TEFL Methodology

Teaching English as Foreign Language Methodology

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Introduction

The Nature of Language

Conventionally, linguists perceive language as a complex communication system. It is also widely believed that language must be analyzed on several levels, i.e. phonology, syntax, morphology, semantics and lexis, pragmatics, discourse (Mitchel and Myles, 2001: 14). Lexis is individual words or set of words (vocabulary items) that have specific meaning, while phonology is the study of the sound features used in a language to communicate meaning (Sprat et al, 2005). Syntax deals with the structure and function of phrases and sentences whereas semantic is the study of meaning. Pragmatics investigates the relationship of sentences to discourse. Teacher's understanding about language will determine how or how much he/ she would teach the language.

Second/Foreign Language Learning

Mitchel and Myles (2001: 11) define second language learning as " the learning of any language to any level, provided only that learning of the 'second' language takes place sometime later than the acquisition of the first language." Furthermore, they define second languages as any languages other than the learner's native language or 'mother tongue.' Language acquisition is the process by which language develops in humans. First language acquisition concerns the development of language in children, while second language acquisition focuses on language development in adults. There have been continuing debate on whether nature or nurture as the most important explanatory factor for acquisition.

Context for English Learning

People learn English in different situations. Some may study English formally and the others may study it informally. The learners may also study it in English speaking countries such as Australia, the USA, Canada

or the UK. As a result, learners may get a great deal of exposure to the language since English is used in every aspect of the society's life: education, daily conversation, trading, business, law, politics, etc. The majority of the English learners, nevertheless, study this in non-English speaking countries. In countries like Malaysia, India, Mexico, Singapore and so on, people use English as a second language. Some schools (or particular levels in some schools) use English as the language of instruction. In some countries, such as Nigeria, people of different ethnic groups may use English to communicate with each other.

In some countries like Indonesia, Vietnam and China, English is regarded as a foreign language; therefore, it is common to consider the context of English learning in these places as EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context. People do not use it as lingua franca or the means of communication in several formal situations such as educational activity, governmental activity and law. In the study of English learning, ESL and EFL are regarded as similar in contexts, since, to some extent, they share similar situation. In Indonesia English has become one of compulsory subjects taught in Junior and Senior High Schools in Indonesia. English is considered as one important foreign language that should be acquired by Indonesians for many reasons, such as for education and economic development. However, despite having learnt English for about 6 years, most of Indonesian students are still unsatisfactory in their English skills.

Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)
The Instruction of English as a foreign language may occur in any country, whether English speaking or not. Learners of EFL study English for different purposes: passing the examination, career development, pursuing their education, etc. In most countries, English as a Foreign Language is part of the educational curriculum, particularly in state schools. In Indonesia, English is a compulsory subject in senior and junior

high schools. In the lower levels, such as in elementary schools and in kindergarten, English is not a compulsory subject; it can be taught to the students as the local content subject *(muatan lokal).*

Teaching and learning has a very close relationship and one into another cannot be defined apart. Brown (1987: p.6) identifies the components of definition of learning as follow:

1. learning is acquisition or getting
2. learning is retention of information or skill
3. retention implies storage systems, memory, cognitive organization
4. learning involves active, conscious focus on and acting upon even outside or inside the organism
5. learning is relatively permanent, but subject to forgetting
6. learning involves some forms of practice, perhaps reinforced practice
7. learning is part of changes in behavior.

Furthermore, Brown defines teaching as "guiding and facilitating learning, enabling learner to learn, and setting the condition for learning."

Competence and Performance

One of the famous issues in second language learning is Chomsky's concept of competence and performance (1966). Competence refers to the abstract and unseen representation of language knowledge inside our mind, with its probability to make and comprehend original utterances in a given language. On the other hand, performance deals with the data of real utterances which people have produced (Mitchel and Myles, 2001: 15). Hence, competence is truly unobservable, while performance is observable. Possibly, students' knowledge of English is far greater than their ability to perform their language knowledge. In many cases, students do very well in writing but do not perform satisfactorily in speaking. Or,

some students can perform very well in English class, but they lost their words when they have to talk to native speakers of English.

Chapter 1
Factors Affecting Foreign Language Learning:
Individual Differences

Objectives:

At the end of this chapter, you should be able to:

1. identify factors affecting English as Foreign Language learning.

2. explain the effect of individual differences to SLA.

3. discuss some research findings of individual differences that influence ELT.

The idea that individual differences of second language (L2) learners may influence their second language acquisition is generally accepted. In actual life, particularly in formal learning setting, learners may show different levels of proficiency even though they get similar treatment from their teacher. Factors which may influence Second Language Acquisition (SLA) are age, motivation, and intelligence, and also learning style, personality, learner belief, attitude and aptitude. The fact that some adult learners are more successful at acquiring English as L2 than others has led to investigations of individual characteristics as predictors of successful L2 acquisition.

A. Age

People want to know precisely when second language education should be started particularly in formal school context. This is one reason of why age becomes one important topic in the study of SLA. Some researchers, for example Altman, Larsen-Freeman and Long, show that one factor contributing to the individual differences that should be considered in L2 learning is age. There have been lines of research in the area of age that lead to significant implication to the educational policy and programs. Mostly, the age studies focus on four topics, i.e., critical period for

language learning (CPH or Critical Period Hypothesis), ultimate attainment and rate of acquisition.

1. CPH

It can be argued that CPH significantly supports the common belief saying that children are better L2 learner than adults. Several studies examining CPH led to open ended topics of discussion. Below are some experts' arguments about CPH.

o Lenneberg (1967): "normal language development might process within a limited age range period prior to puberty with the establishment of "cerebral lateralization of function" (Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle, 1978:114)

o Mclaughlin (1992):" it was a myth that adults, as the late learners are unable to attain better proficiency."

o Marinova-Todd, Marshal and Snow (2000): "the existence of CPH was still debatable and there has been biased in some research supporting it."

The focus of CPH studies recently is comparing the native speakers to the learners of L2 (native-like, near native or slight native).It is believed that phonology, including pronunciation, is the area that adults find most difficult to acquire. Thomson (1991) implied that starting L2 learning early would not directly make learners acquire native-speaker proficiencies straight away eventhough they had the best learning circumstance.

