Homework

□ As future teacher, which gestures you will use for the following instructions:

1. Standup
2. Work on your own

3. Work with your classmate
4. Stop interrupting
5. Stop a nosy learner talking
6. Take notes
7. Repeat you idea
8. Five minutes left
9. Keep distance
10. Ask for permission
11. Excellent answer / not a convincing answer/

- ☐ Make a mapping of all the components of classroom management discussed in the lesson.

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Using technology in the classroom

Objectives of the lesson

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Recognize the most used ICTs in education.
2. Clarify the reasons behind ICT use in Teaching.
3. Identify the different types of e-learning.
4. Explain the advantages and disadvantages of using ICTs in education.

Technology in language teaching

According to Duddeney & Hockly (2007), technology in education is not new and since 1960 and 1970, tape recorders, language laboratories and video have been use. Computer-based materials for language teaching as Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) appeared in the early 1980s. Then, access to Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has become more widespread and CALL has moved beyond the use of computer programs to embrace the use of the internet and web-based tools. The term TELL (Technology Enhanced Language Learning) appeared in the 1990s in response to the growing possibilities offered by internet and communications technology.

The use of ICTs by language teachers is becoming increasingly important for the following reasons (Duddeney & Hockly, 2007, pp. 7-8):

- **Internet access:** either in private homes or at the Internet cafés

- **Young learners are growing up with technology** and it is a natural and integrated part of their lives. For these learners the use of technology is a way to bring the outside world into the classroom. Some of these learners will become teachers themselves.
- **English as an International language** is being used in technologically mediated contexts.
- **Technology especially the Internet** presents new opportunities for authentic tasks and materials as well as access to a wealth of ready-made ELT materials.
- The internet offers excellent opportunities for collaboration and communication between learners who are geographically dispersed.
- Technology is offered with published materials such as course books and resource books for teachers.
- Learners increasingly expect language schools to integrate technology into teaching.
- Technology offers new ways for practicing language and assessing performance.
- Technology is becoming increasingly mobile. It can be used not only in the classroom, lecture hall, computer room or self-access center, it can also be used at home, on the way to school and in Internet Cafés.
- Using a range of ICT tools can give learners exposure to and practice in all of the four main language skills- speaking, listening, writing and reading.

E-Learning

For Duddeney & Hockly (2007, pp 136-137), E-Learning refers to learning using the technology such as Internet, CD-ROMs and portable devices like mobile phones or MP3 players. Several terms were attributed to e-learning as follows:

- **Distance Learning:** It was originally applied to traditional paper-based distance courses delivered by e-mail. Nowadays, it includes learning via technology such as the Internet, CD-ROMs, and mobile technologies. The terms e-learning and distance learning are often used as umbrella names for the terms below.
- **Open Learning:** This is one aspect of distance learning and simply refers to how much independence the learner has. The more open a distance course is, the more autonomy the learner has in deciding what course content to cover, how to do so and when.
- **Online Learning:** This is learning that takes place via the internet
- **Blended Learning:** This is a mixture of online and face to face course delivery. (At the classroom with the teacher and at home via the Internet).

Key technologies in education

Scrivener (2011, p 334) proposes a short list of some key technology in education:

- Interactive whiteboards (IWBs)
- The internet
- Research tools: research engines, corpora, etc
- Powerpoint and other presentation software
- Free and cheap software
- Tablet computers and netbooks
- iPods, music, and post cast players
- Shared learning and social media: wiki, blogs, Twitter, facebook.
- Virtual Learning Environments (VLEs), as Moodle
- Virtual worlds.

Attitudes to Technology

Many terms have been used in relation to different attitudes to technology as follows (Duddeney & Hockly, 2007, pp. 8-9):

- ✓ **Technophobe:** people afraid of new technology with the increasing presence of Internet and computers.
- ✓ **Digital natives:** referring to someone who grows up using technology, and feel comfortable and confident with it, typically today's children.
- ✓ **Digital Immigrants:** For examples the parents who came late to the world of technology.
- ✓ **Technogeeks:** a term for a technology enthusiast.

They add that the majority fall between the two technophobes and technogeeks. In addition, a large part of the negative attitudes teachers have towards technology is usually the result of a lack of confidence, lack of facilities or lack of training, resulting in inability to see the benefit of using technologies in the classroom. It is also the case of teachers who are not in control of the work situations.

Advantages of ICTs in Education

Ng (2015) advances that the reasons provided by educational institutions and policy makers for the incorporation of digital technologies in students' learning fall largely into three categories:

1. **Supporting learning** for the achievement of successful learning outcomes by:
 - Increasing students' motivation and promoting cognitive development.

- Contextualising learning through the provision of highly interactive resources that embrace real-life experiences such as virtual immersion in history or virtual laboratory.
- Providing means to facilitate students' demonstration of what they have learned. For example, using visuals and sounds to make abstract and invisible concepts more concrete.
- Providing means for communication and collaboration, for example, through blogs and wikis for assigned group tasks or interacting with the wider community to obtain support during learning.
- Catering to the pace of students' individual learning by increasing their self-management and self-assessment of their learning.
- **P 6** Enabling continuity of learning outside class times through the use of mobile devices to access information and resources on the Internet

2. *Developing Twenty-First Century Skills* as part of preparing students for the workplace

3. *Developing Digital Citizenship and Lifelong Learning* (pp. 5-6)

Barriers to ICTs use in education

Ng (2015) refers to Pelgrum's (2001) and Shear et al.'s (2011) barriers for incorporating ICTs in Education, they are grouped as follows:

- Resources related to insufficient number of computers and copies of software; infrastructure such as insufficient simultaneous access to the World Wide Web, (WWW); poor quality software and WWW information
- Teachers' lack of knowledge/skills

- Insufficient teacher time
- Insufficient training opportunities and poor quality of training
- Lack of administrative and technical support
- Lack of interest by teachers
- Lack of computers for students; lack of computers for teachers; Internet not reliable;
- outdated technology; lack of technology-supported resources
- Insufficient time to prepare
- Insufficient access to professional development that offered coherent support for the skills they need. This includes helping teachers to learn how to integrate innovative practices into their teaching that goes beyond the technical aspects of technology to explicit guidance on its pedagogical purposes and uses
- Insufficient technical support

Ronghuai, Spector & Yang (2019, pp. 238- 240) refer to the following challenges in relation to educational technologies:

- Personalizing Education: The one-method-fits-all approach does not match up with a diverse population and the potential of new technologies;
- Assessing Student Learning: There is a need for effective assessments of students and teachers, not only for accountability and promotion (summative) but also to improve learning and instruction (formative).
- Supporting Social Learning: Supporting meaningful and collaborative learning activities is more important than ever before, partly due to requirements in the workplace to work collaboratively and partly due to the affordances of new Web 2.0 technologies.

