English Language Teaching Methods

EDU 3061 (Unit 1-4 / 4)

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MODUL PEMBELAJARAN : EDU 3061 ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS disediakan dalam bentuk bahan pengajaran dan pembelajaran kendiri di bawah program Pendidikan Jarak Jauh, Universiti Putra Malaysia. Sebarang pertanyaan dan cadangan untuk memperbaiki gaya penyampaian dan isi kandungan modul ini bolehlah dikemukakan kepada penulis dengan menggunakan alamat Pusat Pendidikan Luar.

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Course Introduction

This course will expose you to the major aspects of English Language Teaching Methods focussing especially on its theoretical background and learning theories, TESL methods including the contemporary approaches currently being practiced in Malaysia (i.e. KBSM and KBKK*). The main concern is to see how the knowledge on theories, methods and approaches can be applied to the ESL (English as a Second Language) teaching and learning in Malaysia.

Course Objectives

Having followed this course you are expected to:

1. know the theoretical perspective of TESL methodology and its influence on teaching and learning styles;
2. be aware of the different TESL methods and approaches (including the KBSM and KBKK) and their application in ESL teaching and learning;
3. be able to identify the strength and weaknesses of the methods and approaches and to be able to decide on the ones that are effective for your students;
4. have the ability to expand and elaborate on the existing methods and approaches currently being practiced in Malaysia;
5. be able to plan ESL lessons based on the knowledge of the existing and contemporary method for the classroom instructions;
6. be able to evaluate whether the ESL lessons, questions and tasks, and text books used are in line with the principles of the KBKK programme or not.

EVALUATION

Your performance in the course will be assessed in the following manner:

| Assignment | 30% |
| Mid Sessional Exam | 30% |
| Final Exam | 40% |

1. Assignment 1

Assignment topic: Having identified ONE prescribed text book for Either Forms Four or Five currently being used in any secondary schools, execute the following:

1. Select any five chapters/units from the text;
2. Analyse whether the Reading activities suggested are promoting critical thinking or not by looking at the levels of cognitive domains of each question designed in the reading lessons. The levels of cognitive domains of the reading comprehension questions are measured by using

* KBSM is the Malay acronym for the 'New Curriculum for the Secondary Schools' in Malaysia.
* KBKK is the Malay acronym for the 'Course in Critical and Creative Thinking Skills'.
the cognitive and affective taxonomies (Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl, 1964) referred to as COGAFF taxonomy by Ghazali Mustapha (1998)

Note:
1. Example of how the analysis of questions is done is shown in Unit 3 - Topic 4.
2. The 5 selected chapters/units where the reading comprehension questions and tasks are derived must be appended in the assignment.

Number of pages: 15 – 20 pages A4 (excluding appendices)
Percentage: 30%
Date of submission: Week 12

This assignment can be done as a group work, but each group will consist of not more than five students.

Unless informed, all assignments are to be submitted to:

Kolej Pendidikan Lanjutan
Yayasan Pelajaran Mara
No. 17, Jalan 6C/91
Taman Shamelin Perkasa
Jalan Cheras
56100 Kuala Lumpur

Tel: 03 - 9822073 or 03 - 9837917
Fax: 03 - 9837917

2. Mid-Sessional Examination

Percentage: 30%
Scope of examination: Units 1, 2 and 3(partly)
Time: Week 8
Types of questions: Objective questions

3. Final Examination

Percentage: 40%
Scope of examination: All units (1 to 4)
Types of questions: Objective questions
Presentation of Assignments

Assignments are to be word-processed using 12 pitch Times New Roman if using MS Word. Write, type or print on one side of the page only. The front page of the assignment should have the following items written on it:

- Course Code and Title
- Assignment Title
- Your name and matric number

References


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GRAPHIC ORGANIZER FOR UNIT 1

THEORIES OF LEARNING

- Behaviourism
- Humanism
- Constructivism
- Cognitivism

TESL METHODS
(Learning/Teaching Styles)

- Academic Style
- Audiolingual Style
- Social Communicative Style
- Mainstream EFL/ESL STLE
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UNIT 1 TESL Methodology

UNIT 1 TESL Methods in general

Topic 1 Theories of Learning and Implications for ESL Teaching

Certain theories from the field of psychology, sociology and linguistics which were popularly referred to as Behaviourism, Humanism, Cognitivism, and Constructivism have had a profound effect upon the teaching and learning of ESL. The theories which underpin different descriptions of human learning have consequences for the objectives, content and process of teacher education because they suggest different models of the teacher: what a teacher is, what he knows and how he learns.

This unit will examine each of the major theories that have had an impact on the teaching and learning of English as a second language.

Theory 1 Behaviourism

This theory of learning has its origin in the early twentieth century. Psychologist like Pavlov, Watson and Thorndike believe that it is possible to predict and explain the way people learn by studying the behaviour of animals. They also believe that it is possible to train an animal to behave in any desired manner by using a learning model which consists of a stimulus, response and reinforcement. In a classic experiment to support the behaviourist theory, a rat was placed in a box with a light.

**Stimulus** - The light is switched on.
**Response** - The rat goes up to a bar and press it.
**Reinforcement** - A piece of food drops at its feet.

In this case, the bond between the stimulus and the response is strengthened by a pleasurable or positive reinforcement (the food). If this sequence is repeated a sufficient number of times, the rat will always press the bar when the light is switched on. Repetition is seen as important to bring about habit formation and learning.

Skinner, a famous psychologist applied the stimulus-response reinforcement theory to the way humans acquire language. He views language as a form of behaviour, just as a rat pressing the bar is a form of behaviour; and language learning as a process of habit formation. For example, when a baby is hungry (stimulus), he cries (response), thereupon, he is given his milk (reinforcement). He soon learns that his cries will be rewarded with milk/food.

Skinner placed great importance on reinforcement/reward, which may be a smile, a nod, or a word of praise. His work showed that reinforcement is very important in the early stages of learning, and should be given frequently. Each step in the learning process should be as small as possible so that correct behaviour is reinforced with rewards and mistakes are corrected immediately.
How does this theory model the ESL teaching and learning?

The behaviourist theory of learning provides us with a set of principles that can be easily applied in ESL classroom procedures. It has given rise to the audio-lingual method (ALM) which was very popular in the 1950s and 1960s. The main characteristics of ALM are:

- An emphasis on aural-oral skills;
- An emphasis on repetition and drills;
- The use of target language only;
- Immediate reward/reinforcement after every correct response;
- Immediate correction of errors;
- Teacher-centredness (students are very dependent on the teacher in learning situations)

Theory 2 Cognitivism

Behaviourism emphasizes the stimulus-response-reinforcement model and the importance of habit formation. Cognitivism, on the other hand, places emphasis on the learners and how they organize their knowledge. Instead of repetition and drills, cognitivists propose teaching learners how to analyse problems and how to think for themselves. The KBKK programme currently being practiced in Malaysian schools is a good example of the application of cognitivism. The programme emphasizes on promoting critical and creative thinking through the application of higher-order thinking skills and strategies (The KBKK will be discussed in details in Units Two and Three).

In the area of language learning, the strongest criticism against behaviourism came from Noam Chomsky, who maintained that language is not a form of behaviour but an intricate rule-based system. If language is learnt behaviour, how do we account for the production of certain utterances by young learners, for example,

1 Lina cutted my paper.
2 Father goed to work.

These utterances suggest that learners appear to realize that the existence of a rule 'add - ed to the base form to denote the simple past'. Chomsky states that a language has a finite number of rules, and with a knowledge of these rules, it is possible to produce an infinite number of sentences. Chomsky calls the knowledge of these rules competence and the actual production of sentences using these rules performance.

Cognitivists view language learning as an active process in which learners are constantly required to think and make sense of new information they receive, to seek to discover the underlying rule and apply them to make original sentences. During this process, learners often misinterpret the rules or apply them incorrectly. This results in errors in their language use. Cognitivists view errors as a sign of learning and experimentation and learners do not need to be corrected immediately and directly. They see error as an integral part of learning.
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Classroom practice based on the cognitivist theory is learner-centred and focusses on discovery learning via deductive as well as inductive approaches. In an inductive approach, the teacher guides learners through a number of specific examples and asks them to find out the rule of generalization through a process of guided discovery. In a deductive approach, the teacher presents a rule or generalization and guides learners to test it using a number of specific examples. The focus of the cognitivist theory is constantly on learning as an active, mental process. The role of the teacher is to arrange and present new information in such a way that learners can relate the new information to their own existing mental structure and previous knowledge. In language teaching, the teacher should encourage learners to consciously think and talk about the language to increase their competence and performance.

Theory 3 Humanism

The behaviourist theory of learning places emphasis on repetition and the stimulus-response model. Cognitivist theory focusses on the students' ability to think, analyse and organize information and knowledge. The humanists, on the other hand, place great importance on affective and emotion factors and hold the view that success in learning occurs only if the learning environment is right, learners are interested in, and have a positive attitude towards the new information. If these conditions are not there, no method or material is likely to succeed.

In terms of language learning then, the students must have a favourable attitude towards the language, the speakers of the language and possibly teacher teaching the language. The teacher is to create a conducive, non-threatening environment where students feel comfortable so that they can experiment with the new language. Teacher must develop the students' self-esteem.

The humanistic approach places the students at the centre of the learning process. Selection of learning activities, content, and materials must take account the student's affective domain. Generally, learners are allowed to set their own goals and follow their own pace. Experiential learning, or learning by doing, is encouraged so that there is increased personal involvement, stimulation of feelings and thinking, self-initiation and self-evaluation.

Some methods of language teaching associated with the humanist tradition are Community Language Learning developed by Curran; the Silent Way developed by Gattegno and Suggestopedia started by Lazonov.

Theory 4 Constructivism

Chomsky's demolition of behaviourist language acquisition theory marked a decisive shift from behaviour to cognitive perspectives on learning (Skinner, 1957; Ghomsky, 1957, 1959). The adequacy of a cognitive model of language acquisition encouraged researchers in other fields and contributed to the 'cognitive revolution' of the 1960s and the predominance of constructivist models of learning in contemporary
educational thinking (Roth, 1990; Richards and Lockhart, 1994; Salmon, 1995; Bell and Gilbert, 1996; Williams and Burden, 1997).

Constructivism consists of a family of theories based on the notion that we operate with mental representations of the world which are our knowledge, and which change as we learn: 'all learning takes place when an individual constructs as a mental representation of an object, event or idea' (Bell and Gilbert 1995: 44). This view indicates that all learning involves relearning, reorganisation in one's prior representations of the world: 'there is no intellectual growth without some reconstruction, some reworking' (Dewey, 1938: 64).

A constructivist view suggests the following learning cycle:

- the person filters new information according to his or her and existing knowledge of the world;
- s/he constructs the meaning of the input;
- this meaning is matched with her prior internal representations to the input;
- matching confirms or disconfirms existing representations.
- if there is a match, then s/he maintains the meaning as presently constructed (assimilation);
- if there is a mismatch she revises her representation of t incorporate the new information (accommodation).

This view suggests certain changed emphases in micro-teaching, and by implication in TE in general:

- it recognises the personal differences between each learner-teacher (LT), located in their ways of seeing;
- learning lies in the conceptual development which determines behaviour change, not only in the behaviour itself;
- feedback should focus on the thinking and the perceptions of the LT, as well as their actions;
- LTs can learn by developing their perceptions (e.g. by structured observation) as well as skill training;
- models can be used for exemplification and analysis and not merely for imitation;
- the LTs' ability to recognise and analyse effective teaching becomes part of the micro-teaching syllabus.

These principles can be applied to specific activities (Appendices 5.1, 5.2 and 8.1) and also to the structure of whole programmes as exemplified in section
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Constructivism and ELT

A constructivist model of language acquisition has strongly influenced language curriculum design. It is widely accepted that learners use their own strategies and mental processes 'to sort out the system that operates in the language with which they are presented' (Williams and Burden, 1997:13). For example, comprehension is now conventionally seen as the mental representation of a text according to the person's purpose, knowledge of the world, expectations of discourse and linguistic knowledge. Comprehension-skill teaching now emphasises the exploration of learner expectations and prior knowledge, and reasonable interpretations of text (e.g. Grellet, 1981; Barr et al., 1981; Brown and Yule, 1983; Ur, 1984; Underwood, 1989; Williams and Moran, 1989).

Similarly, constructivism views the learners inner representations of the language system, their 'internal syllabus', as mediating input and structuring the course of language acquisition. Breen (1987a: 159) explicitly adopts a constructivist position to justify process-orientated syllabuses:

'mainstream second language acquisition studies assert the primacy of the learner's inherent psychological capacity to acquire linguistic competence when this capacity acts upon comprehensible language input ... (they will) ... superimpose their own learning strategies and preferred ways of working upon classroom methodology (i.e. the tasks the teacher sets, and the teacher's own interventions)'.