2. Ultimate attainment

Ultimate attainment has occasionally and erroneously been used as a synonym for native- like proficiency; however, it accurately describes the final state of the SLA (Birdsong, 2000:11).Some studies in naturalistic context generally prove that early starters outperform the late starters, e.g. Oyama (1976), Patkowski (1980). Some studies in

classroom contexts revealed that the late beginners are better than the early beginners, e.g. Burstall (1975) (esp. in reading, writing and speaking), Oller and Nagato (1974).

3. Rate of Acquisition

There are some short-term studies ranging from a few minutes to few months that focus on the rate of acquisition; for example Asher and Price (1967), Olsen and Samuels (1973). Krashen *et al.* conclude that "adults are superior to children in the rate of acquisition" and "older children learn more rapidly than younger children" (Ellis, 1994: 485). Support for them comes from Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991, 155) who stated that older learners were faster than children, and older children were faster than younger children. Furthermore, they added that the rate benefit is limited to certain aspects i.e., early morphology and syntax. Moreover, those aspects also occur just in short term as those disappear after a few months.

Studies of the effect of age on the rate of L2 acquisition in general show that to some extent adults perform better than children in a formal instructional context. This situation may bring significant information to the L2 education. Children, teenagers and adults learn differently. Therefore, it is important for the teacher to consider the influence of age and maturity to the English classroom. The following are the characteristics of 3 groups of learners based on age/maturity:

Children	Teenagers	Adults
Need to move	Start to keep still for longer periods but still need to move	Able to keep still for longer periods
Can concentrate for shorter	Concentration developing	Can concentrate for longer

periods		periods
Learn through experience	Begin to learn in abstract ways, i.e. through thinking as well as experiencing	Learn in more abstract ways
Have low ability to control and plan their own behavior	Begin to control and plan their own behavior	Usually able to control and plan their own behaviour
Are not afraid of making mistakes or taking risks	May worry about what others think of them	Not so willing to make mistakes or take risks
Are not aware of themselves and/or their actions	Sometimes uncomfortably aware of themselves and/or their actions	Aware of themselves and/or their actions
Pay attention to meaning in language	Pay attention to meaning and increasingly to form	Pay attention to form and meaning in language
Have limited experience of life	Begin to increase their experience of life	Have experience o life

Sprat et.al. (2005: 53)

B. Intelligence

Traditionally, intelligence is the term that refers to "performance on certain kinds of tests" (Lightbow and Spada, 2001: 31). Moreover they states that these tests are often allied with success in school. For long time people use IQ test as a means to predict how successful a language learners will be. Considering this, Lighbow and Spada *(ibid)* believe that" intelligence is complex and that individuals have many kind of abilities and strengths, not all of which are measured by traditional IQ test."

Howard Gardner developed a set of criteria that he used to determine "what constitutes an intelligence" (Boggeman, 1996). He used these

criteria to identify some intelligence. Initially there are 7 criteria until at last he include naturalist. This theory is called Multiple Intelligence.

Figure 1. Gardner's Multiple Intelligence Theory:

a. Linguistics	Sensitivity to the meaning and order of words
b. Logical-Mathematical	The ability to handle chains of reasoning and to recognize pattern and order.
c. Musical	Sensitivity to pitch, melody and rhythm.
d. Bodily-Kinesthetic	The ability to use the body skillfully and handle objects adroitly.
e. Visual/Spatial	The ability to perceive the world accurately and to re-create or transform aspects of that world.
f. Interpersonal	The ability to understand people and relationship
g. Intrapersonal	Access to one's emotional life as a means to understand oneself and others.
h. Naturalist	The ability to recognize flora and fauna, to make other consequential distinctions in the natural world and to use this ability productively (in hunting, farming, biological science).

(Boggeman, 1996: xxii-xxiii)

Recently **Existential Intelligence** -- sensitivity and capacity to tackle deep questions about human existence, such as the meaning of life, why we die, and how we get here are also counted as part of the MI.

Persons who are linguistically intelligent able to use words effectively both orally and in writing. They are able to use language effectively using

various ways, such as to convince others to do something, to memorize information, and to talk about language itself (Christisson, 1996). Gardner proposes that everyone has the capacity to develop all intelligences to a reasonably high level. This information is encouraging for language teachers. It may mean that teachers can help the second language learners to develop their intelligences--including linguistic intelligence. It is widely believed that the combination of the right environmental influences and quality instruction takes a significant role in the language learning success; and teachers may take part on both of these.

C. Motivation

It is widely agreed that motivation is a key factor in second language (L2) or foreign language (FL) leaning success. People may start learning L2 or FL because of various reasons that may come intrinsically or extrinsically. Many people nowadays enjoy learning L2/FL and try hard to get high level proficiency. Some others learn these not because they want it but merely because they should do it that way, for example some students in ESL/EFL context learn L2/FL because the educational policies in their countries ask them to do so. It seems that for some people, learning second or foreign languages, to some extent, may be just a matter of choice rather than a necessity, but for some others it becomes an essential action, as there are a lot of benefits that go with that. As the response of people toward language learning is varied, it is interesting to find out the reasons behind that, which then bring to the discussion about motivation.

Motivation, in broad-spectrum, refers to the effort in which learners put learning into practice as a result of their need or desire to do it. Ellis (1994: 237) stated that motivation, which was viewed as independent of language aptitude, had a major impact on learning in informal as well as formal learning contexts. William and Burden (1997: 111) stated that learning

was possible to occur when people want to do it. The term *want* may indicate that there is an active process within someone that drive him/her to act something.   Dornyei (2005:66) explained that motivation concerns with the primary question of "why people think and behave as they do." It is assumed that the use of the word "and" indicates that thinking and behaving are the continuing process that cannot be separated.

Numbers of hypothesis rise in the literature regarding motivation, and many times, these hypotheses have been offered based on results obtained in research in very different contexts and different measurements (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003). Various scholars, such as Gardner and Lambert (1972), Ryan and Deci (2000), Noels *et all.* (2000), and Dornyei (2005) have offered frameworks in viewing motivation. "Gardner and Lambert (1972) viewed second languages as mediating factors between different ethnolinguistic communities and thus regarded the motivation to learn languages of the community as a primary force responsible for enhancing or hindering intercultural communication and affiliation" (Dornyei, 2005: 67). Gardner and Lambert (1972) distinguished 'instrumental motivation,' as one that arises because of the existence of the functional goals, such as job, and 'integrative motivation' as one that occurs when the individual is expected to identify with the second or foreign language group's cultures (as cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 715). However, according to Dornyei (2005), their claim indicated that a foreign language is not a socioculturally neutral field but is affected by a range of socio-cultural factors such as language attitudes, cultural stereotypes and even geopolitical considerations.