- **Diminishing Boundaries:** Traditional boundaries between students and teachers, between and among personal abilities and types of learning, between formal and informal learning, and between learning and working are changing and becoming blurred in the twenty-first century; this creates a need to recognize the significance of informal learning and different learner abilities and interests.
- **Developing Alternative Teaching Strategies:** The teacher is no longer the sole source of expertise in classroom settings due to the widespread availability of networked resources; this creates a need to change instructional approaches and train teachers accordingly.
- **Enhancing the Role of Stakeholders** Stakeholders in educational systems need to develop trust that those systems are adequately preparing students for productive lives in twenty-first-century society; as a consequence, there is a need to regularly consult with employers, parents, administrators, teachers, and students to ensure that all stakeholders have confidence that the educational system is working well.
- **Addressing Policy Changes**
- The knowledge society requires flexibility on the part of an informed population; educational inequities and the digital divide can challenge the stability of a society and need to be addressed, as with the other challenges.

Homework

1. Using mapping show the main reason behind ICT incorporation in Education
2. In a chart, summarize the main benefits and the challenges of ICT use in education.

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Syllabus Design

Objectives of the lesson:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Define syllabus
2. Recognize the different types of syllabus.
3. Recognize the components of syllabus design.

Definition of Syllabus

According to Richards & Rogers, (1986), the term syllabus has been used to refer to the form in which linguistic content is specified in a course or method (p. 21). Corder (1993, p. 296) explains that a finished syllabus is the overall plan for the learning process. It must specify what components, or learning items, must be available, or learned by a certain time; what is the most efficient sequence in which they are learned; what items can be learned ‘simultaneously’, what items are available from stock, i.e. already known; and the whole process is determined by the considerations of how long it takes to produce or learn, a component or item. The task of organizing syllabus is sometimes called grading; this implies a progression. Johonson & Johonson (1999) pinpoints that syllabus refers to content in just one subject area (p. 93).

Robinson (2009) further clarifies that syllabus design is based essentially on a decision about the “units” of classroom activity, and the “sequence” in which they are to be perform (p. 294). Similarly, Graves (2014) advocates that syllabus provides information

about a course as it includes a range of information as goals, objectives, materials, activities, topics and assessment components. She highlights that the term syllabus has both practical and theoretical meanings. In a practical sense, a syllabus is an actual plan for a course and in a theoretical sense; it refers to what language is and how it is learned (p. 50). However, Nunan (1988) draws attention that only few teachers are in the position of designing their own syllabuses but they need to be in the position of interpreting and modifying their syllabuses in the process of translating them into action.

Syllabus Types

Graves (2014), Syllabus is of different types and each provides a lens through which to understand the complex phenomenon of language:

- a. **Grammatical, Formal, or structural syllabuses:** They are organized around the grammatical structures of the language: verb, tenses, question formation, types of clauses. It focuses on grammatical patterns as the building blocks of language, usually at the sentence level. The grammatical syllabus has been criticized because learners learn about the language and its systems, not how to use the language to express themselves.
- b. **Notional-functional Syllabus (Wilkins 1976):** It is organized around the communicative purposes, called functions, for which people use language (to obtain information or to apologize). The notions that are being communicated such as time and space. For the notional functional syllabus, it is important to find out about learners needs for using the language- with whom, where, and why. (ex: For example, informing, agreeing, apologizing, requesting, promising and so on
- c. **Task-based Syllabus:** it is organized around tasks. Willis (1986) proposed a task based learning framework of three levels: "pre-task," "task cycle," and "language

focus." is one in which the content of the teaching is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning. Task-based approaches syllabi, which create a favorable condition and facilitate language development

- d. **Skills-based Syllabuses:** They are organized around the four macro skills of speaking, reading, listening and writing. The syllabus is built around situations and communicative interactions as well as around tasks that enables to learn the micro skills and use the strategies.
- e. **Lexical syllabus:** it is based on a mini-corpus of common, pragmatically useful language items and language patterns drawn from spoken and written language corpora. The lexical items in the corpus are embedded in authentic language texts, and learners work inductively to understand the patterns of usage.
- f. **Genre or text-based Syllabus:** It is organized around genres- spoken or written texts such as recounts, lectures, recipe, or critical review. They are structured in a particular way to achieve particular social purposes. Learners analyze texts to identify particular linguistic moves, specialized vocabulary so on to produce or participate in the texts effectively.
- g. **Project-based Syllabus:** It uses the project as the backbone of the syllabus. Learners engage in individual and cooperative investigative and production based tasks to complete a project. The work is meant to be self-directed, with the teacher as resource. The project result in an end product such as a research report, a performance or presentation.
- h. **Content-based Syllabus:** Content-based instruction (CBI) and Content and language Integrated learning (CLIL) syllabuses are organized around subject-specific content (ex: history or science). Approaches vary as to the relative

emphasis on content or language. When the emphasis is on content, learners are expected to learn the content in the target language and may be assessed on their mastery of the content. When the emphasis is on language, the content is a means for language learning, not an end in itself.

- i. **Negotiated Syllabus:** The negotiated or process syllabus grew out of the task-based syllabus, in the sense it is through processes of negotiation in interaction with others that one uses and acquires the language (pp 50-51).