Constructivism and teacher education (TE)

The shift from model-based to constructivist frameworks in LTE (Language Teacher Education) is nicely exemplified in Griffiths' (1977) reinterpretation of classical micro-teaching. He recognizes that learning by means of micro-teaching could be explained in terms of conceptual development arising from input, skill practice and personal experience, rather than behavioural change resulting from efficient 'shaping'. He adopted an explicitly constructivist model to account for learning by microteaching:

1. Before entering micro-teaching programmes, each student has distinctive, complex conceptual schemata relating to teaching.
2. There are large individual differences in these conceptual schemata, but large areas of commonality may also exist through the embedding of these schemata within the ideologies of teaching subjects.
3. The conceptual schemata show a high degree of stability, but gradual change can occur through the acquisition of new constructs and principles from instruction and experience.
4. Students' conceptual schemata to a large extent control their teaching behaviour, and changes in teaching behaviour result from changes in schemata.

Griffiths (1977:194)
TESL METHODOLOGY

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- the LTs’ ability to recognise and analyse effective teaching becomes part of the micro-teaching syllabus.

These principles can be applied to specific activities

Topic 2 Teaching styles – TESL Methods

As can be seen from the graphic organizer 1, the theories of learning and teaching have had a profound effect on the ESL teaching styles and procedures which are more popularly referred to as TESL methodology. The direct impact of the four learning theories have brought forth a number of teaching/leaning styles such as: academic style, social-communicative style, audio-lingual style, informative-communicative style and mainstream EFL/ESL, and other style (Vivian Cook, 1997). Each style (method) is characterised by the learning theory that underpins it. In Malaysia, the advent of KBKK programme which promotes critical and creative thinking skills could be closely associated with cognitivism and constructivism learning theories. Other methods, or combination of different methods (such as cognitivism and constructivism) and approaches such as counseling method, silent ways, suggestopedia could well be considered under other ESL styles or methods.

In order to avoid the various associations and prejudices the terms conjure up, ‘TESL method’ has been used in this module as a broad cover term for the diverse activities that go on in language teaching. It refers to the more neutral terms ‘teaching technique’ and ‘teaching style’.

This topic highlights the major TESL methods that are relevant to the Malaysian ESL teaching and learning situations. This topic will get you exposed to the following:

- Major characteristics of each method;
- Its goals;
- Its strength and weaknesses.
- Its implications/suggestions for ESL teaching.

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TESL METHOD 1

Academic Style of Language Teaching
(The Grammar Translation Method)

Main features of Academic Style

An advanced ESL lesson in academic context often consists of a reading text taken from a newspaper or similar source, for example, the lead story on the front page of today’s newspaper under the headline ‘PM seeks new curb on the economic problem’.

- The teacher leads the students through the text sentence by sentence.
- Some of the economic background is highlighted – the context of the current economic problem Malaysia is facing.
- Words that give problems are explained or translated into the students’ L1 (First Language) by the teacher or via dictionaries.
- Grammatical points of interest are discussed with the students, e.g. the use of the passive voice in the report/text.
- The students go on to fill-in grammatical exercise on the passive. Perhaps for homework they translate the passage into their L1.

From the above features, it can be noted that;

The academic teaching style is then characterised by teaching techniques of grammatical Explanation and translation, and so it is sometimes known as the grammar-translation method.

- The style is similar in concept to Marton’s reconstructive strategy or Allen et al.’s analytic activities.
- The academic style is popular in secondary schools and widespread in in the teaching of advanced students in university systems around the world (Cook, 1997).
- The academic style may occur even when the teacher is apparently using other styles.

Take note of the following situation;

A teacher explains how to apologize in the target language

“When you bump into someone on the street you say ‘sorry’; a teacher will give a quick grammatical explanation of the Present Perfect tense - “I have been to Paris” means that the action is relevant to the moment of speaking’; a teacher describes where to put the tongue to make the sound /θ/ in ‘think’.

The above are examples of how an academic style of teaching is carried out where pupils have to understand the abstract explanation before applying it in their own speech.

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- The academic style does not directly teach people to use the languae for some purpose outside the classroom.
- It teaches language with individual goals aimed primarily at the learning of the L2 as an academic subject, to create linguistic competence, language knowledge in the students’ minds. In addition it often claims to train students to think better, to appreciate other cultures, and to foster other educational values.
- It emphasizes the acquisition of grammatical competence as rules of a traditional type and as lists of vocabulary. It values what people know about the language rather than what they comprehend or produce.
- The academic style is appropriate for those who hold a traditional view of the classroom where teachers play the central role.

Brief outline of the academic style is provided henceforth,

THE ACADEMIC STYLE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Typical teaching techniques:
- grammatical explanation, translation, etc.

Goals:
- directly, individual learning of the L2 as an academic subject, sometimes leading to communicative ability
- indirectly, ability to use language

Type of student:
- academically gifted, not young children

Learning assumptions:
- acquisition of conscious grammatical knowledge, conversion of knowledge to use

Processing assumptions:
- none

Weaknesses from L2 research perspective:
- inadequate use of grammar
- no position on other components of language knowledge or use
- inefficiency as a way of teaching use

Suggestions for teaching:
- use it with academic students with individual goals
- supplement it with other components of language and processes
- remember its individual goals

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TESL METHOD 2

The Audiolingual Style

The audiolingual teaching style reached its peak in the 1960s, best conveyed in the book *Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach* by Robert Lado written in 1964. Its emphasis is on teaching the spoken language through dialogues and drills. A typical lesson in an audiolingual style starts with a dialogue, as seen in the following situation:

A: Good morning.
B: Good morning.
A: Could I have some milk please?
B: Certainly. How much?

*Classroom practice*

The language in the dialogue is controlled so that it introduces only a few new vocabulary items, 'milk', 'cola', 'mineral water', say, and includes examples of any new structural point: 'Could I have some cola?'. 'Could I have some mineral water?' etc. The students listen to the dialogue as a whole, either played back from a tape or read by the teacher; they repeat it sentence by sentence, and they act it out: 'Now get into pairs of shopkeeper and customer and try to buy the following items ...'. Then the students drill grammatical points connected with the dialogue, such as the polite questions used in requests 'Could I ...?'. The teacher writes on the board:

'Could I have some (milk, water, cola)'

He says: 'milk'.

The students answer:
- 'Could I have some milk?'
- 'Water'.
- 'Could I have some water',

and so on. The drill practices the structure repeatedly with variation of vocabulary. Many drills were not as nakedly structural as this but attempted to put the structure into a realistic conversational exchange:

- 'What about milk?'
- 'Oh yes, could I have some milk?'
- 'And cola?'
- 'Oh yes, could I have some cola?'
- 'And you might need some mineral water,'
- 'Oh yes, could I have some mineral water?'

Finally there are expansion activities to make the students incorporate the language in their own use: 'Think what you want to buy today and ask your neighbour if you can have some.' As Wilga Rivers (1964) put it, 'Some provision will be made for the student to apply what he has learnt in a structured communication situation.' Instead of homework, the students go to the language laboratory to practise dialogues and drills.

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individually. Language is not only divided into the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, but these have to be taught in that order: spoken language always preceding written language. 'Passive' skills preceding 'active' skills. Hence the audiolingual style stresses the spoken language rather than the written and the so-called 'active' skills of speaking and writing rather than the 'passive' skills of listening and reading.

There were two interpretations of the dictum that speech should come before writing. One was short term: anything the students learn must be heard before being seen; so the teacher always has to say a new word before writing it on the blackboard. The other was long term: the students must spend a period doing only spoken skills before they are introduced to the written skills; this be a few weeks or indeed a whole year. This long-term interpretation in my experience led to most problems.

Though few teachers nowadays employ a 'pure' audiolingual style, many of its ingredients are nevertheless common in today's classrooms: the use of short dialogues, the emphasis on spoken language, the value attached to practice, the emphasis on the students themselves speaking, the division into four skills, the importance of vocabulary control, the step-by-step progression, and so on. Virtually all pronunciation teaching uses the audiolingual techniques of repetition and drill when it does not employ the academic style of conscious explanation. Many teachers clearly feel comfortable with the audiolingual style and use it at one time or another in their teaching, even if most would challenge its assumptions about learning.

Audiolingualism also happened to arrive in Europe at a time when the language laboratory became technically feasible. Many of its techniques indeed worked well with this equipment; repeating sentences and hearing recordings of your repetition, doing drills and hearing the right answer after your attempt, fitted nicely with the tape-recorder. Recent styles that emphasize free production of speech and communication between people have found it far harder to assimilate language laboratories, apart from listening activities. Indeed any glance at commercial materials for computer assisted language learning (CALL) will show that they are essentially audiolingual in their emphasis on drill and practice, though paradoxically they depend primarily on the written language because of the computer's limitations in dealing with speech.

Of all the styles the audiolingual style most blatantly reflects a particular set of beliefs about L2 learning, often referred to as 'habit-formation'. Language is a set of habits, just like driving a car. Each habit is learnt by doing it time and again. The dialogues concentrate on unconscious 'structures' rather than the conscious 'rules' of the academic style. Instead of understanding every word or structure, students learn the text more or less by heart. Learning sentences means learning structures and vocabulary, which amounts to learning the language. Like the academic style, language is seen as form rather than as meaning, though its basis is more in structural than traditional grammar. Oddly enough, despite its emphasis on the spoken language, the structures it teaches are predominantly those of writing.

The goal of the audiolingual style is to get the students to 'behave' in common L2 situations, such as the station or the supermarket; it is concerned with the real-life

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activities the students are going to face. In one sense it is practical and communication-oriented. The audiolingual style is not learning language for its own sake but learning it for actual use, either within the society or without. While the appropriate student type is not defined, the style is not restricted to the academically gifted (as in the academic style). Indeed its stress on practice can disadvantage those with an analytical bias. Nor the audiolingual style obviously catering for students of particular age; adults may do it as happily as children.

Implications on ELT
Many teachers fall back on audiolingual style due to the following reasons;
- It provides clear framework for teachers to work within.
- Teachers always know what they are supposed to be doing.
- Students could relax within a firmly structured environment, always knowing the kinds of activities that would take place and what would be expected of them.
- It is perhaps the most effective style to teach pronunciation.

To conclude this section, the features of the audiolingual style in presented henceforth for further understanding.

THE AUDIOLINGUAL STYLE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Typical teaching techniques:
- Dialogues, structure drills, etc.

Goal:
- Getting students to ‘behave’ in appropriate situations

Type of student:
- Non-analytical, non-academic

Learning assumptions
- None

Classroom assumptions:
- Teacher-controlled classroom

Weaknesses from L2 Reasearch perspective:
- Inadequate form of grammar
- No position on other aspects of language knowledge or use
- Inefficiency of habit-formation as way of teaching use

Suggestions for teachers:
- Use for teaching certain aspects of language only
- Be aware of the underlying audiolingual basis of many everyday techniques

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T E S L  M E T H O D  3

The Communicative Style – Social Type

The beginning of the 1970s saw a shift towards teaching methods that emphasized communication. Vivian Cook in his book Second Language Learning and Language Teaching (1997) divides the communicative style of teaching into two categories (i.e. social and information types) depending on the functions of the style of teaching. Initially this was largely a matter of redefining what the student had to learn in terms of communicative competence rather than linguistic competence: the ability to use the language appropriately rather than the knowledge of grammatical rules implied in the academic style or the ‘habits’ of the audiolingual. The behaviour of native speakers was analysed and developed into syllabuses incorporating ideas of language functions, such as ‘persuading someone to do something’, and notions, such as ‘expressing point of time’, which were more sophisticated than those possible with the limited concepts of structure and situation of audiolingual style. Recently, communication is often seen more in terms of the processes that people use to carry out specific communicative tasks; hence the syllabuses are designed around the processes or tasks that students use in the classroom.

The elaboration of communicative competence affected the specification of the teaching target but did not at first have direct consequences for teaching. The fact that the teaching point of a lesson is the function ‘asking directions’ rather than structure ‘yes-no questions’ does not prevent it being taught through any teaching style, just as grammar can be taught in any style. Even a communicative function can be taught through academic style explanation or audiolingual style drills.