Ryan and Deci's (1985, 2000) *self-determination theory*, divides motivation into two general types: intrinsic and extrinsic. This theory has become the most influencing approach (Dornyei, 2005). The self-determination theory determined that intrinsic motivation (IM) is based on

the intrinsic interest in activity, while extrinsic motivation (EM) is based on rewards extrinsic to activity itself (Ryan and Deci, 2000). According to Noels *et. all* (2003: 34-34), intrinsic motivation (IM) is motivation "to engage in activity because that activity is enjoyable and satisfying to do," while EM is "actions carried out to achieve some instrumental end, such as earning a reward or avoiding a punishment." Vallerand and his colleagues as cited in Noels *et al.* (2003) offered three-part taxonomy of intrinsic motivation: *IM-knowledge*, *IM-accomplishment* and *IM-stimulation*. They explained that *IM-knowledge* referred to the motivation to do an action for "the feeling associated with exploring new ideas and developing knowledge" while *IM-Accomplishment* refers to the "sensations related to attempting to master a task or achieve a goal", whereas *IM-Stimulation*, relates to motivation "based simply on the sensations stimulated by performing the task," like aesthetic appreciation or fun and excitement.

Ryan and Deci (2000) put the *external, introjected, identified and integrated regulations,* as parts of EM. However, in relation to education, there are three types of EM which is based on "to extent to which the self motivation is self-determined" (Vallerand , 1997; Valerand *et all*., 1992, 1993 as cited in Noels *et al.*, 2003). The first is called *external regulation,* i.e., those activities that are determined by sources external to the person, such as tangible benefits or costs. The next is *introjected regulation* which refers to reasons that pertain to performing an activity due to some type of pressure that individuals have incorporated into the self, such that they compel themselves to carry out that activity", moreover, eventhough the cause of the pressure is internal, it is not self determined as the individuals were responding to a pressure, "not acting on the basis of personal choice." The third is *identified regulation*, in which persons invest energy in an activity as they have chosen to do so for personally relevant reasons. *Integrated regulation* occurs when *identified regulations* are fully assimilated to the self (Ryan and Deci, 2000: 73)

D. Self Esteem

Self esteem is "a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that the individual holds towards himself" (Coopersmith in Brown, 1987: 101-102). It "refers to the degree to which individuals feel confident and believe themselves to be significant people. It is manifested at different levels (global, situational and task)" (Ellis, 1994: 518).Brown (1987: 102) argues that global self esteem is relatively stable in a mature adult, and is resistant to change except by active and extended therapy. Situational/ specific self esteem refers to one's appraisals of oneself in certain life situation, such as social interaction, work, education, home or on certain relatively discretely defined traits-intelligence, communicative ability, athletic ability, or personality traits like gregariousness, empathy and flexibility. Task of self esteem relates to particular tasks within specific situation. Heyde (1979) found that self esteem correlated positively with oral production; But, Gardner and Lambert (1972) failed to find their significant relationship.

E. Inhibition

Inhibition refers to the extent to which individuals build defenses to protect their egos. People vary in how adaptive their language egos are, i.e. how well they are to deal with the identity conflict involved in L2 learning. Guiora et al. (1972 and 1980) in Brown (1987) used alcohol and valium administered in differing quantities to reduce inhibition as measuring instrument. His study showed that subjects given alcohol showed better pronunciation while valium had no effect.

F. Risk Taking

Ehrman and Oxford (1995) specifically linked it to risk taking because those who can tolerate ambiguity are more likely to take risks in language

learning, an essential factor for making progress in the language (Beebee, 1983; Brown, 1987; Ely, 1986; Stevick, 1976).

There are five levels of risk-taking behavior:
1.   the uninhibited risk-taker
2.   the analytical risk-taker
3.   the cautious risk-taker
4.   the inhibited risk-taker
5.   the non risk-taker

G. Learning Style

Learning style is used to describe an individual natural, habitual, and preferred way of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills (Reid, 1995 in Lighbow and Spada, 1996). Some learners may be categorized as 'aural', 'visual' or, 'kinesthetic.' Considerable research that focus on cognitive learning style categorize learners into field independent and field independent learners. If you are field independent, you will concentrate on the compulsory and relevant details and you will not be 'distracted by surrounding but irrelevant details' (Brown, 1997: 84). People whose field independent are dominant are usually more independent, competitive, and self confident. 'Field-dependent persons tend to be more socialized, tend to derive their self identity from people around them, and usually more emphatic and perceptive of feelings and thoughts of others. (Brown, 1997: 86).

Richard M. Felder and Barbara A. Soloman give suggestions how the following four types of learners can help themselves:
1. Active and Reflective Learners - will retain information better when they use it.
2. Sensing and Intuitive Learners - need to see how information connects to the real world

3. Visual and Verbal Learners - need summaries or outlines in their own words.

4. Sequential and Global Learners - need to get the big picture and understand how information connects to other topics before they can master the details.

Kolb's Learning Styles (Source: 537 Course Contents on Kolb and Hartman, 1995)

1. Accommodators (Concrete experience/Active experimenter) are motivated by the question, "what would happen if I did this?" They consider what they can do, as well as what others have done previously. They are able to see relationships among aspects of a system. Encouraging independent discovery, accommodators like to be active participants in their learning and to offer laboratories, field work, observations or trigger films.

2. Assimilators (Abstract conceptualization/Reflective observer) are motivated to answer the question, "what is there to know?" They like accurate, organized delivery of information and respect the knowledge of the expert. They are not comfortable randomly exploring a system. They like to get the 'right' answer to the problem, use the lecture method, video or audio presentation, followed by a demonstration, explore a subject in a lab followed by a tutorial, and use logs, journals, or brainstorming.

3. Convergers (abstract conceptualization/active experimenter) are motivated to discover the relevancy or the "how" of a situation. Application and usefulness of information is increased by understanding detailed information about a system's operation. By means of lectures, papers, analogies, simulations, case studies, and homework, students prefer interactive instruction, computer assisted instruction, and problem sets or workbooks.