Reasons for syllabus

Syllabuses are necessary for three main reasons (Graves, 2014):

- a) The least controversial is **transparency**; a well-designed syllabus provides a framework for clarifying objectives, content and methods for learners, teachers – and perhaps parents too.
- b) **Regularizing teaching and learning**, which particularly in the case of national syllabuses, may help to ensure uniformity of content, attainment standards, etc.
- c) **Guiding the process of teaching and learning**, in particular by specifying methodology

Byram & Hu (2013) explain that an important part of the preparation stage in the syllabus is a **needs analysis** which has the function of determining the needs for which learners require a language. It might include aspects such as the situations or domains in which learners might use the foreign language, the topics which should form part of a course, **the skills** required by the learner, their expected attainment levels, the methods by which they wish to be taught, their preferred **learning styles**, etc. In addition, design of a syllabus will be determined by theoretical aspects such as views of language learning held by the

designers themselves, or current thinking in education or methodology, which will be reflected in the content specification.

Graves (2014, p. 55) draws attention that syllabus should include the following components:

Name of the course:.....

Brief description of the course:.....

Course goals (objectives):.....

Assessment scheme:.....

Materials:.....

Outline or timeline of course content and sequence:.....

Homework

1. Respecting all the elements of Graves (2014), provide an example of syllabus design of any of the modules you learn.
2. Make a mapping for the types of syllabus with the key idea for each.

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Curriculum Development

Objectives of the lesson

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:

1. Define curriculum.
2. Distinguish between curriculum and syllabus.
3. Recite the major curriculum development theories.
4. Identify the two views related to curriculum development.
5. Recognize the phases of curriculum development.

Curriculum Definition

According to Richards (2001), language curriculum development is an aspect of a broader field of educational activity known as curriculum development or curriculum studies.

Curriculum development focuses on determining what **knowledge, skills, and values** students learn in schools, what **experiences** should be provided to bring about intended learning outcomes, and how **teaching and learning** in schools or educational systems can be **planned, measured, and evaluated**. Language curriculum development refers to the field of applied linguistics that addresses these issues. It describes an interrelated set of purposes that focuses on **designing, revising, implementing, and evaluating** language programs (p.2)

For Nunan, (1988, p. 8), syllabus design has been seen as a subsidiary component of curriculum design. ‘Curriculum’ is concerned with the planning, implementation,

evaluation, management, and administration of education programs while ‘Syllabus’ focuses more narrowly on the selection and grading of content.

Comparison between Syllabus and Curriculum

Certain similarities and differences have been referred to in relation to syllabus and curriculum. Richards (2001) clarifies that the history of curriculum development in language teaching starts with the notion of syllabus design. Syllabus design is one aspect of curriculum development but it is not identical with it.

A ***syllabus*** is a specification of the content of a course of instruction and lists what will be taught and tested. Thus a syllabus for a speaking course might specify the kinds of oral skills that will be taught and practiced during the course, the functions, topics, or other aspects of conversation that will be taught, and the order in which they will appear in the course. Syllabus design is the process of designing a syllabus...***Curriculum development*** is a more comprehensive process than syllabus design. It includes the processes that are used to determine the needs of a group of learners, to develop aims or objectives for a program to address those needs, to determine an appropriate syllabus, course structure, teaching methods, and materials and to carry out an evaluation of the language program that result from these processes (p. 2)

Richards & Renandya (2002) see that the processes of curriculum development and syllabus design in language teaching usually involve assessing the needs of learners in a language program, developing goals and objectives, planning a syllabus, selecting teaching approaches and materials, and deciding on assessment procedures and criteria (p. 65).

However, Dubin & Olshtain (1986) views that syllabus and curriculum have different purposes,

A curriculum contains a broad description of general goals by indicating an overall educational- cultural philosophy which applies across subjects together with a theoretical orientation to language and language learning with respect to the subject matter at hand. A curriculum is often reflective of national and political trends as well. ...A syllabus is a more detailed and operational statement of teaching and learning elements which translates the philosophy of the curriculum into series of planned steps leading towards more narrowly defined objectives at each level (p. 34)

Hence, syllabus and curriculum are separate entities with particular functions. They add that an important reason for differentiating between the two is to stress that a single curriculum can be the basis for developing a variety of specific syllabuses which are concerned with locally defined audiences, particular needs, and intermediate objectives. Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2000, p. 185) conclude that from the distinction made between curriculum and syllabus, the curriculum should state the following: the goals, the rationale, and the guiding principles for language teaching in a broad sense. While the syllabus should translate these guiding principles into specific goals, content, and activities to be carried out in a particular, and well defined context. The general principles apply to both the curriculum and the syllabus is mostly the degree and type of specification that differ.

Major Language Curriculum Approaches

Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2000) refer to three main curriculum approaches:

1. **A content-based curriculum:** focuses on the content of the course. The term content refer to the three different areas of content: linguistic content, thematic or situational content, and subject-matter content. They include GTM, the structural syllabus, and the notional-functional syllabus
2. **A process-based curriculum:** is concerned with the process of language learning and language teaching. It may include ask-based curriculum, a needs –based curriculum, and learner-based curriculum.
3. **A product-based curriculum:** places emphasis on the outcomes of the course of study or in other words on “ what the learners should know and be able to produce in the L2” upon course completion (Language and skill).

Two views of curriculum

According to Graves (2014, p. 51), there are two views of curriculum which are the enactment view in contrast with the implementation view. The enactment view of curriculum is designed by specialist and implemented by the teachers and the learners. Policy makers set curriculum policy; a curriculum committee analyzes needs, decides on methodology, and produces a curriculum plan; materials writers to produce materials according to the plan; teacher trainers train the teacher, use the materials; and the teachers and the learners use the materials in the classroom. However, the implementation view of curriculum sees the curriculum as a plan to be implemented. It puts the learners whom the curriculum is meant to serve, and the teacher who teach them at the end of the chain of decisions. If there are problems of implementation, the fault is often seen as the teachers' for not following the curriculum plan faithfully or being resistant to change.