To many people, however, the end dictates the means: a goal expressed in terms of communication means classroom teaching based on communication. Hence a number of techniques developed that evolved into two styles, which we shall call here ‘social communicative’ style and ‘information communicative’ style. The social communicative style has its main emphasis on the joint functioning of two people in a situation, what Halliday (1975) terms the interpersonal function of language. The archetypal social communicative techniques are information gap exercises teaching how to give locations of people and places. Take an example from the textbook Coast to Coast (Harmer and Surjune, 1987). The students divide into pairs; one has a map of a street showing where Jim, Kathleen, and so on live, the other has a map of the same street showing where Kristy, Ben, and others live. They have to ‘ask and answer questions to find where the people live’ following a model exchange, and then write the names on the map. The students are given the vocabulary on the map and have an example question and answer. But they have to improvise the dialogue themselves to solve their communicative task. The second standard technique of the social communicative style is guided role-play. The students improvise conversations around an issue but do not have the same contrived information gap. Headway Elementary (Soars and Soars, 1993), for example, has an activity ‘Work in pairs. Think of a problem you have had with officials. Act it for the rest of the class.’ One student role-plays an official, the other their normal character. This reflects one of the main difficulties with role-playing such encounters situations between customer/patient/client/complainer and shop assistant/doctor/lawyer/manager: one

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student is playing himself or herself and is therefore learning something appropriate to their own interests and goals; the other is pretending to be something they are not and using language strategies and indeed vocabulary they may never have to employ in any future career; it is one thing to get a student to practise ‘I’ve got a sore throat, doctor’, another to get them to say ‘Take a course of antibiotics four times a day before meals.’

In the social communicative style, language is defined as communication between people, rather than as texts or grammatical rules or patterns: it has a social purpose. Language is for forming relationships with people and for interrelating with them. Using language means meeting people and talking to them. Language is not so much rules or structures or texts as ways of talking to people. The aim is to give the students the ability to engage in conversations with people. The teaching syllabus is primarily a way of listing the aspects of communication the students will find most useful, whether functions, notions, or processes. It tries to develop the students’ ability to communicate fluently rather than in grammatically flawless sentences.

The goals of the social communicative style are most often towards international use of the second language with people in another country rather than locally in multilingual societies. In general purpose language teaching the overall goals of the social communicative style have not usually been specified in great detail; they usually aim at the generalized situation of visitors to the target country with the accent on tourism and travel, without specific goals for careers, for education, or for access to information, as in the KBSM as stated in unit 2. In more specialized circumstances language has been taught for specific careers - doctors, businessmen, oil technicians, or whatever - and for higher education. In practice many communicative textbooks for beginners adopt what might be called ‘travel agent communication’ centred upon tourist activities, with the course book resembling a glossy holiday brochure and the teacher a jolly package-tour representative organizing fun activities. Whether you consider this an advantage or not depends on whether it motivates the students to think of English as a jolly happy subject or as a trivialization of life. The smile factor certainly gives a quick insight into the attitudes being expressed by the textbook.

The classroom is a very different place in the social communicative style the other two styles encountered so far. The teacher no longer dominates the classroom, controlling and guiding the students every minute. Rather the teacher takes one step back and lets the students take over the making up their own conversations in pairs and groups, learning language by doing. A key difference from other styles is that the students are not required to produce substantially errorless speech in native terms, a consequence of the independent language assumption as stressed in other styles. Instead they use whatever forms and strategies they can devise themselves to solve their communication problem, ending up with sentences that are entirely appropriate to their task but are often highly deviant from a native perspective. While the teacher provides some feedback and correction, this plays a much less central part in his or her classroom duties. The teacher has the configurative role of equal and helper rather than the wise person of the academic style or the martinet of the audiolingual.

To conclude the discussion on the communicative style (the social type) it is briefly presented as follows;
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THE SOCIAL COMMUNICATIVE STYLE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Typical teaching techniques:
- information gap, role-plays

Goal:
- getting students to interact with other people in the L2

Type of student:
- any

Learning assumptions:
- learning by communicating with other students in the classroom laissez-faire

Processing assumptions:
- none

Classroom assumptions:
- teacher as organizer, not fount of wisdom

Weaknesses from L2 research perspective:
- lack of views on discourse processes, communication strategies, etc.
- black box model of learning
- lack of role for L1
- possible cultural conflicts because of its configurative basis

Suggestions for teachers:
- use with appropriate students in appropriate circumstances
- supplement with other components of language
- avoid trivialization of content and aims

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The Communicative Style – Information Type

In communication, we cannot separate the information from the transmitter of the information (social communicative). The social communicative and information communicative styles are in a sense two sides of the same coin. A conversation requires not only someone to talk to but also something to talk about. As de Saussure (1916) said, 'Speech has both an individual and a social side and we cannot conceive of one without the other.' Hence the two communicative styles distinguished here as 'social' and 'information' communicative are not separated by teaching methodologists.

Nevertheless, communication can be seen as an exchange of ideas rather than as relationships with people - what Halliday (1975) calls the ideational function of language - since these result in rather different teaching styles. Teaching that emphasizes the information that is transferred rather than the social interaction between the participants can be called the information communicative style, equivalent to Marton's receptive strategy. A typical technique in this style is Asher's total physical response (TPR) method. Like other ways of using this style, it emphasizes the listening; listening is the crucial skill in providing the key to extracting information from what you hear. However, this is not logically the only form that information communicative teaching takes; teaching reading for gist may be just as much within this style, as may task-based approaches.

Classroom implication

The information communicative style is hard to illustrate from teaching materials because it mostly depends on the individual teacher's preparation and improvisation during the class; one of the unfortunate consequences of the emphasis on functional social communication by publishers and institutions was that few attempts have been made to write materials within a purely information communicative approach; indeed it is regrettable that there is no published course available based on a listening first methodology.

The manner of how it can be carried out

Gary and Gary (1981a) have, however, published a specimen lesson from their listening-based materials More English Now, which are designed for hotel staff in Egypt.

The lesson is conducted in the following manner;

1. The lesson starts with a 'Preview' section in which the language content of the lesson is explained and in which 'important words' such as 'last week' and 'checked out' are translated into Arabic;
2. In the next section 'Let's Listen', students hear a tape giving the bookings for a hotel for next week and carry out a task-listening exercise, first filling in a form with the

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1. The teacher introduces a new word or phrase. The students can then guess its meaning or write it down.

2. The teacher asks a question or gives an example, and the students need to write down their answers or responses.

3. Finally a 'Let's Read' section gives them the same tasks with a written text. Such listening first teaching requires the students to listen actively but not produce sentences until they are ready.

4. The point here is the information transfer. TPR students are listening to discover what actions to carry out; their social interaction with the teacher is quite unlike that found in any normal language exchange, except perhaps for the military drill square.

Students following More English Now! are listening to get specific information to be written down in various forms. While this partly resembles their real-life hotel duties, it deliberately minimizes spoken production and natural social interaction, vital to their actual conversation with guests. The concentration is in both cases on the information to be obtained from language, not on social relationship between listener and speaker. Working out information is the key factor: take care of the message and the learning will take care of itself. Hence the style is compatible with a large range of teaching techniques, united only by their emphasis on information.

The overall goal is to get students to use the language, first by comprehending, then by producing. Comprehension of information is not seen as a goal in its own right, but as a way into fuller command of the language in use. Sometimes the overall goal is more specific, as with the Cairo hotel staff. Mostly, however, it has a non-specific communicative goal, similar to that in the social communicative model. The information communicative style is used in both local and international circumstances. It implicitly plays down the individual goals of language teaching, making few claims to general educational values. In terms of classrooms, it is teacher-dominated, with the teacher supplying, in person or through materials, the language input and the organization of the students' activities and classroom strategies.

The difference between the Social Communicative and Information Communicative

Pertinent question that we have to address in order to understand the two styles better is by looking at the differences of the two styles;

1. The social communicative style is limited by physical factors in the classroom in that it becomes progressively more difficult to organize its activities with larger groups.

2. The listening-based information communicative style, however, lends itself to classes of any size.

3. Some versions of the communicative style are therefore more compatible with the traditional teacher-dominated classroom than is the social communicative style.

4. The information communicative style caters for a range of student types, provided they do not mind having to listen rather than speak in the classroom. Again, the

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Students need to be prepared for what the style is trying to do, since it differs from their expectations of the classroom.

Learning assumptions

The style makes two assumptions about learning. One is the equation of decoding with codebreaking. It means, getting people to comprehend in the classroom is getting them to learn: comprehending is learning. The prime spokesperson for this point of view is then Steven Krashen, who states that we acquire language by comprehending input. This shelves the issue of learning to some extent. The processes of learning are less important than the conditions for successful learning. The style again uses a model that does not concern itself with specific processes of L2 learning, but with the nature of the input. While the social communicative style draws on social interaction, the information communicative style, on the other hand, draws on information exchange. It is another form of laissez-faire.

The second assumption links listening and speaking in a conversion model. Listening is not just a separate skill from speaking, but forms the foundation for speaking. Learning how to listen helps the person with other skills as well as listening. Knowledge acquired by listening converts into knowledge of speaking. This ignores the distinctive features, memory systems and processes involved in each skill. The problem is also the opposite side of the social communicative model in that listening first provides no guidance on how to construct discourse by putting sentences together for a particular purpose. It is hard to see how TPR gets the student to build up natural exchanges in the world outside the classroom since they are experiencing a particular style of classroom interaction rather than any simulation of non-classroom exchanges. Listening tasks often train people to do listening tasks rather than to engage in interaction in the world outside.

As we have seen, there is no logical reason why the information communicative style should rely on listening at the expense of speaking. Communication requires a speaker as well as a listener. The use of 'listening first' techniques represents an additional assumption about the importance of listening to the learning process. There has often been a kind of geographical division in the communicative styles: 'British-influenced' teaching has emphasized that from day one of the course students have to both listen and speak; 'American-influenced', or perhaps more strictly 'Krashen-influenced', teaching has emphasized listening without speaking. As a consequence, 'British' teaching seems to have concentrated more on the interpersonal function; the double role of listener and speaker immediately calls up interactive 'conversation' while the listener-only role resembles people listening to the radio.

L2 Research Implications

As with the other teaching styles, L2 research points to the partial coverage of language content, components of language, and processes of language; to be successful the teacher will have to do far more than its precepts suggest. The information communicative style also has little connection with multilingual use of language but
assumes an imitation monolingual speaker, it is communication defined as between natives or between teacher and students not as between functioning L2 users in the real world. The suggestions for the teacher are, as usual, to balance the style against other demands of teaching. It may be made more relevant to the students' goal by adapting the techniques in various ways. In particular, the listening tasks it employs can be chosen to correspond to those the students will meet in the world outside the classroom, as we saw in the Gary's materials, rather than being arbitrary tasks in which anything goes provided it carries a message. This step is a useful preparation for the later transition to non-classroom use of language, without sacrificing the principles of the style. Indeed the nature of listening itself could be built upon; systematic attention to teaching the listening processes of access to vocabulary, parsing, and relating the text to prior knowledge might be useful.

A final point that should be made is that information communication implies information to communicate. An important factor in the style is the choice of information. Different types of real information that might be conveyed include:

- Another academic subject taught through English. For instance, students are recommended to go to cookery classes rather than English classes.
- Student-contributed content. Getting the students to talk about their own lives and real interests, fascinating in a multilingual class, boring in one where everybody has known each other since primary school.
- Language. That is to say, information about the language they are studying, after all this is the one thing that all the students have in common.
- Literature. Despised for many years because of its inappropriate language but capable of bringing depth of emotion and art to the classroom.
- Culture. That is to say, discussing the cultural differences between languages.
- Interesting facts'. These might not be connected to English but after the lesson the students can say they learnt something: how to treat a nosebleed, how to use chopsticks, how to play cards, how to make coffee, etc.

**Brief outline of the Information Communicative Style**

**THE INFORMATION COMMUNICATIVE STYLE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**Typical teaching techniques:**

- information gap, role-plays

**Goal:**

- getting students to comprehend information in the L2

**Type of student:**

- any that wants to handle information rather than interact socially

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Learning assumptions:

- learning by comprehending information in the classroom leads to full ability to use language

Processing assumptions:

- decoding is the same as codebreaking

Classroom assumptions

- teacher-dominated; classroom type exchanges:

Weaknesses from L2 research perspective:

- failure to specify the nature of learning itself
- narrowness of components and processes covered

Suggestions for the teacher:

- adapt to goals of students and to less classroom-based language
- develop specific processes of learning

TESL METHOD 5

The Mainstream EFL/ESL

The mainstream EFL style has developed in British-influenced EFL from the 1930s up to the present day. Till the early 1970s, it mostly reflected a compromise between the academic and the audiolinguial styles, combining, say, techniques of grammatical explanation with techniques of automatic practice. Harold Palmer in the 1920s indeed saw classroom L2 learning as a balance between the 'studies' capacities by which people learnt a language by studying it like any content subject, that is to say, what we have called here an academic style, and the 'spontaneous' capacities through which people learn language naturally and without thinking, seen by him in similar terms to the audiolinguial style (Palmer, 1926). Another name for this style in India was the structural-oral-situational (SOS) method, an acronym that captures several of its main features (Prabhu, 1987): the reliance on grammatical structures, the primacy of speech, and the use of language in 'situations'. Recently it has taken on aspects of the social communicative style by emphasizing person-to-person dialogue techniques.

Until the 1970s this early mainstream style was characterized by the term 'situation' in two senses;

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- In one sense language was to be taught though demonstration in the real classroom situation; teachers rely on the props, gestures and activities that are possible in a real classroom.