4. Divergers (concrete/reflexive learners) are motivated to discover the relevancy or "why" of a situation. They reason from concrete specific information and like to explore

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what a system has to offer. They prefer to have information presented in a detailed, systematic, reasoned manner, and enjoy using the lecture method that focuses on specifics for example the strengths, weaknesses and uses of a system, and use hands-on exploration of a system. Teachers should answer questions, make suggestions, and provide reference guides to the students.

http://www.stemnet.nf.ca/~dsulliva/EP/learning_styles.htm

Other research categorizes learning style based on the individual's personality/temperament: extroversion-introversion, sensing – intuition, thinking-feeling, judging-perceiving.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator
1. Extroversion—Introversion (Attitudes)
Whether to direct perception and judgment mainly on the outer world (E) or mainly on the world of ideas (I); a person's basic orientation, attitude toward life. Extroverts tend to focus their perception and judgment on people and objects. Introverts tend to focus their perception and judgment on concepts and ideas.

2. Sensing Perception—Intuitive Perception (Process of Perception)
Which kinds of perception are preferred when one needs or wishes to perceive; one may rely primarily on the process of sensing (S), which reports observable facts or happenings through one or more of the five senses; or one may rely more on the less obvious process of intuition (N), which reports meanings, relationships and/ or possibilities that have been worked out beyond the reach of the conscious mind.

3. Thinking Judgment—Feeling Judgment (Process of Judgment)
Which kind of judgment to trust when one needs or wishes to make a decision; a person may rely primarily on thinking (T) to decide impersonally on the basis of logical

consequences, or a person may rely primarily on feeling (F) to decide primarily on the basis of personal or social values.

4. Judging—Perceiving (Style of Dealing with the Outside World)

Whether to deal with the outer world in the judging (J) attitude (using Thinking judgment or Feeling judgment), or in the perceptive (P) attitude (using Sensing perception or Intuitive perception). A person who prefers judgment (J) has reported a preference for using a judgment process (either T or F) for dealing with the outside world. A person who prefers perception (P) has reported a preference for using a perceptive process (either S or N) for dealing with the outside world.

Note. Taken from Myers-Briggs and McCaulley (1985, p. 2).

H. Tolerance of Ambiguity

Frenkel-Brunswick (1949: 115) states that intolerance for ambiguity was "a tendency to resort to black-and-white solutions, to arrive at premature closure, often at the neglect of reality." Budner (1962) believed that intolerance for ambiguous situation is usually perceived as sources of threats. Jonassen and Grabowski (1993) think that 'tolerant individuals should perform well in new and complex learning situations'. On the other hand, intolerant learners have a tendency to avoid or give up when encountering ambiguous situations.

In his summary of research by Naiman et al. (1975) and Chapelle and Roberts (1986), Ellis described tolerance of ambiguity as a dimension of second language learning which "entails an ability to deal with ambiguous new stimuli without frustration and without appeals to authority [e.g., the first language]. It allows for indeterminate rather than rigid categorization" (p. 518).

Ehrman (1993, p. 337) further hypothesized that "feeling students may tolerate certain kinds of ambiguity, e.g., about grammatical structure, more than their thinking classmates."

Reflection Task

1. Some experts believe that CPH for language learning exist. Others, however, do not believe in the existence of CPH. What about you? Justify your answer.
2. What is the effect of individual differences to the EFL teaching and learning?
3. Is motivation vital to language learning? Why?
4. Which students do you think will be more successful in English as foreign language learning? Why?
a. An Indonesian teenager studies English in a college in Australia. At home his father and mother speak Indonesian. Some of his friends speak to him using Indonesian, some others speak in English.
b. An Indonesian student studies English in an international language course in Jakarta. All of her teachers are native speakers of English.

EXTENDED TASK:

Anxiety and Empathy are also regarded as factors that may influence the English teaching and learning process. What is Anxiety? What is Empathy? In what way do these two aspects influence students' learning?

Chapter 2
Characteristics of Good Language Learners

Objectives:

At the end of this chapter you should be able to:

1. identify characteristics of good language learners.

2. identify your own characteristics

Based on their observation, Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) in Brown (1987) propose characteristics of good language learners as follow:

Rubin's lists:

1. willing and accurate guesser
2. strong drive to communicate
3. uninhabited
4. attends t forms
5. practices — seeks out conversation.
6. monitors own speech and the speech of others
7. attends to meaning

Stern's lists:

1. a personal learning style or positive learning strategy
2. an active approach to the learning task
3. a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and empathy with its speaker
4. technical know-how about how to tackle a language
5. strategies of experimentation and planning with the object of developing the new language into an ordered system and of revising the system progressively
6. constantly searching for meaning
7. willingness to practice
8. willingness to use the language in real communication

9. self monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use
10. developing the target language more and more as a separate reference system and learning to think in it.

Brown (1987: 93-94) writes that metacognitive refers to" a term used in information-process theory to indicate an 'executive' function, strategies that involve planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production or comprehension and evaluating learning after an activity is completed."

Reflection Task

1. Do you think you are a good language learner? Why?
2. What is the strength and weakness of being a risk taker?
3. What are you strength and weaknesses as a language learner?

Chapter 3
Continuing Teacher Education:
Competencies Required by EFL Teachers

Objectives:

At the end of this chapter you should be able to:
1. Identify competencies required by EFL teachers
2. Identify characteristics of a good EFL teacher

The most challenging task of being teachers is the fact that teachers never stop learning. The complexity of managing a teaching-learning process demands teachers to always answer a number of questions, and solve some problems. Every time teachers walk into their classroom, they face some of those issues, such as how well a method and a technique work, how classroom interaction can be improved, how to assess students' learning progress, how to improve students' active participation, or how their teaching style affects students.