Curriculum development processes

According to Richards (2001, p 41), “Curriculum Development” is used to refer to the planning and implementation processes involved in developing or renewing a curriculum. These processes focus on needs analysis, situational analysis, planning, learning outcomes, course organization, selecting and preparing teaching materials, providing effective teaching and evaluation. These elements are viewed as forming a network of interacting systems. The notion of system suggests that change in one part of the system has effects on other parts of the system.

Graves (2014) clarifies that the curriculum is a dynamic system of interconnected, interrelated, and overlapping processes. The three main Curriculum processes are planning, enacting, and evaluating. At the program level, a person or group of people design a curriculum plan for an educational program. Teachers and learners enact the curriculum over time (which may follow or diverge from the plan. Its effectiveness is then evaluated informally, if not formally (p. 49). She adds that another way to conceptualize the three processes of planning, enacting, and evaluating as recursive processes that overlap and mutually influence each other as shown in Figure 1

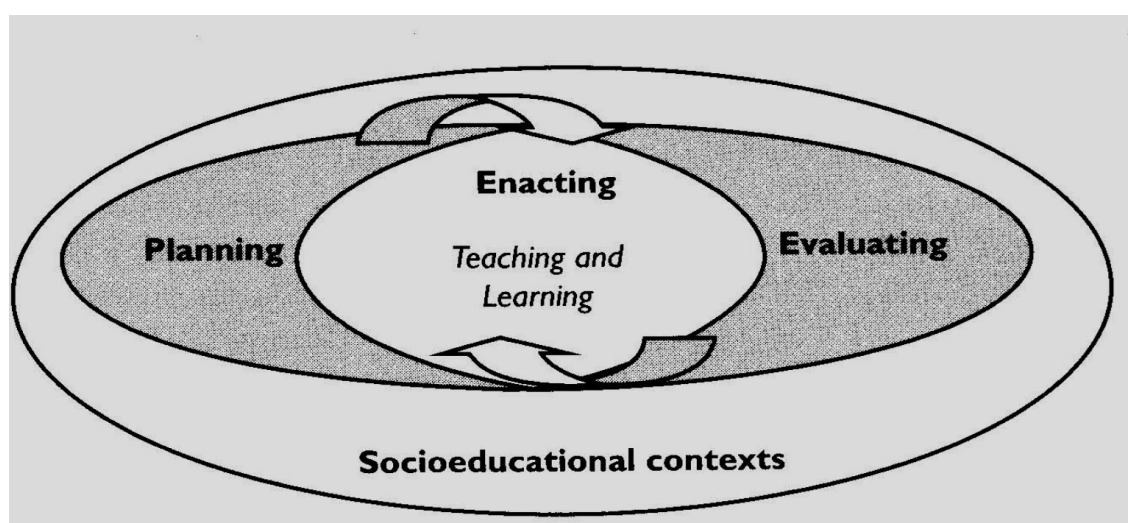


Figure 1: Curriculum as a dynamic system (Grave 2006 cited in Grave 2014, p. 52)

The purpose of planning is to guide and support enactment and to provide a basis for evaluation. The purpose of evaluating is to determine the effectiveness of the learning and teaching in the classroom so that it can become more effective. The findings of the evaluation affect future planning, which in turn affects enactment. In this view , enactment-learning and teaching in the classroom- is the key to a successful curriculum and so is placed at the center of the diagram.

Similarly, Dubin & Olshtain (1986) outline a number of basic questions that need to be answered as background information for the development of the language curriculum (Figure 2):

- Who are the learners? (age, gender, interest, background, context)
- Who are the teachers? (target language proficiency, professional training)
- Why is the program necessary?
- Where is the program going to be implemented? (within the school system, within private settings, or other places)
- How will the program be implemented and evaluated (who will develop syllabuses, textbooks, and other materials: what tests will be used?)