- In the other sense language teaching was to be organized around the language of the real-life situations the students would encounter: the railway station, the hotel, etc.

How a lesson is conducted using the Mainstream EFL Style

1. A lesson using the mainstream EFL style starts with a presentation phase in which the teacher introduces new structures and vocabulary. In the Australian course Situational English (Commonwealth Office, 1967), for example, the teacher demonstrates the use of 'can' 'situationally' to the students by touching the floor and trying unsuccessfully to touch the ceiling to illustrate 'can' versus 'can't'

2. The next stage of the lesson usually involves a short dialogue. In this case it might be a job interview which includes several examples of 'can'. 'Can drive a car?', or 'I can speak three languages.' The students listen to dialogue, they repeat parts of it, they are asked questions about it, and so on. Then they might see a substitution table such as the following table. They

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Can</th>
<th>Speak</th>
<th>German</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A bicycle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen</td>
<td>Can't</td>
<td>Ride</td>
<td>A horse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure A - A typical substitution table

have to make sentences with 'can' by combining words from different columns - 'John can speak French', 'Helen can't ride a horse'. Palmer's studia capacities are involved in the conscious understanding of structures such as 'can', while the repetition and substitution activities use his spontaneous capacities.

A typical modern course book such as Headway (Soars and Soars, 1987), for instance, has elements of the academic style in that it explains structures such as the passive. 'Passive sentences move the focus of a sentence from the subject to the object of an active sentence.' It has elements of the audiolingual style in that it is graded around structures and the 'four skills'. But it has also incorporated elements of the social communicative style in pairwork exercises such as acting out conversations about choosing Christmas presents. A typical lesson such as Unit 9 focuses on conditional sentences. First it presents conditionals in a short dialogue; this develops into pairwork on 'imaginary fears'; then the three types of conditional sentence are explained, followed by a questionnaire on your life expectancy ('If you finished university add 1'); it goes on to an exercise of converting proverbs into conditionals and finishes with a task-listening exercise and a reading passage.
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The pivot around which the lesson revolves is the grammatical point, couched in terms of structural or traditional grammar. The main difference from the early mainstream style is the use of groupwork and pairwork and the information orientation to the exercises. A mainstream EFL method is implied every time a teacher goes through the classic progression from presentation to dialogue to controlled practice, whether it is concerned with grammar or communicative function. It is the central style described in such TEFL manuals as *A Training Course for English* (Hubbard et al., 1983), or *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (Harmer, 1994). It represents the mainstream teaching of the past thirty years, if not longer.

The goals are in a sense an updated version of audiolingualism. What counts how students use language in the eventual real-world situation rather than academic knowledge or the spin-off in general educational values. The version of learning involved is similarly a compromise, suggesting that students learn by conscious understanding, by sheer practice, and by attempting to talk to each other. Some aspects of the knowledge models are seen as aspects of the processing models. That is, the mainstream EFL teaching tries to have its cake and eat it by saying that, if the student does not benefit from one part of the lesson, then another part will help. In terms of student types as well, this broadens the coverage. One student benefits from the grammatical explanation, another from structure practice, another from role-play. Perhaps combining these together will suit more of the students more of the time than relying on a purer style. It does not usually encompass the information communicative style with its emphasis on listening, preferring to see listening and speaking as more or less inseparable. It has the drawbacks common to the other styles: the concentration on certain types of grammar and discourse at the expense of others. Is such a combination of styles into one mainstream style to be praised or blamed? In terms of teaching methods, this has been discussed in terms of 'eclecticism'.

Some have argued that there is nothing wrong with eclectic mixing of methods provided the mixing is rationally based. Others have claimed that it is impossible for the students to learn in so many different ways simultaneously; the teacher is irresponsible to combine incompatible models of language learning. Marton (1988) argues that only certain sequences between methods are possible. His receptive strategy, for instance, may precede, but not follow, the reconstructive or communicative strategies.

We have so far illustrated some of the complexities of L2 learning. Each of the teaching styles captures some aspects of this complexity and misses out on others. None of the teaching styles is complete, just as none of the models of L2 learning is complete. Eclecticism is only an issue if two styles concern the same area of L2 learning rather than different areas. Hence it is, at the moment, unnecessary to speculate about the good or bad consequences of eclecticism. When there is a choice between competing styles of language teaching, each with a coverage ranging from grammar to classroom language, from memory to pronunciation, from motivation to the roles of the L2 in society, then eclecticism becomes an issue. At the moment all teaching methods are partial in L2 learning terms; some areas of language are only covered by one type of teaching technique; conversely some methods deal with only a fraction of the totality of L2 learning. The mainstream EFL style cannot be dismissed simply because of its eclecticism, as it is neither more nor less eclectic than any other overall teaching style in

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tems of L2 learning. My own feeling is that the mainstream style does indeed reflect a
style of its own that is more than the sum of its parts.

Brief Outline of Mainstream EFL Style

THE MAINSTREAM EFL STYLE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Typical teaching techniques:

- presentation, substitution, role-play

Goal:

- getting students to know and use language

Type of student:

- any

Learning assumptions:

- understanding, practice, and use

Processing assumptions:

- none

Classroom assumptions:

- both teacher-controlled and groups

Weaknesses from L2 research perspective:

- combination of other styles
- lack of L1 role
- drawbacks of mixture of styles

Suggestions for teacher:

- do not worry about the mixture of different sources
- remember that it still does not cover all aspects relevant to L2 teaching

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TESL METHOD 6

Other Styles

Other teaching styles have been proposed in recent years that mark a radical departure from those outlined earlier, either in their goals or in their execution. It is difficult to assign these a single name. Some have been called ‘alternative methods’, but this suggests there is a common conventional method to which they provide an alternative and that they are themselves united in their approach. Some are referred to as ‘humanistic methods’ because of their links to ‘humanistic psychology’, but this label suggests religious or philosophical connections that are mostly inappropriate. Others are called ‘self-access’ or ‘self-directed learning’. In England the practice of these styles is still so rare that they are difficult to observe in a full-blooded form, although every EFL or modern language teaching class probably shows some influence from communicative teaching.

Community Language Learning (CLL)

Let us start with community language learning (CLL), derived from the work of Curran (1976). Picture a beginners class in which the students sit in a circle from which the teacher is excluded.

- One student starts a conversation by remarking ‘ weren’t the buses terrible this morning?’ in his L1 (mother tongue).
- The teacher translates this into the language the students are learning (L2) and the student repeats it.
- Another student answers ‘When do the buses ever run on time?’ in her L1, which is translated once again by the teacher, and repeated by the student. And the conversation between the students proceeds in this way.
- The teacher records the translations said by the students and later uses them for conventional practice such as audiolingual drilling or academic explanation.

But the core element of the class is spontaneous conversation following the students’ lead, with the teacher offering the support facility of instant translation. As the students progress to later stages they become increasingly independent of the teacher’s support. CLL is one of the humanistic methods that include Suggestopedia, with its aim of relaxing the student (Lozanov, 1978), the Silent Way, with its concentration on the expression of meaning through coloured rods (Gattegno, 1972), and Confluent Language Teaching, with its emphasis on the classroom experience as a whole (Galyean, 1977).

In general, CLL subordinates language to the self-expression of emotions and ideas. If anything, language gets in the way of the clear expression of the student’s feelings. The aim is not, at the end of the day, to be able to do anything with language in the world outside. It is to do something here and now in the classroom, so that the student, in Curran’s words, ‘arrives at a more positive view of himself, of his situation, of what he wishes to do and to become’ (Curran, 1976). A logical extension is the use of
language teaching for psychotherapy in mental hospitals. Speaking in a second language about their problems is easier for some people than in the first language.

The goal of teaching is to develop the students' potential and to enable them to 'come alive' through L2 learning, not to help them directly to communicate with others outside the group. Hence it sees language teaching in terms of individual goals. It stresses the general educational value for the individual rather than any local or international benefits. The student in some way becomes a better person through language teaching benefit outside the classroom, and where self-fulfillment through the classroom has been seen more as a product of lessons in the mother tongue and its literature. Hence the humanistic styles are often the preserve of part-time education or self-improvement classes. The goals of realising the individual's potential are perhaps coincidentally attached to L2 teaching; might be achieved as well through mother-tongue teaching, aerobics, assertiveness training, or motor-cycle maintenance. Curran says indeed CLL 'can be readily adapted to the learning of other subjects'; similarly it is supposed to apply to all education; the Silent Way comes out approach to teaching mathematics.

A strong similarity between humanistic styles is that they see a 'true' method of L2 learning that can be unveiled by freeing the learner from inhibiting factors. L2 learning takes place if the learner's inner self is set free by providing the right circumstances for learning. If teachers provide stress-free, non-dependent, value-respecting teaching, students will learn. While no one knows what mechanisms exist in the students' minds, we know what conditions will help them work. So the CLL model of learning is not dissimilar to the communicative learning-by-doing. If you are expressing yourself, you are learning the language, even if such expression takes place through the teacher's mediating translation.

Suggestopedia

The other humanistic styles are equally unlinked to mainstream L2 learning research. Suggestopedia is based on an overall theory of learning and education. The conditions of learning are tightly controlled in order to overcome the learner's resistance to the new language. Georgi Lozanov, its inventor, has indeed carried out psychological experiments, mostly unavailable in English, which make particular claims for the effective learning of vocabulary (Lozanov, 1978).

Oddly enough, while the fringe humanistic styles take pride in their learner centredness, they take little account of the variation between learners. CLL would clearly appeal to extrovert students rather than introverts. Their primary motivation would have to be neither instrumental nor integrative, since both of these lead away from the group. Instead it would have to be self-related or teaching-group related. What happens within the group itself and what the students get out of it are what matters, not what they can do with the language outside. Nor, despite their psychological overtones, do methods such as CLL and Suggestopedia pay much attention to the performance processes of speech production and comprehension.

An opposing trend in teaching styles is the move towards learner autonomy. Let us look at a student called Mr D, described by Henner-Stanchina (1986). Mr D is a brewery engineer who went to the CRAPEL (Centre de Recherches et d'Applications
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Pedagogues en Langues) in Nancy in France to develop his reading skills in English. He chose, out of a set of options, to have the services of a 'helper', to have personal teaching materials, and to use the sound library.

The first session with the helper revealed that his difficulties were, *inter alia*, complex noun phrases and with the meanings of verb forms. Later sessions dealt with specific points from this, using the helper as a check on the hypotheses he was forming from the texts he read. The helper's role faded out as he was able to progress through technical documents with increasing ease.

The aim above all is to hand over responsibility for learning to the student. The teacher is a helper who assists with choice of materials and advises what to do but does not teach directly. As Holec (1985a) from the CRAPEL puts it, 'By becoming autonomous, that is by gradually and individually acquiring the capacity to conduct his own learning program, the learner progressively becomes his own teacher and constructs and evaluates his learning program himself.' Using autonomous learning depends on devising a system through which students have the choice of learning in their own way. To quote Holec (1987) again, 'Learners gradually replace the belief that they are "consumers" of language courses . . . with the belief that they can be "producers" and autonomous of their own learning program and that this is their right.'

Autonomous learning is not yet widely used, nor is it clear that it would fit with many mainstream educational systems. One reason is the incompatibility between the individual nature of the instruction and the collective nature of most classrooms and assessment. Autonomous learning takes the learner centredness of the humanistic style a stage further in refusing to prescribe a patent method that all learners have to follow. It is up to the student to decide on goals, methods, and assessment. That is what freedom is all about. In a sense, autonomous learning is free of many of the criticisms levelled against other styles. No teaching technique, no type of learner, no area of language is excluded in principle. Nevertheless, much depends upon the role of the helper and the support system. Without suitable guidance, students may not be aware of the possibilities. The helper has the difficult job of turning the student's initial preconceptions of language and of language learning into those attitudes that are most effective for that student. L2 learning research can assist autonomous learning by ensuring that the support systems for the learner reflect a genuine range of choices with an adequate coverage of the diverse nature of L2 learning.

The diversity of L2 teaching styles seen in this chapter may seem confusing: how can students really be learning language in so many ways? However, such diversity reflects the complexity of language and the range of student needs; why should one expect that a system as complex as language could be mastered in a single way? Even adding these teaching styles together gives an inadequate account of the totality of L2 learning. Second language learning means learning in all of these ways and in many more. This section has continually been drawing attention to the gaps in the coverage of each teaching style. As teachers and methodologists become more aware of L2 learning research, so teaching methods will alter to take them into account and cover a wider range of learning. Much L2 learning is concealed behind such global terms as 'communication' or such two-way oppositions as 'experiential/analytic' or indeed such simplistic
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divisions into six teaching styles. To improve teaching, we need to appreciate learning in all its complexity.