If you are a growing teacher, undoubtedly you will undergo all these complexities in your teaching profession. That is why it is important to acquire all knowledge and teaching skills required to meet these challenges. Brown (2001) adapted from Pennington (1990:150) outlines some major goals that a teacher has to pursue:

1. A knowledge of the theoretical foundations of language learning and language teaching,
2. The analytical skills necessary for assessing different teaching contexts and classroom conditions,
3. An awareness of alternative teaching techniques and the ability to put these into practice,
4. The confidence and skill to alter your teaching techniques as needed,
5. Practical experience with different teaching techniques
6. Informed knowledge of yourself and your students,

7. Interpersonal communication skills, and

8. Attitudes of flexibility and openness to change

Brown, further, cites the down-to-earth list of characteristics of good ESL teachers proposed by Harold B. Allen (1980):

1. Competent preparation leading to a degree in TESL

2. A love of the English language

3. Critical thinking

4. The persistent urge to upgrade oneself

5. Self-subordination

6. Readiness to go the extra mile

7. Cultural adaptability

8. Professional citizenship

9. A feeling of excitement about one's work

Finally, the following are the characteristics of a good language teacher outlined by Brown:

❖ Technical Knowledge

1. Understand the linguistic systems of English phonology, grammar, and discourse

2. Comprehensively grasps basic principles of language learning and teaching

3. Has fluent competence in speaking, writing, listening to, and reading English

4. Knows through experience what it is like to learn a foreign language

5. Understands the close connection between language and culture

6. Keeps up with the field through regular reading and conference/workshop attendance

❖ Pedagogical Skills

1. Has a well-thought-out, informed approach to language teaching
2. Understands and uses a wide variety of techniques
3. Efficiently designs and executes lesson plans
4. Monitor lessons as they unfold and makes effective mid-lesson alterations
5. Effectively perceives students' linguistic needs
6. Gives optimal feedback to students
7. Stimulates interaction, cooperation, and teamwork in the classroom
8. Uses appropriate principles of classroom management
9. Uses effective, clear presentation skills
10. Creatively adapts textbook material and other audio, visual, and mechanical aids
11. Innovatively creates brand-new materials when needed
12. Uses interactive, intrinsically motivating techniques to create effective tests and lessons

❖ Interpersonal Skills

1. Is aware of cross-cultural differences and is sensitive to students' cultural traditions
2. Enjoys people, shows enthusiasm, warmth, rapport, and appropriate humor
3. Values the opinions and abilities of students
4. Is patient in working with students of lesser ability
5. Offers challenges to students of exceptionally high ability
6. Cooperates harmoniously and candidly with colleagues (fellow teachers)
7. Seeks opportunities to share thoughts, ideas, and techniques with colleagues

❖ Personal Qualities

1. Is well organized, conscientious in meeting commitments, and dependable
2. Is flexible when things go awry
3. Maintains an inquisitive mind in trying out new ways of teaching
4. Sets short-term and long-term goals for continued professional growth
5. Maintains and exemplifies high ethical and moral standards

Chapter 4
The Development of TEFL Methodology

Objectives:

At the end of this chapter you should be able to:
1. Understand various different methods of teaching English by identifying the characteristics of each method
2. Analyze the application of those methods as outlined in the provided analytical questions

1. The Grammar Translation Methods

The Grammar translation method is also called a classical method. This method came out when the western people world wanted to learn "foreign" languages such as Latin and Greek. The focus of GTM was on grammatical rules, the memorization of vocabulary and of various declensions and conjugations, translations of texts, and doing written exercises.

According to Brown (2001), class which applies the Grammar translation Method would possibly be like this:

1. Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.

2. Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.

3. Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.

4. Grammar provides the rule for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.

5. Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.

6. Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.

2. The Direct Method

The basic principle of the Direct Method was that second language learning should be more like first language learning. The method would comprise a great deal of oral interaction, spontaneous use of language, no translation between first and second languages, and little or no analysis of grammar rules.

Here are the principles of the direct method based on Brown's arguments:

1. Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target
language.
2. Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.
3. Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully traded progression organized around questions-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small intensive classes.
4. Grammar was taught inductively.
5. New teaching points were taught through modeling and practice.
6. Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught through association of ideas.
7. Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.
8. Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.

3. Audio Lingual Methods

The audio-lingual method (ALM) was widely used in the United States and other countries in the 1950's and 1960's. Some programs still use it nowadays. The structural view of language is the view behind this method. The emphasis was on mastering the building blocks of language and learning the rules for combining them.

ALM is greatly influenced by Behaviorism. The basic principles of this are:

1. language learning is habit-formation,

2. mistakes are bad and should be avoided, as they make bad habits.

3. language skills are learned more effectively if they are presented orally first, then in written form

4. analogy is a better foundation for language learning than analysis

5. the meanings of words can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context

Accurate pronunciation and grammar, ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations, knowledge of sufficient vocabulary to use with grammar patterns are some prominent objectives of ALM.

Typically, the procedure in an audio-lingual course would be:

a. Students hear a model dialogue

b. Students repeat each line of the dialogue

c. Certain key words or phrases may be changed in the dialogue

d. Key structures from the dialogue serve as the basis for pattern drills of different kinds.

e. The students practice substitutions in the pattern drills

4. Communicative Language Teaching

There are many ways to teach language. One is called Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). This method is learner-centered and emphasizes communication and real-life situations. Read the following article to get information about CLT. The article was taken from http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/gallow01.html

Online Resources: Digests

June 1993

Communicative Language Teaching: An Introduction And Sample Activities

Ann Galloway, Center for Applied Linguistics

This digest will take a look at the communicative approach to the teaching of foreign languages. It is intended as an introduction to the communicative approach for teachers and teachers-in-training who want to provide opportunities in the classroom for their students to engage in real-life communication in the target language. Questions to be dealt with include what the communicative approach is, where it came from, and how teachers' and students' roles differ from the roles they play in other teaching approaches. Examples of exercises that can be used with a communicative approach are described, and sources of appropriate materials are provided.

Where does communicative language teaching come from?

Its origins are many, insofar as one teaching methodology tends to influence the next. The communicative approach could be said to be the product of educators and linguists who had grown dissatisfied with the audio-lingual and grammar-translation methods of foreign language instruction. They felt that students were not learning enough realistic, whole language. They did not know how to communicate using appropriate social language, gestures, or expressions; in brief, they were at a loss to communicate in the culture of the language studied. Interest in and development of communicative-style teaching mushroomed in the 1970s; authentic language use and classroom exchanges where students engaged in real communication with one another became quite popular.

In the intervening years, the communicative approach has been adapted to the elementary, middle, secondary, and post-secondary levels, and the underlying philosophy has spawned different teaching methods known under a variety of names, including *notional-functional, teaching for proficiency, proficiency-based instruction, and communicative language teaching.*

What is communicative language teaching?