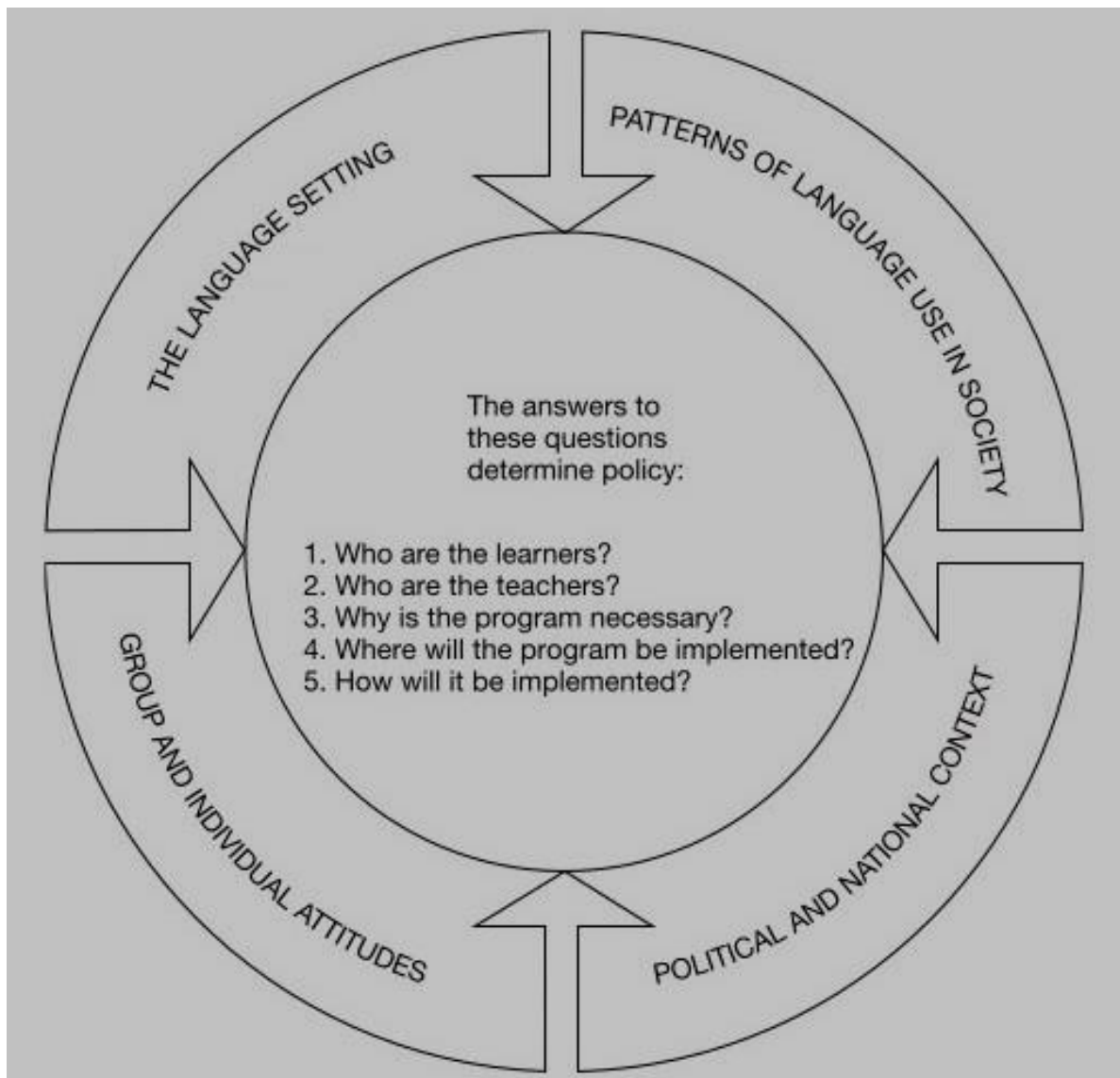


Figure 2: Language program Policy (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986,p 6)

They explained them as follows:

- **Language setting:** Program planners need to understand and evaluate the significance of the language setting in terms of its effect on learners and the learning process (ESL, EFL).
- **Patterns of language use in Society:** This examines the role of language of Wider Communication (LWC) in education, labor market, and in furthering the process of modernization.

- **Group and Individual Attitudes toward language:** Societal need can be investigated and evaluated qualitatively and quantitatively, yet their effect on the actual access of new program cannot be determined without taking into account group and individual attitudes towards the learning of an additional language.
- **The Political and the national context:** Political, national and economic considerations are closely interlaced with each other. Political considerations have to do with the particular regime or administration in power and how it views the question of language in general. National considerations might be particularly important for countries which are still grappling with nationhood. Forming a new political state is closely linked with establishing a national language.
- Graves (2014, p 53), refers to the following questions to be considered as part of curriculum development:
- **Articulating guiding principles:** what beliefs about learners and learning, teaching, and subject matter undergird the curriculum?
- **Analyzing contextual factors:** what social, economic, political, educational, and institutional factors impact the curriculum?
- **Assessing learner needs:** What are the learners' abilities, and purposes for learning?
- **Determining program goals:** What knowledge, skills, and dispositions will learners attain?
- **Deciding program content:** What should be taught and in what ways so that learners can attain goals?
- **Organizing program content:** How will the content and materials be organized and sequenced?

Designing an assessment plan: In what systematic ways will learning be monitored and assessed? (pp. 6- 17).

Richards (2001) refers to Johnson's (1989) stages of decision making roles and products in curriculum development as shown in table 1

Table 1: Jonson (1989) curriculum development processes (Richards, 2001, p. 42)

Developmental stages	Decision-making roles	Products
1. Curriculum planning	Policy makers	Policy documents
2. Specification : Ends/ Means	Needs analyst	Syllabus
	Methodologist	
3. Programme implementation	Material writers	Teaching materials
	Teacher trainers	Teacher-training programme
4. Classroom implementation	Teacher	Teaching acts
	Learner	Learning acts

Furthermore, Johnson (2001) refers also to Clark (1987) who identifies the following components of the process of curriculum renewal as he explains there is not development as some sort of curriculum is already in place. The components are as follows

- The review of the principles to guide the language teaching/learning process in the light of applied linguistic theory and classroom experience
- The working of syllabuses embodying aims, objectives, content, and a broad methodology.

- The review of classroom teaching/learning strategies
- The choice, adaptation, and creation of resources embodying appropriate learning experiences.
- The review of assessment designed to monitor, record, report, and provide feedback on learner progress.
- The review of classroom schemes of work relating all of the above together
- The review and creation of strategies designed to assist teachers to evaluate classroom practices and to improve them.
- The identification of areas for research to determine possible ways forward in any of the above areas.
- The review or devising of in-service education designed to assist teachers to widen their conceptual and pragmatic base in particular areas, and to find solutions to their own classroom problems (p. 43)

Homework

1. In a chart, demonstrate all the similarities and difference between syllabus and curriculum
2. By synthesizing the processes/ stages of curriculum development proposed by Dubin & Olshtain, 1986, Johnson's 1989, and Grave 2006 explain how different and similar they are.

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Textbook Evaluation

Objectives of the lesson

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to

1. Clarify the role of textbook in education
2. Recognize the advantages of using textbook in the teaching/learning situation
3. Identify the disadvantages of using textbook in the teaching/learning situation
4. Explain the components considered in textbook evaluation.

Textbook in language teaching

Textbooks/ Course books are resources in achieving aims and objectives that have already been set in terms of learners needs. Cunningsworth (1995) summaries the role of course books in language teaching as:

- A source for presentation materials (spoken and written)
- A source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction
- A reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and so on.
- A source of stimulation and ideas for classroom activities.
- A syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined).
- A support for less experience teachers who have yet gain in confidence (p. 7) .

For Richards (2001), textbooks are used in different ways in language programs: reading books for a course on reading skills, writing textbook providing a model compositions and a list of topics for students to write about (p. 254). However, Graves (2000) indicates that there are two facets to understand how to use a textbook. The first is the textbook itself: “getting inside it” so you can understand how it is constructed and why. The second is everything other than the textbook: the context, the students, and the teacher. The second facet is important because when evaluate a textbook, you generally use the lenses of your experience and context to evaluate it (p. 176).