To conclude on this topic, other styles of language teaching are briefly presented in the following manner;

OTHER STYLES OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Typical teaching techniques:
- CLL, Suggestopedia, confluent language teaching, self-directed learning

Goals:
- individual, development of the potential, self-selected

Learning assumptions:
- diverse, mostly learning by doing, or a processing model

Type of student:
- those with individual motivation, etc.

Processing assumptions:
- none

Classroom assumptions:
- usually small groups with cofigurative or even prefigurative aims

Weaknesses from L2 research perspective:
- partial idiosyncratic views
- little attention to learner variation in humanistic styles
- difficulties in generalizing to many educational situations

Suggestions for teachers:
- importance of students' feelings and involvement
- provision of student choice throughout
- open discussion with students over their needs and preferences

Activity 1

Discuss the characteristics of each theory of learning by looking at the similarities and differences of each as compared to the others.

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Activity 2

Discuss how each theory of learning influences ESL Methodology

Activity 3

Based on your knowledge of KBSM, discuss the theory of learning that may be associated with the programme. Give reasons for your choice.
UNIT 2 KBSM and KBKK – PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE

This section highlights relevant facts that relate to ESL teaching and learning in Malaysia. Topics such as the aims of English language education and how they are implemented in the light of the KBSM and KBKK programmes are discussed. The Graphic Organizer (GO) 2 provides a clearer picture of the discussion on the subjects that will follow.

It is hoped that you will gain better insights of both programmes (KBSM and KBKK) and how the idea can be translated into classroom instructions. The effectiveness of your instruction will depend very much on your understanding of both concepts and how they are translated into teaching and learning activities. The GO2 is meant to provide you with some guides of this unit.

Graphic Organizer 2

TERMOSLOGY
1. Mother tongue
2. First language
3. ESL

AIMS OF ESL EDUCATION IN MALAYSIA

EMPHASIS OF KBSM
Knowledge
Thinking abilities
Vocabulary
Reading habit

KBSM

KBKK

Problem solving
Through

1. Concepts of Thinking Skills
2. Teaching and learning Strategies
3. Teaching Modules

Topic 1 KBSM – aims and objectives

The aims of English language education in Malaysia as forwarded by the Ministry of Education of Malaysia in relation to the KBSM are stated in these terms:

English is taught in both primary and secondary schools in Malaysia. Its position is that of a second language. It is a means of communication in certain everyday activities and certain job situations. It is an important language to enable Malaysia to engage meaningfully in local and international trade and commerce. It also provides an additional means of access to academic, professional, and recreational materials.
Terms used

English is regarded as a second language (L2) in Malaysia. The expression second language (L2) refers to two things. One, the political position that English occupies as the ‘second most important language’ in Malaysia, after Bahasa Melayu. Two, it refers to the fact that for many students, it is the first foreign language learnt after the mother tongue (L1). However, the term ‘second language’ has a more technical meaning in the language teaching profession. This, and other related terms will be defined from a pedagogic perspective for your reference.

1 Mother tongue

This would be the native language of the child’s parents. If this language is the most often spoken language in the child’s home, it may well be the first language a child acquires. In Malaysia, however, there are some children, especially those from middle-class homes, who do not know their mother tongue because English is spoken more than the mother tongue in the child’s home.

2 First language (L1)

The first language is the language a person is most comfortable with in communication. This may be the first language he or she acquired but need not be so. For example, many non-Malay children in Malaysia may have acquired their mother tongue first and be most proficient in it at the point of entry into school. But after several years of Malay-medium education, they may regard Bahasa Melayu as their first language, although it may not be the language they acquired first.

3 Second language (L2, ESL, TESOL) and foreign language (FL)

This term has slightly different meanings in America and in Britain. In American books, the term foreign language and the term second language are often used interchangeably. In Britain and in Malaysia, a distinction is made between these two terms. A language is considered a foreign language when it is taught as a school subject but is not a medium of instruction or communication. French and Japanese will be learnt as foreign languages by Malaysian children just as Bahasa Melayu will be learnt as a foreign language in Britain or Korea.

A second language is not a native language of the country but is a language used for certain purposes and by certain people within the country. In Malaysian towns, for example, English is the main language of commerce and there are many signs, advertisements, etc. found everywhere in the urban areas. So English can be termed a second language in Malaysian towns. In the rural areas, however, English is a foreign language because the rural child has very little environmental support in his learning of English. This is because very few people and institutions in the rural areas use English.

Another distinction we have to make is within second language itself. When a person is a new immigrant to Australia or America or Britain, and he learns
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English there, he is said to be learning a second language. When a child in Kuala Lumpur learns English, he too is said to be learning a second language. However, there are differences in these two pedagogic situations, which are both termed ESL situations. The immigrant is often an adult, a person who seeks integration into the English speaking community and has a much greater level of environmental support than the young child learning English for functional/instrumental purposes in an environment which is not as language-rich as the environment of the immigrant.

Topic 2 The KBSR/KBSM approach to education and language teaching

All of us live by certain philosophies of life, certain beliefs and priorities, and certain value systems. These philosophies, beliefs and values affect the way we think and act. Besides these global systems that affect all our actions, we also have more specific beliefs and philosophies about specific areas of life, especially those that pertain to our professional life. Thus, every act you perform as a teacher is influenced by what you believe a teacher is, what learning is, what you think you ought to be teaching and how best this can be achieved.

Our education system has a broad philosophy which is intended as a guide for every teacher, regardless of what subject he or she teaches. As a teacher in Malaysia and a teacher of Malaysian children, this philosophy and the ideas associated with it must almost be second nature to you. You must know them so that your practice can be guided by them and you can be an effective instrument in achieving these national ideals.

We will end this section with an extended quotation from the Guidelines to Textbook Writers distributed by the Ministry of Education which contains a summary statement about the broad objectives of education in general, and the specific ways in which these objectives can be effectively implemented in the language curriculum. The quotation has been slightly adapted to read 'teacher' wherever 'textbook writer' is mentioned and to read 'class', 'course' or 'programme' wherever 'textbook' is mentioned. Although the quotation is extracted from the KBSM Guidelines, the broad principles apply equally to the KBSR.

EMPHASES OF THE KBSM

It is essential that teachers take into consideration the emphases of the Integrated Secondary School Curriculum (KBSM) when planning the contents of their teaching programme. These emphases are:

a. **Knowledge**

Through exposure to various activities and materials, students are provided with the impetus to seek further knowledge on their own accord which is to continue throughout their lifetime.

b. **Thinking abilities**
It is essential that opportunities be provided to sharpen students' thinking abilities in order that they be able to think clearly, objectively, rationally and creatively, as well as have an open mind and be able to make sound judgements.

C Moral and ethical values
The introduction of moral and ethical values in the curriculum is geared towards developing humane and morally upright persons, who seek not only to know themselves better but also be able to contribute to the betterment and harmony of the society and the nation.

d Reading habit
In order to inculcate the reading habit among students, exercises and assignments given and materials used should encourage students to read further and undertake reference work.

Next, we will look at some of the importance principles that need to be considered in the English language programme. These principles are important factors that need to be considered in planning the ESL lessons before they can be successfully carried out as classroom instructions.

Topic 3 Some important principles to be considered in the English language programme

1 Level of difficulty
The teacher must cater to the varying levels of proficiency among students. Since there is a wide range of proficiency levels among students, the teacher can be guided by the fact that students will have been exposed to the primary school English Language programme, as well as the Lower Secondary English Language programme which specify the skills, the language structure, the vocabulary, and the topics to be taught.

2 Gradation of difficulty
Teachers should control the level of difficulty of materials and activities in the classroom. They should ensure that there is a gradation of difficulty, that is, materials to be used in the first term need to be easier than those to be used at the end of the year. The variables to be taken into account are the ideas, the vocabulary, and the sentence length.

3 Suitability to students
Materials and exercises used in the classroom must be suitable for students. They must not be too wordy and the ideas dealt with should not be beyond the level of comprehension of students. However, the materials should be interesting and motivating.

4 Balance
Teachers need also to achieve a certain balance in their approach. This balance must be seen in the provision of materials and activities for both boys and girls and for rural and urban students. There should also be a balance of treatment of the oracy skills (listening and speaking) and literacy skills (reading and writing). In addition, a balance between literary materials and non-literary materials should also be maintained in the course.

5 Variety
Students need to be exposed to a variety of contexts, situations and language use. They need also to be exposed to various types of writing such as dialogues, prose, and poetry. In addition to this, there must be variety in the types of illustrations, in
the language activities, and in the exercises presented. Teachers should also ensure that a certain amount of humour is injected into the texts and activities.

6 Literary element

As literature is part of the language component, it is imperative that literary elements be infused into the language programme. This can be done through the introduction of short stories, excerpts from novels, fables and legends, and poems. These will not only help develop an interest in reading but also provide models of the target language at its best.

Literary materials chosen should therefore, be pieces that reflect the language used at its best and should as far as possible be taken from the established corpus of literary texts. Such materials should reflect the various genres, patterns and styles of language as well as be interesting and enjoyable to read.

Teachers should also ensure a balance between the amount of literary and non-literary material presented in the text.

7 Intellectual development

In providing opportunities to sharpen students’ thinking, it is important that activities and exercises presented in the classroom be meaningful, challenging and thought-provoking.

Similarly, and more importantly, questions asked should be challenging and thought-provoking. They should include higher-order divergent questions apart from the convergent kind.

8 Teaching vs. testing

Since the materials and activities are teaching and learning aids, their contents must be organized to facilitate teaching and encourage learning. The means that the requirements in learning a skill need to be first presented step-by-step in such a way that will enable students to learn it. Teachers must ensure that testing techniques are not used as teaching techniques as they have different objectives.

Since the KBSM programme has already been implemented in the primary and secondary schools in Malaysia for several years since its inception in 1970, this module will only deal with it briefly. For detail information on the programme and how English lessons that can be planned out to teach the four skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing) please refer to the recommended text by Chitavelu et al’s ELT Methodology Principles and Practice published in 1995.

Unit two wishes to give you a wider exposure on the KBKK programme and how ESL lessons are prepared in accordance to the problem solving mechanism and by means of higher order questions and tasks. KBKK is an extended version of the KBSM which aims at promoting creative and critical thinking via ESL lessons. The next section of this unit will discuss the KBKK programme in greater details. Discussion will focus on the topics such as; the concepts of thinking skills which among other things will discuss the learning process, the brain theories, models of thinking skills and thinking skills in English language. Further discussion on the KBKK will be covered in Units 3 and 4.
THE CONCEPT OF THINKING SKILLS

Introduction

One of the main objectives of the National Philosophy of Education is to produce students who are intellectually, spiritually and physically well-balanced. The KBSM syllabus, in line with the National Education Policy is geared towards producing students who are able to think rationally, critically and creatively. There in lies the need for thinking skills.

The emphasis on thinking skills in education is not something new altogether. It has long been practised in the teaching and learning process. However, there is a need for more emphasis and efforts to enhance student’s thinking. This is not to say that thinking skills should be taught to students separately. Thinking skills should be incorporated or infused in the course of the teaching and learning process. In this manner students will not be merely recalling or memorising something that they have learnt but are able to exercise critical judgment and creative thinking to gather, analyse, evaluate and use information for effective problem-solving.

Points to ponder

Teach children what to think
And you limit them to your ideas.
Teach them how to think
And their ideas are unlimited

The learning process

Learning is a process which involves a series of processes which if efficiently carried out would enable the learner to achieve the objectives set for him. ESL teaching has to be systematically conducted before any learning can take place. The different processes involved in the teaching and leaning of ESL are hereby discussed;
(i) **Receiving and registering information**

Information is received in two different ways, that is in concrete and abstract form. The concrete form involves the use of the 5 senses while the abstract form involves thinking, making analysis and reasoning. A learner receives the information in a continuum from concrete to abstract. The received information is more effectively registered while the brain is in the conscious state. In this state, emotional factors such as fear, stress, excitement etc. do not interfere with the learner’s concentration. This will facilitate the next step in the learning process.

(ii) **Understanding and being aware of information**

The registered information could only be understood well if it is deciphered through related activities that require language skills via personal usage, pair work or group work. If the information could be connected with other registered or deciphered information through mind mapping or concept mapping and reinforced by drill and exercises, the learner will be in a state of awareness of the information understood.

(iii) **Remembering/Recalling and Performing Operations**

Remembering is a process used to store knowledge or information. All the information that the learner has understood and is aware of, will be stored in his long-term memory. If the information is then utilised to perform operations for problem solving, it will be more easily stored and retrieved. And when the information is used repeatedly, it will be permanently etched in his memory.

(iv) **Application**

The application of the information recalled from the memory is a very important step in completing the learning process. If the stored information could not be applied by the learner in new situations, then NO learning has actually occurred. By applying the
information such as vocabulary, tenses & sound system in different situations through activities such as oral presentations, writing or undertaking a class project, the information can be further developed or expanded. Thus the learner will be able to solve further problems. An effective learning process – from registration to application requires:

1. Motivation
2. Thinking skills
3. Communicative skills

Motivation is important as a catalyst to stimulate an individual to strive to learn anything new.