Communicative language teaching makes use of real-life situations that necessitate communication. The teacher sets up a situation that students are likely to encounter in real life. Unlike the audio-lingual method of language teaching, which relies on repetition and drills, the communicative approach can leave students in suspense as to the outcome of a class exercise, which will vary according to their reactions and responses. The real-life simulations change from day to day. Students' motivation to learn comes from their desire to communicate in meaningful ways about meaningful topics.

Margie S. Berns, an expert in the field of communicative language teaching, writes in

explaining Firth's view that "language is interaction; it is interpersonal activity and has a clear relationship with society. In this light, language study has to look at the use (function) of language in context, both its linguistic context (what is uttered before and after a given piece of discourse) and its social, or situational, context (who is speaking, what their social roles are, why they have come together to speak)" (Berns, 1984, p. 5).

What are some examples of communicative exercises?

In a communicative classroom for beginners, the teacher might begin by passing out cards, each with a different name printed on it. The teacher then proceeds to model an exchange of introductions in the target language: *"Guten Tag. Wie heissen Sie?"* Reply: *"Ich heisse Wolfie,"* for example. Using a combination of the target language and gestures, the teacher conveys the task at hand, and gets the students to introduce themselves and ask their classmates for information. They are responding in German to a question in German. They do not know the answers beforehand, as they are each holding cards with their new identities written on them; hence, there is an authentic exchange of information.

Later during the class, as a reinforcement listening exercise, the students might hear a recorded exchange between two German freshmen meeting each other for the first time at the Gymnasium doors. Then the teacher might explain, in English, the differences among German greetings in various social situations. Finally, the teacher will explain some of the grammar points and structures used.

The following exercise is taken from a 1987 workshop on communicative foreign language teaching, given for Delaware language teachers by Karen Willetts and Lynn Thompson of the Center for Applied Linguistics. The exercise, called "Eavesdropping," is aimed at advanced students.

Instructions to students: Listen to a conversation somewhere in a public place and be prepared to answer, in the target language, some general questions about what was said.

  1. Who was talking?
  2. About how old were they?
  3. Where were they when you eavesdropped?
  4. What were they talking about?
  5. What did they say?
  6. Did they become aware that you were listening to them?

The exercise puts students in a real-world listening situation where they must report information overheard. Most likely they have an opinion of the topic, and a class discussion could follow, in the target language, about their experiences and viewpoints.

Communicative exercises such as this motivate the students by treating topics of their

choice, at an appropriately challenging level.

Another exercise taken from the same source is for beginning students of Spanish. In "Listening for the Gist," students are placed in an everyday situation where they must listen to an authentic text.

Objective: Students listen to a passage to get general understanding of the topic or message.

Directions: Have students listen to the following announcement to decide what the speaker is promoting.

Passage: Situacion ideal . . . Servicio de transporte al Aeropuerto Internacional . . . Cuarenta y dos habitaciones de lujo, con aire acondicionado . . . Elegante restaurante . . . de fama internacional.

(The announcement can be read by the teacher or played on tape.) Then ask students to circle the letter of the most appropriate answer on their copy, which consists of the following multiple-choice options:

   a. a taxi service   b. a hotel   c. an airport   d. a restaurant

(Source: Adapted from Ontario Assessment Instrument Pool, 1980, Item No. 13019)

Gunter Gerngross, an English teacher in Austria, gives an example of how he makes his lessons more communicative. He cites a widely used textbook that shows English children having a pet show. "Even when learners act out this scene creatively and enthusiastically, they do not reach the depth of involvement that is almost tangible when they act out a short text that presents a family conflict revolving round the question of whether the children should be allowed to have a pet or not" (Gerngross & Puchta, 1984, p. 92). He continues to say that the communicative approach "puts great emphasis on listening, which implies an active will to try to understand others. [This is] one of the hardest tasks to achieve because the children are used to listening to the teacher but not to their peers. There are no quick, set recipes. That the teacher be a patient listener is the basic requirement" (p.98).

The observation by Gerngross on the role of the teacher as one of listener rather than speaker brings up several points to be discussed in the next portion of this digest.

How do the roles of the teacher and student change in communicative language teaching?

Teachers in communicative classrooms will find themselves talking less and listening moreËbecoming active facilitators of their students' learning (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). The teacher sets up the exercise, but because the students' performance is the goal, the teacher must step back and observe, sometimes acting as referee or monitor. A

classroom during a communicative activity is far from quiet, however. The students do most of the speaking, and frequently the scene of a classroom during a communicative exercise is active, with students leaving their seats to complete a task. Because of the increased responsibility to participate, students may find they gain confidence in using the target language in general. Students are more responsible managers of their own learning (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

Where can I learn more about communicative teaching?

All of the following documents on communicative language teaching are in the ERIC database. They can be read on microfiche at any library housing an ERIC collection or purchased in microfiche or paper copy from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), 7420 Fullerton Road, Suite 110, Springfield, VA 22153-2852 (1-800-443-3742).

Ben-Barka, A. C. [1982]. *In search of a language teaching framework: An adaptation of a communicative approach to functional practice.* (EDRS No. ED239507, 26 pages)

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Littlewood, W. T. (1983). *Communicative approach to language teaching methodology* (CLCS Occasional Paper No. 7). Dublin: Dublin University Trinity College, Centre for Language and Communication Studies. (EDRS No. ED235690, 23 pages)

Pattison, P. (1987). *The communicative approach and classroom realities.* (EDRS No. ED288407, 17 pages)

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Sheils, J. (1986). *Implications of the communicative approach for the role of the teacher.* (EDRS No. ED268831, 7 pages)

Swain, M., & Canale, M. (1982). *The role of grammar in a communicative approach to second language teaching and testing.* (EDRS No. ED221026, 8 pages) (not available separately; available from EDRS as part of ED221023, 138 pages)

Willems, G., & Riley, P. (Eds.). (1984). *Communicative foreign language teaching and the training of foreign language teachers.* (EDRS No. ED273102, 219 pages)

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Reflection Task:

1. It has been said that the Grammar-Translation Method teaches students about the target language, but not how to use it. Explain the difference in your own words.

2. In the Grammar-Translation Method, grammar is treated deductively, while in the Direct Method it is taught inductively. Can you explain the difference between deductive and inductive treatments of grammar?

3. Some people believe that knowledge of a first and second language can be helpful to learners who are trying to learn a third language. What would an Audio-Lingual teacher say about this? Why?