Cunningsworth (1995) draws attention that the textbook should be at the service of the teacher and the learner and not their master. He explains the kind of relationship between the teacher and the textbook as follows:

The relationship between teacher and the coursebook is an important consideration and is at its best when it is a partnership which shares common goals to which each side brings its special contribution. The aims of the coursebook should correspond as closely as possible to the aims of the teacher, and both should seek to meet the needs of the learners to the highest degree. The partnership is helped when aims and objectives are well defined, and when the different but complementary roles of the teacher and coursebook are clearly perceived and well balanced (p. 7)

Advantages of Textbooks

According to Richards (2001), the use of textbooks in teaching has both advantages and disadvantages depending on how they are used and the contexts for their use. The main advantages are as follows:

- They provide structure and a syllabus for program
- They help standardize instruction: ensuring that students in different classes receive similar content and therefore can be tested in the same way.
- They maintain quality: If a well developed textbook is used, students are exposed to materials that have been tried and tested, that are based on sound learning principles, and that are spaced appropriately.
- They provide a variety of learning resources: textbooks are often accompanied by workbooks, CDs and cassettes, videos etc providing a rich and varied resource for teachers and learners.
- They are efficient: they save teachers' time, enabling them to devote time to teaching rather than material development.
- They can provide effective language models and input: They can provide support for teachers whose first language is not English and who may not be able to generate accurate language input on their own.
- They can train teachers: Textbook can serve as a medium of initial novice teachers' training.
- They are visually appealing: They have high standards of design and production (pp.254-255).

Moreover, Harmer (2007) refers to the following benefits of textbook use:

- Carefully prepared textbooks offer a coherent syllabus, satisfactory language control, motivating texts, audio cassettes/CDs.
- Provide teachers under pressure with reassurance that they will be using materials which they can have confidence.

- Textbooks come with detailed teacher's guides, which not only provide procedures for the lesson in the students' book, but also offer suggestions and alternatives, extra activities and resources.
- Students like textbooks because they foster the perception of progress as units. They provide material which students can look back at for revision and at their best their visual and topic appeal can have a powerfully engaging effect (p 181).

Disadvantages of using textbooks

Richards (2001) sees also that some disadvantages are attributed to textbooks as follows:

- They may contain inauthentic language
- They may distort content: They often present an idealized view of the world or fail to represent real issues.
- They may not reflect students' needs
- They can deskill teachers: Teachers' role can become reduced to that of a technician whose primary function is to present materials prepared by others (p.255).

Furthermore, Harmer (2007, p 181- 182) clarifies that textbooks used inappropriately impose learning styles and content on classes and teachers alike. Many of them rely on Presentation, Practice, and Production as their main methodological procedures no other sequences are used. Units and lesson follow the same format which demotivate teachers' and students. In addition the choice of topics sometimes is culturally inappropriate.

Evaluating Textbooks

According to Richards (2001), information is needed for textbook evaluation on the following issues (p.256):

The role of the textbook in the program

- Is there a well developed curriculum that describes the objectives syllabus and content of the program or will this be determined by textbook?
- Will the book or textbook series provide the core of the program, or is it one of several different books that will be used?
- Will it be used with small classes or large ones?
- Will learners be expected to buy a workbook as well or should the textbook provide all the practice?

The teachers in the program

- How experienced are teachers in the program and what is their level of training?
- Are they native speakers of English? If, not, how well do they speak English?
- Do teachers tend to follow the textbook closely or do they use the book simply as a resource?
- Do teachers play a part in selecting the books they teach from?
- Are teachers free to adapt and supplement the book?

Learners in the program

- Is each students required to buy a book?
- What do learners typically expect in a textbook?
- Will they use the book in class and at home?

- How will they use the book in class? Is it the primary source of classroom activities?
- How much are they prepared to pay for a book?

McGrath (2002) basing on Littlejohn's (1998, p. 195- 202) summary of the three levels of textbook evaluation, provided the following comprehensive table of the three components:

Table 1: Textbook analysis based on Littlejohn's levels (McGrath, 2002, p.23)

Level	Focus analysis	Examples of Features to be considered
1	“ What is there?”	• Publication date • Intended users • Type of material • Classroom time required • Intended context of use • Physical aspects such as durability, components, use of colour • How the students' book is organized and learners and teachers are helped to find their way around
2	“ What is required of users?”	• Tasks: what the learners has to do? • Whether their focus will be on form, meaning or both? • What cognitive operations will be required • What form of classroom organization will be involved (individual, whole class work)? • What medium will be involved • Who will be the source of language information?
3	‘What is implied?’	• Selection and sequencing of content (Syllabus) and tasks • Distribution of information across teacher and student components • Reconsideration of information collected at levels 1 and 2.

Methods of Analysis and Evaluation

According to McGrath (2002, pp. 25- 28), literature on textbook evaluation is mainly based on three methods. They are as follows:

- **The Impressionistic method:** this method is concerned with obtaining a *general impression of the material*. For example, it can include glancing at the brief

description of the book on the back cover, at the content page, skimming through the book looking for organization, topics, layout and visuals. This method is inadequate if considered solely for textbook analysis and evaluation.

- **The checklist method:** It consists of a **list of items for comparison, identification, and verification**. This method has certain advantages:
 - a) It is **systematic**: ensuring that all elements that are deemed to be important are considered.
 - b) It is **cost effective**, permitting a good deal of information to be recorded in a relatively short space of time.
 - c) The information is recorded in a **convenient format**, allowing for easy comparison between connecting sets of material.
 - d) It is **explicit** and offers a common framework for decision-making.
- **The in-depth method:** This method goes beneath the publisher's and the author's claims to look at the kind of language description, underlying assumptions about learning or values on which the materials are based or in a broader sense,, whether the materials see likely to live up to the claims that are being made for them (Level 2 and 3 in Table 1).

The Cycle of Textbook Adaptation

The cycle of textbook adaptation follows the same cycle as course development: planning how to teach with the text, teaching (adjusting as you plan and teach), re-planning based on evaluating the teaching and the text, re-teaching with the text (see Figure 1).