The preceding discussion on the learning process is summarised in the graphic organizer.

Graphic Organizer 3 The Learning Process

---

INPUT
Visual
Audio
Audio-visual
Personal involvement

REQUIRE
Motivation
Thinking skills
Communicative skills

Receiving & Registering
Understanding & being aware
Recalling & Performing Operations
Application
Topic 5 The Brain Theories

As thinking is directly associated with brains, this section discusses the thinking process based on the structure of human brain.

The Brain Theories

TRIUNE BRAIN THEORY
(Dr. Paul Maclean)

MID - CORTEX
Cerebrum
controls intellectual processes.

(Thinking Skills)

MIDDLE BRAIN
Mammals
controls emotion, sex & happiness

BASE
controls reflex actions

Figure 1 Structure of human brain

From the physiological aspect, the thinking process takes place in the brain. According to Dr. Paul Maclean, the structure of the human brain is divided into three main parts.

- Neo-cortex: controls intellectual processes
- Middle brain: controls emotion, sex and happiness
- Base: controls reflex actions

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According to Sperry and Ornstein, the brain is divided into 2 hemispheres. The left hemisphere controls the eyes, ear, hand and right leg while the right hemisphere controls the body and organs on the left side.

Academic processes are usually linked to the left hemisphere. Here, critical thinking takes place where information is processed logically, analytically and in sequence. Mathematical operations and language skills take place here.

The right hemisphere usually receives and restores information. Creative thinking happens here where information is processed to form perception and meaningful visualisation. However, without the left hemisphere, whatever information already processed in the right hemisphere cannot be related to personal experience.

As earlier mentioned, the brain is divided into two parts: left and right. The research done by Professor Robert Ornstein of the University of California has thrown more light on the different activities handled by each side of the brain.

The function of both sides of brains can be analysed in the following manner

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEFT BRAIN</th>
<th>RIGHT BRAIN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sequence</td>
<td>Wholistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Intuition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>Creative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maths</td>
<td>Arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numbers</td>
<td>Rhythm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>Imagination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logic</td>
<td>Non-verbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facts</td>
<td>Think in pictures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think in words</td>
<td>Daydreaming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lyrics of a song</td>
<td>Tune of song</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Concept of Thinking

Thinking is a complex process within a person’s mind when he or she thinks of something. It involves the mental processes of knowledge and experiences in the person’s mind. Therefore, an understanding of the mental process is necessary in order to teach and develop thinking skills.

Thinking involves two mental operations;
1. cognitive operation
2. meta cognitive operation

The cognitive operation takes place when a person compares and contrasts, concludes, creates, produces ideas, and so on. But when the person realises the kinds of thinking skills used in order to achieve something, this is called meta-cognitive. Researches have shown that these two mental operations are vital in effective learning.

Thinking process requires a motive. As an example, the aim of thinking is to find means to evaluate or to solve problems. In order to achieve its goal, the person is required to be willing and to feel the need to be involved in the process until the motive is achieved. In other words, thinking also involves a positive attitude.

**Topic 6 A Model of Thinking Skills**

The CDC – Curriculum Development Centre, Ministry of Education, Malaysia, has proposed a model of Thinking Skills as shown in figure 2. This CDC Thinking Model was designed with the help of Professor Jack Zevin from Queen’s College, New York. The model illustrates four main categories of thinking which are interrelated. They are further explained below:

**THE CDC MODEL OF THINKING**

![Figure 2 CDC Model of Thinking](image-url)

Figure 2 CDC MODEL OF THINKING
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a. Creative Thinking
This category widens the student’s power of imagination, innovation and creativity in order to produce various and many new ideas. It emphasizes the use of existing data or information to generate possibilities to achieve certain target.

Thinking skills which can be classified into this category are generating ideas, predicting, analysing, making hypothesis, networking, identifying relationships, summarising, concept mapping, inventing, CoRT 1 (broadening perception) and CoRT 4 (lateral and creative thinking).

b. Critical Thinking
This category involves the process of analysing and evaluating ideas, data or information for a clear, concrete and meaningful comparison.

Thinking skills which can be classified into this category include classifying, organizing, comparing and contrasting, determining criteria, identifying cause and effect, identifying assumptions, tendencies, differentiating facts and opinions, determining relability of a source, identifying main ideas and evaluating.

c. Problem Solving
This category involves a very complex process. The steps are:

i. Problem identification and interpretation: This involves the use of Critical and Creative thinking to analyse, understand and explain a certain problem as well as identifying or interpreting the real problem.

ii. Searching for solution:
This involves the use of Critical and Creative Thinking in order to find ways to solve a problem.

iii. Choosing the best solution:
This involves the skill of choosing the best solution based on certain criteria.

iv. Application of the chosen solution:
This step involves problem-solving operations using the selected ways.

v. Examining and evaluating the effects of a solution:
This involves the skill of examining and evaluating the effects or the accuracy of a solution.

d. Decision Making
This category involves quite a complex process. The steps used in this process are:

i. Generating possibilities:
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This involves the use of Creative Thinking to produce alternative options, choices or possibilities.

ii. Determining the consequences of a particular opinion:
This involves the skill of determining the consequences of a particular option.

iii. Choosing the best option based on certain criteria:
This step involves the skill of determining criteria, determining the main criterion, evaluating the options and choosing the best option.

It is emphasized here that the categories on the thinking skills above are not separate entities but are interconnected.

**Topic 7 Thinking Skills in English Language**

There are a number of thinking skills in English language learning and teaching, such as:
- Decision making
- Comparing and contrasting
- Summarizing
- Relaying information
- Visualizing
- Defending one’s opinion
- Planning
- Giving opinion
- Inferring
- Analysing for bias
- Problem-solving
- Drawing conclusion
- Reasoning
- Gathering information
- Listing
- Elaborating
- Sequencing
- Translating
- Predicting

These twenty skills are not exhaustive and the only skills found in the learning and teaching of English language. They are chosen for their frequent usage in the subject. Figure 3 illustrates the model of Teaching Skills in English Language based on the CDC Model. These twenty teaching skills are frequently used or applied in the classroom. These skills are divided into four groups which are interrelated.
Figure 3 Thinking Skills in English Language

Activity 4
Based on the CDC Thinking Model, (i) differentiate between creative and critical thinking based on how each is defined, and (ii) plan a reading comprehension activity for each based on a selected reading comprehension text.

Activity 5
Using the Thinking Skills given in Figure 3, design ten reading comprehension questions based on a reading text that elicit answers relevant to the skills.

Activity 6
In not more than a page (A4), discuss how the knowledge of the structure of the human brain is important for a teacher in the effort of teaching thinking skills to the students.

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UNIT 3 Teaching and learning strategies of KBKK

This unit exposes students to approaches in learning and teaching of thinking skills, and the COGAPP taxonomy (after Bloom, 1956 and Krathwohl, 1964) and other relevant topics that relate to the teaching and learning of KBKK.

Topic 1 Approaches in Learning and Teaching of Thinking Skills

There are several thinking skills that can be used to teach students to become critical and creative thinkers. This section will highlight and discuss some of the thinking skills that may be considered for such a purpose.

1. Making associations or Connections

Making associations or connections is a very important skill. It is used with most of the other thinking skills. Pupils must learn to make as many associations or connections as possible with regard to what is required and to make them quickly. This skill will help them to recall facts or information or to make relationship quickly.

2. Comparing and contrasting

Skillful comparing and contrasting is important as it helps pupils to have a better understanding of the information, to make good decisions and to solve problems. It involves an analysis of the information and is also used in other critical thinking skills such as classifying, evaluating, sequencing and identifying cause and effect.

3. Classifying, grouping and categorising

Pupils should acquire this skill as it helps them to organise their thinking by grouping facts, ideas or information with similar characteristics. It also helps them to obtain a better understanding of the information as well as in the writing process where they need to organise their ideas before writing. In skillful classifying, grouping and categorizing, pupils should make an analysis of the information and use the skills of making associations, comparing and contrasting.

4. Evaluating

In our everyday life, we evaluate many things such as people, actions, situations, stories, ideas, etc. Skillful evaluating helps us to make good decisions and to solve problems. The skills of evaluating involve analysing the information and using value judgement as well as using reasoning skills. Therefore, it is important that pupils learn the skills of evaluating.
5. Arranging and sequencing

These skills help the pupils to organise the facts or information for better understanding, to make decisions and to solve problems. It may involve the other critical thinking skills such as comparing and contrasting, classifying, evaluating, making inferences and also reasoning. Pupils should be taught the skills of arranging and sequencing starting with arranging or sequencing the letters of the alphabet and numbers to words, sentences, ideas and ways according to a required order, pattern, or priority.

6. Identifying true or false statements

Statements are always being made either verbally or in writing. They may be 'true' or 'false' statements. Therefore, it is important that pupils are able to identify which are the 'true', and which are the 'false' statements. This skill may require knowledge or experience of the true facts, the skills of evaluating, and the skills of reasoning.

7. Identifying facts and opinions

We often read or hear statements like, "Jogging is the best exercise." "All people like to watch football." "Malaysia has a population of 20 million", and so on. Some of these statements are facts and some are opinions. Pupils should be taught the skills of identifying statements which are facts and those which are opinions.

8. Identifying bias statements

In our everyday life, we also read or hear bias statements being made about things, trade names, people and their characters, or systems. These bias statements are made mainly to influence people. Therefore, it is important that pupils learn how to identify these bias statements.

The techniques normally used in bias statements include:

a. One sided description, explanation, or emphasis, e.g.:

   A shop sells two types of health food, A and B. The salesman says that A has all the vitamins and minerals and that many people buy it including some famous singers.

   The description above is biased towards A.

b. Using numbers, e.g.: The shop has sold about 90% of product X.

c. Stating all people use it, e.g.: All people found that Drink Y tastes good.
9. **Identifying the cause, giving causal explanation**

Pupils need to acquire the skills of identifying the cause for a particular action, consequence or happening. For example, analyse the following statements:

"The student failed the exam badly"

Pupils should be able to identify that the cause of the failure e.g. "He did not study for the exam." This caused the student to fail in the exam, i.e. the student failed because he did not study.

10. **Identifying the effects/consequences, predicting consequences.**

Apart from identifying the cause, pupils should also learn the skills of identifying the effect or consequence for a certain action or happening. Consider the following statements:

The windows were closed. The room was hot.

Pupils should be able to identify that the cause is 'the windows were closed' and the effect or consequence of this action or happening is, 'the room was hot'. This means that the closed windows caused the room to become hot.

The consequence for a particular action or happening may not be found in the passage. In this case, pupils should learn how to predict various probable consequences. Skillful predicting consequences before taking any action is a very important skill which pupils should master.

11. **Making inferences or conclusions.**

It is important for pupils to learn the skill of making intelligent inferences or conclusions based on the facts and on reasoning. For example, if we notice that Ali likes to play and does not do his homework, we can make the inference or conclusion that Ali is lazy or that he is not interested in his studies.

12. **Making generalisations**

To make a good generalisation, pupils need to examine the information, look for a pattern and then make a general statement. It would also require pupils to make good inferences.
13. Making Interpretations

Making interpretations is to explain the meaning of words, sentences, pictures, graphs, etc. The ability to make interpretations is also an important thinking skill as it helps pupils to understand the information better. Pupils should be able to make interpretations of words and phrases, sentences, analogies, metaphors and slogans, passages, rules, circulars, pictures, diagrams, tables and graphs.

14. Identifying the main ideas, supporting ideas, details

Skillful identification of main ideas, supporting ideas and details may take time for pupils to master. However it will be worth as pupils will be able to have a better understanding of the information and will be able to make better summaries and conclusions.

15. Making summaries

The ability to make a summary of an information is a very important skill which pupils should learn as it is a useful lifelong skill. Summaries will help us to remember the information. In making summaries, the unimportant details and supporting ideas should be left out leaving only the main ideas and the important supporting ideas. The summary should also be stated briefly.

16. Making decision

Skillful decision making is a complex thinking skill which requires the use of critical thinking skills. There are certain steps to be taken in skillful decision making which pupils must learn and follow. Once they are skillful in the process of making decisions they would take a shorter time to make good decisions.

17. Solving problems

Skillful problem solving is a complex skill which involves the critical as well as the creative thinking skills. There are certain steps to be followed in problem solving:

a. Problems which require analysis:
   'The school canteen is dirty.'
   if we know what are the actually causes the canteen to be dirty we can take various actions to solve the problem.
b. Problems which require ideas:
'How can we beautify the classroom?'
We do not want to know why the classroom is not beautiful. We only
want ideas of how to beautify the classroom.