4. Why do we say that communication is a process? What does it mean to negotiate meaning?

Apply what you have understood about the teaching methods explained above.

1. Pick a grammatical point or two contained in the same passage. Provide the explicit grammar rule that relates to each one and give some examples. Design exercises that require your students to apply the rule to some different examples.

2. Choose a particular situation (such as at the bank, at the railroad station, or at the doctor's office) or a particular topic (such as articles of clothing, holidays, or the weather) and write a short passage or a dialog on the theme you have chosen. Now think

about how you will convey its meaning to students using their native language.

3. Prepare your own dialog to introduce your students to a sentence or sub-sentence pattern in the target language you teach.

4. Imagine that you are working with your students on the function of requesting information. The authentic material you have selected is a railroad timetable. Design a communicative game or problem-solving task in which the timetable is used to give your students practice in requesting information.

Chapter 5
Communicative Language Ability

Objectives:

At the end of this chapter you should be able to:

1. identify the characteristics of communicative language performance
2. distinguish competence vs performance

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1. Communicative Language Performance

Communicative language performance is the actual learners' performance in response to communicative activities engagement done in the class. The principle underlying communicative language performance is the concept of how language is used. Instead of focusing solely on grammar, learners should look at what notions of the language expressed and what communicative functions learners perform with the language (Wilkins, 1976 in Harmer, 2008: 69). Thus the essential strand of communicative language performance is to involve learners in realistic communication in which the achievement target is on the accuracy of their language use. Some requirements are supposed to be provided by a teacher who wants to assign communicative activities in the classroom. In this case, the teacher has to set up a situation that arises students' desire to communicate. Students should be prepared to focus on meanings rather than forms and use a variety of language rather than one language structure. The following is the communication continuum of communicative activities that teachers have to take into account when designing communicative language performance for their students.

Non-communicative activities	**Communicative activities**
No communicative desire No communicative purpose Form not content One language item only Teacher intervention Materials control	A desire to communicate A communicative purpose Content not form Variety of language No teacher intervention No materials control

2. Competence vs Performance

The distinction between competence and performance had been in debate amongst scientists and philosophers for centuries. Competence is defined as one's underlying knowledge of a system, event, or fact. It is one's invisible ability to do something or to perform something. Performance, on the other hand, is the observable realization of competence. It is the actual performance of doing things, such as speaking, writing, singing, dancing, swimming, etc. In state of the art societies the competence-performance distinction have been used in many areas. In reference to language, however, competence refers to one's underlying knowledge of the system of a language. The recognition of the grammar and vocabulary systems, all the pieces of a language, and how those pieces go and fit together is covered in one's competence. Performance, on the contrary, is the actual production (speaking, writing) or the comprehension (listening, reading) of linguistic events. Chomsky (1965) categorized performance as "idealized" speaker-hearer who does not demonstrate such performance variables as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, errors, and hesitation phenomena. Chomsky's idea was that a theory of language had to be a theory of competence as it was in line with the linguists' effort for categorizing an infinite number of performance variables that are not reflective of the competence of the speaker-hearer.

This effort generated one question: How could one scientifically assess this unobservable underlying ability? Brown and Bellugi (1964) gave us a clear illustration of the difficulty of attempting to portray underlying grammatical knowledge from children. When a child was asked to identify a grammatical pattern, the child obviously had no interest in answering the question. Having failed to collect the expected data by means of a direct interview, Brown and Bellugi decided to use the tape recording and transcription of countless hours of speech followed by studious analysis, or such data as certain imitation, production, or comprehension tests, all with numerous disadvantages. It is concluded that inferring children's speech competence remains a problem. Many questions as 'What is a child's knowledge of the verb system? Of the concept of the phrase/ clause system?

The distinction proposed by Chomsky has not been accepted by some linguists though. The major criticisms of the model fall on the notion that competence does not accommodate performance variables. Stubbs (1996) reminded us that dualisms on this notion are unnecessary, and the only option for linguists is to explore language use. Tarone (1988) emphasized that children and adults' slips, hesitations, and self-corrections are feasibly linked to heterogeneous competence-abilities.

Reflection Task:

1. Find the examples of communicative activities that match with the communication continuum. Explain in what way they fit the communicative language performance.

Chapter 6
Teaching English Skills

Objectives:

At the end of this chapter you should be able to:

1. distinguish productive from receptive skills
2. distinguish written language from spoken language
3. mention some ways and principles of teaching receptive and productive skills

Teaching Receptive Skills

Listening and Reading are skills which are categorized as receptive skills as they involve responding to language rather than producing it. Spoken Language is different from written language. Look at the comparison between written and spoken language below:

Written Language in English	Spoken Language in English
Stays on page and doesn't disappear.	Disappears as soon as it is spoken. Sometimes it is spoken fast and sometime slowly, with or without pauses.
Uses punctuation and capital letters to show sentences	Shows sentences and meaningful groups of words through stress and intonation.
Consists of letters, words, sentences and punctuation joined together into text.	Consists of connected speech, sentences, incomplete sentences or single words.
Has no visual support—except photos or pictures sometimes.	The speaker uses body language to support his/her communication; for example, gestures (movements of hands r arms to help people understand us), and facial expressions (the looks on our face).

	This helps the listener to understand what the speaker is saying.
It is usually quite well organized; sentences follow one another in logical sequences and are joined to previous or following sentences.	It is not so well organized; e.g. it contains interruptions, hesitations, repetition and frequent changes o topic.
Usually uses quite exact vocabulary and more complex grammar.	Often uses rather general vocabulary and simple grammar.

Sprat et.al. (2005: 30).

Students need to use context as well as knowledge of the words to help them understand the spoken language.

B. Teaching Listening

Student should understand that there are various types of spoken texts, i.e. conversation, announcement, songs, instruction, stories, etc which have different purposes, structure and language features. Speaker's speed and accent are two important things that students need to consider. Some people speak fast and some others speak slowly. Native speakers of English have different accent too. According to Brown (2001:252) learners should consider specific characteristics of spoken language to help them comprehend easily. At least there are 8 characteristic that the learner should be aware of, i.e. clustering, redundancy, reduced form, performance variable, colloquial language, rate of delivery, stress, rhythm and intonation and interaction.