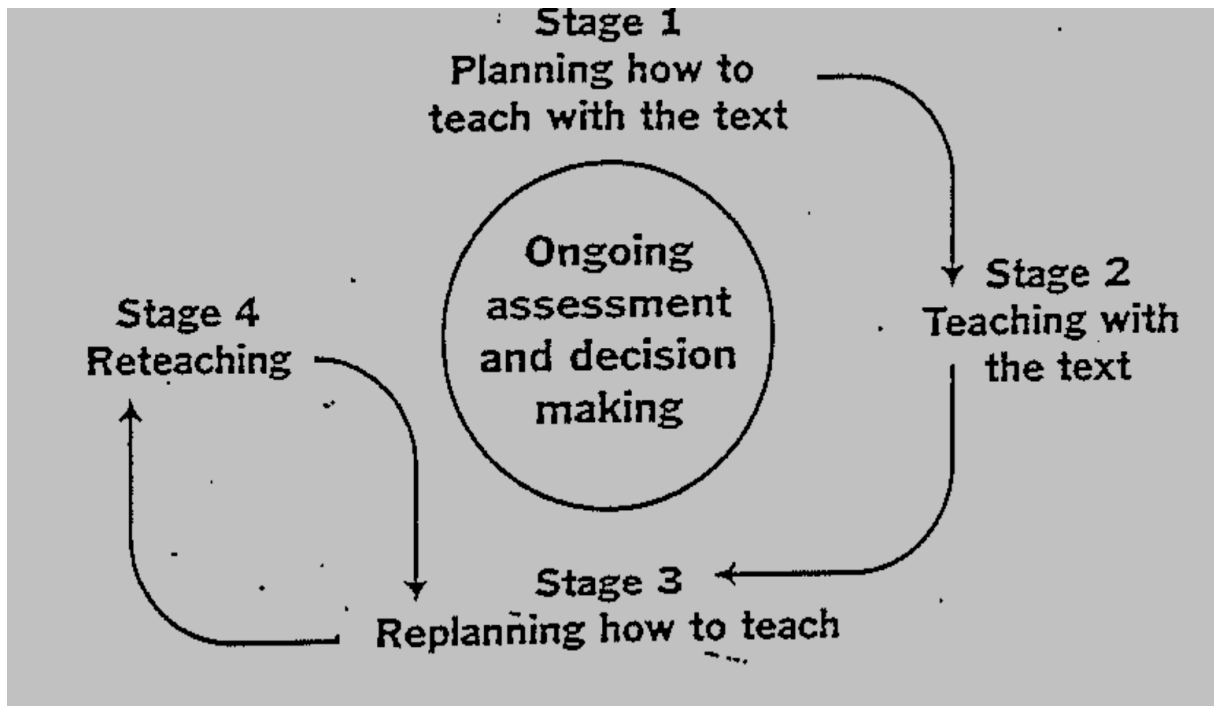


Figure1: The Cycle of Textbook Adaptation (Graves, 2014, p. 205)

Cunningsworth (1995), evaluation can take place in three different instances as follows:

- **Pre-use evaluation:** The difficult kind of evaluation as there is no actual experience of using the book to draw on. The focus is on future potential performance of the coursebook.
- **In-use evaluation:** Evaluation of the coursebook whilst the material is in use.
- **Post-use evaluation:** provides assessment of a coursebook's performance and can be useful for identifying strengths and weaknesses which emerge over a period of continuous use. Evaluation of this kind can be useful in helping to decide whether to use the same coursebook on future occasions, particularly in respect of short –self-contained courses which are repeated from time to time (p.14).

Guidelines for Evaluation

Cunningsworth (1995) provided the following guidelines for textbook/ coursebook evaluation pp.15- 16)

- a) Coursebooks should correspond to learners' needs. They should match the aims and the objectives of the language learning programme.
- b) Coursebooks should reflect the uses (present or future) which learners will make of the language. Select coursebooks which will help to equip students to use language effectively for their own purposes.
- c) Coursebook should take account of students' needs as learners and should facilitate their learning processes, without dogmatically imposed a rigid 'method'. (learning styles, motivation – lively textbook and well presented)
- d) Coursebook should have a clear role as a support for learning. Like teachers, they mediate between the target language and the learner.

Cunningsworth (1995) presents a check list for textbook evaluation and selection organized under the following categories:

- Aims and approaches
- Design and organization
- Language content
- Skills
- Topics
- Methodology.
- Teacher's books
- Practical considerations

Here is Cunnisworth (1995, p. 3-4) quick-reference checklist for evaluation and selection

Quick-reference checklist for evaluation and selection

Aims and approaches

- ☐ Do the aims of the coursebook correspond closely with the aims of the teaching programme and with the needs of the learners?
- ☐ Is the coursebook suited to the learning/teaching situation?
- ☐ How comprehensive is the coursebook? Does it cover most or all of what is needed? Is it a good resource for students and teachers?
- ☐ Is the coursebook flexible? Does it allow different teaching and learning styles?

Design and organization

- ☐ What components make up the total course package (eg students' books, teachers' books, workbooks, cassettes, etc)?
- ☐ How is the content organized (eg according to structures, functions, topics, skills, etc)? Is the organization right for learners and teachers?
- ☐ How is the content sequenced (eg on the basis of complexity, 'learnability', usefulness, etc)?
- ☐ Is the grading and progression suitable for the learners? Does it allow them to complete the work needed to meet any external syllabus requirements?
- ☐ Is there adequate recycling and revision?
- ☐ Are there reference sections for grammar, etc? Is some of the material suitable for individual study?
- ☐ Is it easy to find your way around the coursebook? Is the layout clear?

Language content

- ☐ Does the coursebook cover the main grammar items appropriate to each level, taking learners' needs into account?
- ☐ Is material for vocabulary teaching adequate in terms of quantity and range of vocabulary, emphasis placed on vocabulary development, strategies for individual learning?
- ☐ Does the coursebook include material for pronunciation work? If so what is covered: individual sounds, word stress, sentence stress, intonation?
- ☐ Does the coursebook deal with the structuring and conventions of language use above sentence level, eg how to take part in conversations, how to structure a piece of extended writing, how to identify the main points in a reading passage? (More relevant at intermediate and advanced levels.)
- ☐ Are style and appropriacy dealt with? If so, is language style matched to social situation?