**Topic 2 Learning and Teaching using questioning Techniques**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ABOUT QUESTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>You need ask none of the types all the time, but you must ask all the types some of the time</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irwin. 1988</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Choosing the right questioning technique is important in developing the thinking skills of the students. Questions asked must be carefully planned and organised systematically so that they do not only test recall or literal answers but more importantly encourage students to think creatively and critically. Therefore, planning questioning techniques must take into considerations the following factors:

- The level of students' proficiency.
- The ability of students to understand, digest and answer questions.
- The questions should be graded in sequential order, starting from low convergent questions (concrete concept) to high divergent questions of abstract concept. The questions are challenging and they definitely stimulate students to think.
- The 'wait time' for students to ponder the questions put forward (according to the level of difficulty of the questions) should be ample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WAIT TIME</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers only give 0.9 seconds to answer the questions (Rome 1986). To motivate students to think, teachers should extend this 'wait time'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Samples questions that can be asked by students and teachers are:

**i. Questions that can generate creative thinking**

The following questions can be use to generate creative thinking skills;

1. What do you think are the advantages and disadvantages of ...?
2. What will happen if ...?
3. Based on ... what generalisation/conclusion can you come up with?
4. What is the relationship between ...?
5. What can you create from ...?
6. In what other way can you ...?
Think of other questions that can be designed for the purpose of generating creative thinking skills. Remember – creative thinking skills can be generated by means of questions which illicit ‘creative’ responses. The key word that ones need to remember is ‘create’. Students are asked to create something while responding to the questions.

ii. Questions to generate critical thinking

The following questions can be considered to generate critical thinking skills;

1. What are the similarities and differences between …?
2. How can we classify…?
3. Explain why you have chosen …?
4. What assumptions can you derive from your observation?
5. What proof is there to support your observation?
6. Explain why … happened?
7. Determine the main ideas in …?
8. Determine the reliability of a source of information/ a statement/ etc.

The critical thinking questions ask for some kind of ‘analysis’ of a situation. Key words that one needs to remember are; why, how, explain, determine.

Activity:

State the difference between the creative thinking questions and the critical thinking ones.

iii. Questions for decision making

The following are the examples of questions that can be considered for decision making;

1. What are the possible alternatives/choices…?
2. What are the consequences of a choice?
3. Which criteria should be given priority?
4. Based on the alternatives, what is the best choice?
Activity:
What do you think of the decision making questions in comparison with the previous two?

iv. Questions for problem solving

The following are the examples of problem-solving questions;

1. What is the problem? What caused the problem?
2. What are the possible ways of solving the problem?
3. What is the best way of solving the problem? Why?
4. What will be the consequence of the chosen alternative?

Activity:

State the differences and similarities between problem solving questions with the rest of the questions earlier mentioned.

Topic 3 Ways of developing critical and creative thinking skills

The following ways can be considered in order to develop critical and creative thinking skills;

i. Cooperative learning

Cooperative learning (popularly referred to as pair work or group work) can be considered as one of the effective ways not only in developing critical and creative thinking skills but are also in developing collective decision-making. Students will work in group and share their knowledge and experiences in order to come up with a consensus.
ii. Brainstorming

The brainstorming process is extremely useful in generating numerous views and varied ideas. In brainstorming exercise, there should be a person to record all ideas and chairperson who encourages the members to generate their ideas freely. However, it is important to bear in mind that at this stage all answers should be accepted and recorded.

iii. Projects

In carrying the projects, students can be trained in generating and developing thinking skills. It can also help students to become independent learners. While carrying out a given project, students may learn the following skills before they submit their final product.

♦ Identifying sources
♦ Collecting information
♦ Processing and arranging information
♦ Editing
♦ Presenting information

iv. Discussions

Discussions can be carried out either between the teacher and the students or among students themselves with the teacher acting as a facilitator. This technique is useful in developing thinking skills because of the interaction which allows the students to be involved in skills like giving explanation, clarifying, evaluating, inferring, interpreting and making conclusions. However, topics for discussions must be properly planned in order to achieve the desired results.

v. Explanations

It is a deductive technique which can be used effectively to teach thinking skills. In this method the teacher needs to:

♦ Arrange data, concepts of information from the easier to the more difficult level.
♦ Explain data, concepts or information as clearly as possible.
♦ Use concrete examples or analogy (wherever possible) for better understanding.
♦ Use audio visual aids.

“We must learn to explore all options and possibilities that confront us in a complex and rapidly changing world. We must learn to welcome and not fear the voices of dissent.”

J.W. Fulbright
Various models for thinking skills have been put forward by experts to help understand and learn the concepts of thinking skills. Basically, the various models are more or less similar except that the thinking skills are categorised in different manners. What we need to bear in mind as language teachers is the fact that we need to integrate the thinking skills in our teaching and learning process in the English language classroom.

“The art of teaching is the art of assisting discovery.”
Mark van Beran

Topic 4 Thinking tools – Question constructions

Introduction

Evaluating students’ level of thinking mainly depends on the expertise of the teacher in constructing different types of questions and how the questions are posed. The ability of students to answer questions at a certain level reflects the students’ understanding of the topic, and hence helps the teacher to assess or evaluate the students’ thinking level and skills.

Researches done on education show that majority of questions asked during classroom instructions are low-order types (i.e. ones that elicit literal or comprehension kind of responses). Low-order questions, used excessively, may not be good if one desires to train students to become critical or creative thinkers. Goodland (1984) reports that in his 1000 observations of teaching and learning process, 99% of questions asked are of the recall-type questions (literal or comprehension levels). Ghazali Mustapha (1998) in his study, discovers that more than 85% of about 3000 questions asked by more than 200 teachers are of literal or non-inferential types. If this trend continues to happen, students will not be given the chance to use their thinking skills systematically and effectively. Teachers must bear in mind that students are able to answer different types of questions, from all levels, and not only recall-type questions (Irwin, 1998). “You need ask none of the types all the time, but you must ask all types some of the time.” This can only be done if teachers themselves are aware of the techniques and strategies that can be used in the formulation of questions with different levels of thought processes (Ghazali Mustapha, 1998).

Thus teachers will have to familiarize themselves with the different techniques of constructing questions. Some of the widely used techniques are based on the bloom taxonomy, Barrett taxonomy, Taba taxonomy – to mention a few. Ghazali Mustapha (1998) in his Ph.D thesis has introduced the COGAFF taxonomy; the fusion of Bloom’s cognitive taxonomy and Krathwohl’s affective taxonomy. This fusion is necessary if we want to produce students who are not only cognitively smart but also morally (affective) upright as envisioned by the National Philosophy of Education. The COGAFF taxonomy is presented and elaborated in the following sections.
COGAFF taxonomy and question designing

The COGAFF Taxonomy or the Cognitive-Affective Taxonomy is the integration of Bloom et al's cognitive and Krathwohl et al's affective taxonomies and is formulated by Ghazali Mustapha (1997) for his Ph.D. Thesis. In his study, Ghazali has utilized the COGAFF Taxonomy into five main ways or purposes.

First, it is used as a measuring tool for all Reading and Comprehension Questions (RCQs) and Reading and Comprehension Tasks (RCTs). It helps to direct teacher's attention to students' behavioural changes due to the well-thought and well-formulated instructions by the teacher. The teacher is able to classify questions to the various levels of the taxonomy as shown in Table 1. This is supported by the various experiments Ghazali Mustapha (1997) conducted on his subjects.

Second, by using the taxonomy, teachers develop a sensitivity to forming different types of convergent and divergent questions and tasks to elicit different kinds of thought-processes, lower and higher Levels of Thought Processes (LOTPs).

Third, it can be used to evaluate instructional materials such as the textbooks. Based on a critical analysis of the KBSM Form 5 English Language textbook (Nagappan et al., 1991) carried out by some M. Sc. TESL students using COGAFF taxonomy, it was found that most of the RCQs and RCTs were of low-order convergent type. If we want out students to be able to think creatively and critically, they should be exposed to and taught more of the high-order divergent RCQs and RCTs. By teaching and exposing them to the different levels of questions and tasks, they will undoubtedly use and apply both the lower and higher LOTPs.

The evaluation of instructional materials using the, COGAFF Taxonomy has helped teachers to classify the different types of questions and tasks according to different levels of thought-processes as part of a materials evaluation process. They were also able to select questions and tasks which can elicit creative and critical thinking among the students. Apart from that, the study also shows that teachers were able to extend materials by adapting existing questions/tasks and at the same time formulating their own not found in the text.

Fourth, it is used to help students to participate actively in the learning process. They are able to raise and respond to questions which require high level thinking processes. Students should also be taught to formulate their own questions so that they are involved more actively in their own learning.

Fifth, the taxonomy can also be used for the purpose of designing varied teaching activities according to different level of thought processes. Ghazali in his Ph.D work has demonstrated that the teaching activities or tasks for any skills (e.g. listening, speaking, writing and reading) can be formulated variedly
according to different level of thinking skills using the idea put forward by the
taxonomy. This idea will be vary useful for the purpose of handling classroom
activities with varied levels of difficulty as deemed fit for the KBKK or
SMART school programmes. This will not be discussed in this module.

The table below demonstrated how questions graded at various LOTPs could
engange students' thinking about issues, problems, and topics under discussion.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxonomy level</th>
<th>Summary/Definition</th>
<th>Sample Question</th>
<th>Key Word</th>
<th>Ability demonstrated</th>
<th>Type of thinking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.0 Affective</td>
<td>Questions at this level ask pupils to respond to a statement of feeling, emotion, attitude, and opinion without a standard appraisal. Describe your feelings about the Easter incident if you were the son/daughter of one of the victims.</td>
<td>Feeling, emotion, opinion, attitude</td>
<td>Expressing feeling, emotion, opinion or attitude</td>
<td>Emotive/thoughtful</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.0 Evaluation</td>
<td>Questions at this level ask pupils to use criteria to make and justify judgements about something. Is the group’s conclusion consistent with the results of their experiment?</td>
<td>Judge</td>
<td>Forming judgements</td>
<td>Evaluative/judgemental</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5.0 Synthesis</td>
<td>Synthesis questions ask pupils to be creative by putting a number of ideas or objects together or objects together in a way that is unique and new to them. There are many different solutions and no right answers. What plan would you draw up to advise governments in West Africa to check the spread of the desert?</td>
<td>Create</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4.0 Analysis</td>
<td>Questions at this level direct pupils to determine the parts of a problem, solution, or idea and show how they are related. Why did the students who formed that plot work so hard?</td>
<td>Why</td>
<td>Using information</td>
<td>Divergent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.0 Application</td>
<td>Questions at this level require pupils to demonstrate the use of ideas. They must apply their knowledge and understanding to new situations and use to solve problems. Using the procedures discussed in the text: how would you solve the following problems?</td>
<td>How, solve</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.0 Comprehension</td>
<td>A comprehension level question requires pupils to demonstrate the use of ideas. They must apply their knowledge and understanding of a communication, idea, or</td>
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<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>Restate</td>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>Convergent</td>
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<tr>
<td>object. Two sub-categories are translation and interpretation. What is meant by the word “tragedy” as described in the text?</td>
<td>Pupils are to rephrase or restate an idea without changing its meaning. They are expected to explain or use it.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>Compare</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Pupils relate and compare things or ideas to one another and explain or summarize a communication. How is the Japanese flag different from the British flag?</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0 Knowledge</td>
<td>Who, What, Where, When</td>
<td>Repeating information</td>
<td>Remembering/Recall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A knowledge level question requires pupils to recall from memory previously learned facts, concepts, generalizations, and theories. Who is the boy described in the story?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note: Each question/task asked/designated by a teacher or a pupil is to be scored in but a single category.

The main focus of the COGAFF Taxonomy is to obtain a clear hierarchical arrangement of the objectives of a lesson from simple to complex. The taxonomy is presented below with sample verbs and sample behaviour statements for each level.

**Level 1: Knowledge / Literal / Recall (Remembering) - (LOT 1.0)**

define, recall, remember, where, who, when, recognize, what, which, name, list, tell, how many, how much, identify.

**Level 2: Comprehension (Understanding) - (LOT 2.0)**

compare, contrast, differentiate, explain, rephrase, distinguish, describe, relate, interpret, rearrange, put in your own words, translate, predict
Level 3: Application (Solving) - (LOTP 3.0)

apply, classify, use, choose, how, solve, design, calculate, demonstrate, which, what is, build, employ

Level 4: Analysis (Reasoning) - (LOTP 4.0)

why, analyse, compare, recognize, contrast, draw, identify, infer, support, cause, distinguish, determine, evidence.

Level 5: Synthesis (Creating) - (LOTP 5.0)

create, plan, construct, formulate, put together, design, draw up, illustrate, tell, write, suggest.

Level 6: Evaluation - (LOTP 6.0)

judge, assess, decide, appraise, choose, evaluate, select, do you agree, conclude, opinion, which is better, why, on what basis.

Level 7: Affective - (LOTP 7.0)

Level I: Receiving: listen, aware, sensitive, attend, attentive, observe, describe, identify, receptive, conscious, cognizant.