Spratt et al (2005:32) note that activities in a listening class usually consist of 3 main stages: introductory, main and post activities. Introductory involves introduction to the topic of the text and activities that focus on the

language of the text. Main activities deal with "comprehension activities developing different listening sub-skills." Last, post-activities require learners to talk about the relationship between the text topic and their lives or giving opinion on parts of the text.

There are a number of techniques of teaching listening available for the teachers. Brown (2001: 255-257) categories types of classroom listening performance into: reactive, intensive, responsive, selective, extensive, and interactive.

a. Reactive

The learner only listens to the surface structure of an utterance for the single purpose of repeating it. In this case, Nunan (1991:18) associates listener's role as 'tape recorder.' This kind of performance does not require high meaningful processing. A brief individual or choral pronunciation drill is the only part that reactive performance can play in interactive classroom.

b. Intensive

This technique focuses on components of discourse such as phonemes, words, intonation, discourse marker, etc. The example of this technique is the teacher asks the students to listen to the stress pattern of some words or intonation of a sentence.

c. Responsive

This technique requires students to quickly process the teacher talk and make/fashion appropriate reply. For example, the teacher greets students, "good morning," or giving command, " Would you please repeat your answer?"

d. Selective

The purpose of this technique is to look for the important information (such as dates, location, main idea, etc.) in a long discourse such as speeches, stories, and media broadcast.

e. Extensive

The purpose of this performance is to develop a top down, global understanding of spoken language. For example, the students are asked to take notes or discuss after listening to a lengthy lectures.

f. Interactive

This performance includes all five of the above types. For example, the learners are asked to participate in a debate, conversation, role play and other group work. This may include other skills and conduct in the authentic communicative exchange.

C. Teaching Reading

Reading may refer to "a fluent process of readers combining information from a text and their own background knowledge to build meaning" (Nunan, 2003: 68). Furthermore he adds that the goal of reading is comprehension.

There are at least two aspects of teaching reading that need to consider. The first is whether the learners learn reading for the first time, and the second is whether the learners already have reading skills in the first language (Nunan, 1989:68). In addition he emphasis that if the learners are already able to read in their L1, what they need to learn further is how to transfer the reading skills to the " a new reading context and a new language." Reading is actually a silent activity. Therefore, classroom approaches, Nunan says (2003: 69), need to underline" the silent nature of reading skill and avoid overemphasis on oral reading." Some teachers, however, believe that teaching oral reading is the best approach to teach reading.

Principles of Teaching Reading

Nunan (2003: 74) proposes some principles for teaching reading:

1. Exploit the reader's background knowledge
2. Build a strong vocabulary base
3. Teach for comprehension
4. Work on increasing reading rate
5. Teach reading strategies
6. Encourage readers to transform strategies into skills
7. Build assessment and evaluation into your teaching
8. Strive for continuous improvement as a reading teacher.

Teaching Productive Skills

D. Teaching Speaking

Brown (2001) proposes some techniques of teaching speaking as follow:

1. imitative

This technique focuses on some particular elements of language form. The example of this is drilling. To some extent, drilling is good as it helps learners to establish psychomotor pattern (to loosen the tongue).

2. intensive

This performance is intended to attempt some phonological or grammatical aspects of language.

3. responsive

The example of this is short reply to teacher or student-initiated question.

4. transactional (dialogue)

The purpose of transactional dialogue is to convey or exchange specific information (e.g. conversation).

5. interpersonal (dialogue)

The purpose of this performance is to maintain social relationship. This type of dialogue is rather tricky as it may convey aspects such as casual register, colloquial language, slang, ellipsis, sarcasm, etc.

6. extensive (monologue)

Monologue can be planned or impromptu. Teacher may ask students to perform monologue in the form of oral reports, summaries or short speeches.

E. Teaching Writing

Writing is a process and a product. Studies present writing as a "recursive, nonlinear cognitive process in which the writer moves back and forth between pre-writing, writing, revising and editing until he/she is satisfied with his/her creation" (Flower & Hayes, 1981: 365-387). The following are principles of teaching writing proposed that need to be considered by teachers when they plan the course (Nunan, 2003:92):

1. Understand your students' reasons for writing
2. Provide many opportunities for students to write
3. Make feedback helpful and meaningful
4. Clarify for yourself, and for your students, how their writing will be evaluated

Producing a text in English as a foreign language is a complex process. As reported by Chen (2006, p.1) many studies show that beginning EFL students tend to be obstructed by their first language in the process of writing in English. EFL students like Indonesian students, who learn writing English text often find many difficulties. Writing then becomes an activity that some students do not want to do.

Here are some principles in teaching writing as proposed by Tang (2006) :
1. raise students' awareness
2. help student to analyze their own ideas
3. read to write
4. teach process writing

5. create a learner-centered classroom in active communication

According to Tang (2006), process writing is more advantageous to students, comparing to product writing. Product writing, a rather traditional approach of writing, is accuracy-oriented and the students are plunged into isolated environment. It is characterized by a 3-step procedure:

a. the teacher gives the title to write on
b. the students do the drafting
c. the teacher does the correction.

Process writing focus is on the students' needs. It is characterized by the awareness of the writer of the writing process and the intervention of a teacher, or peers, at any time during the process of writing in order to improve writing skills instead of exclusively fixing mistakes (Susser, 1994: 34-35 as cited in Tang , 2006).

Reflection Task:

1. Which listening sub-skills-gist, detail, specific information, or attitude-do the following questions about this conversation focus on?

    A. What is the conversation about?

    B. What does Yuko want her life to be like in 20 years' time?

    C. How many children does Hiroko want?

    D. Does Hiroko sound happy?

2. What are the easiest and most difficult things for you about reading in English?

3. What helped you most to read English well when you were a learner?

4. Which aspects of speaking English do you find most easy and difficult now?

5. How did you learn to write English? Was it the best way?

6. What are the easiest and most difficult things about writing in English?

GLOSSARY

ESL (L2)   : English as Second Language

EFL   : English as Foreign Language

L1   : First Language

L2   : Second Language

GTM   : Grammar Translation Methods

Forms   : the teaching of isolated and unconnected sentence structures.

TEFL   : Teaching English as Foreign Language

EAP   : English for Academic Purpose

ESP   : English for Specific purpose

TOEFL   : Test of English as Foreign Language

IELTS   : International English Language Testing System

CPH   : Critical Period Hypothesis

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