Skills

- ☐ Are all four skills adequately covered, bearing in mind your course aims and syllabus requirements?
- ☐ Is there material for integrated skills work?
- ☐ Are reading passages and associated activities suitable for your students' levels, interests, etc? Is there sufficient reading material?

- ☐ Is listening material well recorded, as authentic as possible, accompanied by background information, questions and activities which help comprehension?
- ☐ Is material for spoken English (dialogues, roleplays, etc) well designed to equip learners for real-life interactions?
- ☐ Are writing activities suitable in terms of amount of guidance/control, degree of accuracy, organization of longer pieces of writing (eg paragraphing) and use of appropriate styles?

Topic

- ☐ Is there sufficient material of genuine interest to learners?
- ☐ Is there enough variety and range of topic?
- ☐ Will the topics help expand students' awareness and enrich their experience?
- ☐ Are the topics sophisticated enough in content, yet within the learners' language level?
- ☐ Will your students be able to relate to the social and cultural contexts presented in the coursebook?
- ☐ Are women portrayed and represented equally with men?
- ☐ Are other groups represented, with reference to ethnic origin, occupation, disability, etc?

Methodology

- ☐ What approach/approaches to language learning are taken by the coursebook? Is this appropriate to the learning/teaching situation?
- ☐ What level of active learner involvement can be expected? Does this match your students' learning styles and expectations?
- ☐ What techniques are used for presenting/practising new language items? Are they suitable for your learners?
- ☐ How are the different skills taught?
- ☐ How are communicative abilities developed?
- ☐ Does the material include any advice/help to students on study skills and learning strategies?
- ☐ Are students expected to take a degree of responsibility for their own learning (eg by setting their own individual learning targets)?

Teachers' books

- ☐ Is there adequate guidance for the teachers who will be using the coursebook and its supporting materials?
- ☐ Are the teachers' books comprehensive and supportive?
- ☐ Do they adequately cover teaching techniques, language items such as grammar rules and culture-specific information?
- ☐ Do the writers set out and justify the basic premises and principles underlying the material?
- ☐ Are keys to exercises given?

Practical considerations

- ☐ What does the whole package cost? Does this represent good value for money?
- ☐ Are the books strong and long-lasting? Are they attractive in appearance?
- ☐ Are they easy to obtain? Can further supplies be obtained at short notice?
- ☐ Do any parts of the package require particular equipment, such as a language laboratory, listening centre or video player? If so, do you have the equipment available for use and is it reliable?

Another example of textbook evaluation proposed by Mukundan, J. & Nimehchisalem, V.
(2012, p. 1132)

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING TEXTBOOK CHECKLIST				
Evaluative criteria	Level of importance	Reword	Comment	
I. General attributes				
A. The book in relation to syllabus and curriculum				
1. It matches to the specifications of the syllabus.	10 0 2 3 5			
B. Methodology				
2. The activities can be exploited fully and can embrace the various methodologies in ELT.	10 0 2 3 5			
3. Activities can work well with methodologies in ELT.	10 0 2 3 5			
C. Suitability to learners				
4. It is compatible to the age of the learners.	10 0 2 3 5			
5. It is compatible to the needs of the learners.	10 0 2 3 5			
6. It is compatible to the interests of the learners.	10 0 2 3 5			
D. Physical and utilitarian attributes				
7. Its layout is attractive.	10 0 2 3 5			
8. It indicates efficient use of text and visuals.	10 0 2 3 5			
9. It is durable.	10 0 2 3 5			
10. It is cost-effective.	10 0 2 3 5			
E. Efficient outlay of supplementary materials				
11. The book is supported efficiently by essentials like audio-materials.	10 0 2 3 5			
II. Learning-teaching content				
A. General				
12. Most of the tasks in the book are interesting.	10 0 2 3 5			
13. Tasks move from simple to complex.	10 0 2 3 5			
14. Task objectives are achievable.	10 0 2 3 5			
15. Cultural sensitivities have been considered.	10 0 2 3 5			
16. The language in the textbook is natural and real.	10 0 2 3 5			
17. The situations created in the dialogues sound natural and real.	10 0 2 3 5			
B. Listening				
18. The book has appropriate listening tasks with well-defined goals.	10 0 2 3 5			
19. Tasks are efficiently graded according to complexity.	10 0 2 3 5			
20. Tasks are authentic or close to real language situations.	10 0 2 3 5			
C. Speaking				
21. Activities are developed to initiate meaningful communication.	10 0 2 3 5			
22. Activities are balanced between individual response, pair work and group work.	10 0 2 3 5			
D. Reading				
23. Texts are graded.	10 0 2 3 5			
24. Texts are interesting.	10 0 2 3 5			
E. Writing				
25. Tasks have achievable goals and take into consideration learner capabilities.	10 0 2 3 5			
26. Tasks are interesting.	10 0 2 3 5			
F. Vocabulary				
27. The load (number of new words in each lesson) is appropriate to the level.	10 0 2 3 5			
28. There is a good distribution (simple to complex) of vocabulary load across chapters and the whole book.	10 0 2 3 5			
29. Words are efficiently repeated and recycled across the book.	10 0 2 3 5			
G. Grammar				
30. The spread of grammar is achievable.	10 0 2 3 5			
31. The grammar is contextualized.	10 0 2 3 5			
32. Examples are interesting.	10 0 2 3 5			
33. Grammar is introduced explicitly and reworked incidentally throughout the book.	10 0 2 3 5			
H. Pronunciation				
34. It is contextualized.	10 0 2 3 5			
35. It is learner-friendly with no complex charts.	10 0 2 3 5			
I. Exercises				
36. They are learner friendly.	10 0 2 3 5			
37. They are adequate.	10 0 2 3 5			
38. They help students who are under/over-achievers.	10 0 2 3 5			

Homework

1. In a chart, summarize the advantages and disadvantages of using textbooks in education.
2. In synthesizing the lesson, what are the major criteria for textbook evaluation.

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