Level II: Responding: participate, volunteer, enjoy, seek, act, comply, conform, read, select, respond, react, learn.

Level III: Valuing: value, believe, accept, depend on, use, worth, appreciate, commitment, important, adopt, embrace, treasure.

Level IV: Organizing a Value Set:

Sample questions:
1. Is it right to take a bribe?
2. Should we encourage a person to vote for our candidate?
3. Should a person use his position to get a job for a friend?

The emphasis placed on the affective domain provides us with the platform to discover more about emotional intelligence, which include self-control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself. And these skills can be taught to learners, giving them a better chance to use whatever intellectual potential they may have.
Goleman (1995) is of the opinion that the importance of emotional intelligence hinges on the link between sentiment, character, and moral instincts. And there is growing evidence that fundamental ethical stances in life stem from underlying emotional capacities.

The inclusion of affective domain as the highest Level of Thought Processes in COGAFF Taxonomy should be acknowledged as a clever move. After all, critical thinking skills include both the cognitive as well as the affective domain. Furthermore, a demonstration of high I.Q. is inadequate in becoming a good critical thinker without possessing emotional intelligence: to rein in emotional impulse; to read another's innermost feelings; to handle relationships smoothly.

Goleman (1995) further suggests that the root of altruism lies in empathy, the ability to read emotions in others. And if there are any two moral stances that our times call for, they are precisely these, self-restraint and compassion.

According to Ghazali Mustapha (1997) "in the body of the human being, there is a flesh; if the flesh is good the body is good, if the flesh is bad, the body is bad. And that flesh is the heart" based on the 'hadith' - the saying of the Prophet S.A.W., 1400 years ago). It has been emphasized by the Prophet that the heart (which relates to feelings more than mind) plays a major role in shaping up one's personality.

Therefore, when dealing with critical thinking we are actually involved in two acts: one is an act of the emotional mind, and the other of the rational mind. In a very real sense we have two minds, one that thinks and one that feels. Hence, we can conclude that critical thinking involves both the "head" (cognitive) and the "heart" (affective).

The two tables below show us Bloom's Cognitive Taxonomy and Krathwohl's Affective Taxonomy from which the COGAFF Taxonomy is formulated.
### Table 2 Bloom’s Cognitive Taxonomy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxonomy level</th>
<th>Summary/Definition</th>
<th>Sample Questions</th>
<th>Key Word</th>
<th>Ability demonstrated</th>
<th>Type of thinking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Using the criteria</td>
<td>at least half of</td>
<td>Judge</td>
<td>Forming judgements</td>
<td>Evaluative /</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>that all the</td>
<td>the questions in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>judgemental</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>questions in a</td>
<td>class session</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>should be asked</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synthesis</td>
<td>What can we do</td>
<td>to encourage</td>
<td>Create</td>
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<td></td>
<td>students to ask</td>
<td>students to ask</td>
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<td>more questions</td>
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<td>classroom?</td>
<td>classroom?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Why don’t</td>
<td>students ask</td>
<td>Why</td>
<td></td>
<td>Divergent</td>
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<td></td>
<td>students ask</td>
<td>more questions</td>
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<td>more questions</td>
<td>in the</td>
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<td>in the</td>
<td>classroom?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Application</td>
<td>In your teaching</td>
<td>field, what is</td>
<td>How,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>one question</td>
<td>one question</td>
<td>solve</td>
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<td>that would be</td>
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<td>asked by all</td>
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<td>the students</td>
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<td>in the class?</td>
<td>in the class?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Which group of</td>
<td>students asks</td>
<td>Compare</td>
<td></td>
<td>Convergent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>students asks</td>
<td>more questions</td>
<td>Restate</td>
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<td></td>
<td>more questions</td>
<td>in class?</td>
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<td>in class?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>What words can</td>
<td>you use to</td>
<td>Restate</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>you use to</td>
<td>describe your</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>describe your</td>
<td>class?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>How many pupils</td>
<td>are in your</td>
<td>What</td>
<td></td>
<td>Remembering /</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many pupils</td>
<td>class?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Recall</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>are in your</td>
<td>class?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3 Krathwohl’s Affective Taxonomy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxonomy level</th>
<th>Valuing Process</th>
<th>Sample question and response for each level</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Characterizing by value complex</td>
<td>The value or idea becomes part of the individual’s life and is acted on naturally without it being thought about.</td>
<td>The school administration decides that lecturing is the only useful teaching strategy and that teachers must lecture to all their classes. What would you do? (You would try to change their mind or even look for a new teaching position)</td>
<td>As a natural part of all planning an interaction, questions are used to challenge students to think at higher levels and consider their values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizing a value set</td>
<td>The idea is consciously added to values of beliefs already held and made to fit them</td>
<td>How does your belief that students should ask questions fit with the belief that only the teacher should read or direct the class? (It is better to be flexible and adjust the lesson to students needs and interests)</td>
<td>Lessons are planned that include high-order questions and allow students the chance to ask questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valuing</td>
<td>A commitment is made to the idea it is seen to have value</td>
<td>Which teaching strategy should teachers try to improve first lecturer, questioning, or writing examinations? (Questioning)</td>
<td>Other teachers are told that questions are important and they should try to improve their use of questions in class.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Therefore, the LOTPs of COGAFF Taxonomy provides us with a much better continuum of the question-types, LOQs to HOQs. It allows us to categorize question-types to suit the needs of the learners and the context.

The Relationship between Questions and Critical Thinking

The questions teachers ask in the classroom either provoke student's thoughts or otherwise. For that matter COGAFF Taxonomy (Ghazali Mustapha 1997) provides us with the notion that the nature of the questions asked, suggests whether the elements of critical thinking are present or otherwise. Therefore, if teachers' questions are of the lower LOTPs, then, students are not thinking critically. If they are of the higher LOTPs, the students have to think critically.

Dewey (1982) suggests that the essence of critical thinking is "suspended judgement". So, teacher generated-questions should concern this characteristic and also "reflective thought". Only then, we can say that there is relationship between 'questions and critical thinking'.

Chaffe (1991) stresses that one of the aspects in enhancing critical thinking among students is allowing them to carefully explore situations with questions. He further reiterates that the ability of teachers in formulating and generating thought provoking and penetrating questions places the teachers in an advantage position. These teachers are able to use one of the most powerful tools of critical thinking.

Tollefson (1989) points out that, carefully constructed questions offer a greater challenge to students' internal representation of knowledge. He further claims that the cognitive difficulty of questions is affected by many contextual, affective, and interpersonal factors, including subject matter of discussion and readings. The relationships among individuals in the class, the assumptions they can make about each other's background and knowledge, their goals as well as those of the programme and other variable. As such, teacher-generated questions, if well constructed, involve various scopes of the students' mind.
In the literature class, questions and tasks seem to hold the key in developing a learner as a critical thinker. These questions and tasks, which are basically of the higher LOTPs, may include:

i) identifying the hidden assumptions underlying the writer's central ideas;

ii) identifying any ethical questions that have not been addressed by the writer;

iii) highlighting ambiguities, fallacious reasoning, and lack of clarity in the writer's expressions of their ideas;

iv) identifying contradictions in the writer's work;

v) examine whether or not the writer's ideas take account of the practical realities of facilitating learning that have become evident in course members' own experiences.

(Brookfield 1991)

ESL teacher in the literature classroom can apply different models of thinking in developing questions and tasks which involve critical thinking skills. They can subscribe to Bloom's Taxonomy, Barrett's Taxonomy, Beyer's Cognitive Operations, Swartz and Parks's Model, CDC Model of Thinking, de Bono's Thinking Skills, Albert Upton's Thinking Model, Watson-Glaser's Critical Thinking Skills Appraisal, Guilford's Structure of Intellect, Marzano's Thinking Model, Glaser et al.'s Dimensions of Cognitive Assessment and also COGAFF Taxonomy.

ESL teachers in the literature classroom can focus on the higher LOTPs in formulating questions and tasks to develop critical thinking skills among the learners. Basically, a literature lesson involves the following:

i) inferring supporting materials;

ii) inferring the main idea;

iii) inferring sequence;

iv) inferring comparisons;

v) inferring cause-effect relationship

vi) inferring character traits;

vii) inferring author's organization;

viii) predicting outcomes;

ix) interpreting figurative language;
x) judgement of reality and fantasy;
xii) judgement of fact and opinion;
xiii) judgement of adequacy and validity;
xiv) judgement of worth, desirability;
xv) emotional response to the text;
xvi) identification with characters or incidents;
xvii) reactions to the author's or speaker's connotative language;
xviii) reactions to imagery.

The above features in dealing with literary texts of different genres provide the teacher with a greater scope to formulate questions and tasks in developing the learners' critical thinking skills.

Chaffe (1991), emphasizes that one of the factors that can enhance critical thinking among students is for the students to carefully explore situations with questions. For example, when a student needs to confirm a certain data or information or facts he has to obtain answers. This is an important dimension because the ability for teachers to ask appropriate and penetrating questions helps in developing the learners' critical thinking skills.

Generally, teachers of literature in the ESL classroom hold the key in developing students' critical thinking skills through the precise formulation of thought exploring, provoking and probing questions and tasks. These questions play a vital role in stimulating learners' cognitive domain as well as their affective domain. The learners' responses would reflect the Level of Thought Processes (higher and lower) of the question-types and tasks; a low order (closed) question warrants a simple literal comprehension, where as, a high order (open) question may involve analysis and evaluation. Therefore, a good knowledge of developing and formulating questions and tasks is an important springboard in developing learners' critical thinking skills in the literature classroom.

Conclusion

Opening the door to techniques of designing questions and tasks, particularly in both primary and secondary schools, this taxonomy represents informed practice that permits students not only to improve the English Language proficiency level but also critical thinking skills.
Since the teaching of literature has been made simpler through the many aspects, especially class readers, students will be even more highly motivated to learn. As they enter into transactions with the selected themes, they engage in thinking in the most natural way possible. Tiedt (1989) believes that once students are engaged in literature, they will continue to enjoy all the genres, discovering a world of thinking.

In addition, the ability of literature teachers to lead students into the critical thinking 'world' through carefully formulated question-types would be a huge advantage. The nature of teacher-generated question-types forms the very basic of infusing critical thinking skills in the students in literature lessons. Therefore, teachers need to be aware that the quality of their question-types plays a major role in promoting and encouraging critical thinking in their literature lessons.
Table 4: Categorization of Teacher’s Question-Types

Based on the LOTPs in COGES Taxonomy

Class : Form 2B
Subject : Literature in ESL
Topic : Poetry - The 6 Napoleons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>QUESTIONS</th>
<th>LOTPs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Are you familiar with this extract?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Do you think it’s necessary for me to write down the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>questions for you?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>What time was it when it happened?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Why did Mr. Harper wake up?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Where did he go to see what it was?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Did he see anyone in the house?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>What was missing?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Where did Mr. Harper find the dead man?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Did the detectives know who the dead man was?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Did you memorize the whole chapter?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>How many questions are you able to answer?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>How many of you have already got all the answer?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Do you think I’ve been reading very fast?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>How would you like to check your answers?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Who can give me the answer for the 1st question?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>How many things can you remember? In the short</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>extract from your text, how many objects can you</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>recall?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>What are these objects?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Do we know who he was?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>How many objects?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Did you manage to get it?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Do you think you can write the message?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>How much time do you think you need?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Can you still remember the format on how to write a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>message?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Who would like to read your message aloud?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Irrelevant to the content
Table 5: Summary Table for Question-Types
Based on the LOTPs in COGAFF Taxonomy

Class : Form 2B  
Subject: Literature in ESL  
Topic : Poetry – The 6 Napoleans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LOTPs</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table four illustrates how the questions found in the texts or designed by teachers can be categorised according to their level of thought processes using the COGAFF Taxonomy. Table five shows the analysis of the questions according to their level of thought processes. Then only interpretation can be made as to whether the text is promoting critical thinking skills or not by looking at the levels of questions used in the text(s). If majority of the questions used are low order (i.e. literal and comprehension levels) then it can be assumed that the book, to a large extent, does not promote critical thinking skills. On the other hand, if majority of the questions used are of higher order types (i.e. application, analysis, synthesis, evaluative and affective) then, it can be assumed that the book is actually good for the promotion of critical thinking skills. Please be reminded that the key words suggested for each level are important cues to be considered while categorizing each question.

Unit 3 has introduced you to the important aspects of KBKK programme. The different thinking skills have been emphasized and how they can be taught to teach students to become critical and creative. COGAFF taxonomy (after Bloom's and Krathwohl's) has been discussed in details. Ways of how questions and tasks can be analysed in terms of their level of thought processes have also been discussed. You need to get familiarized with the different levels of thought processes as suggested in the taxonomy before you can use them effectively in the analysis of questions and tasks. This can only be done after using the method for several times.
UNIT 4. Planning for teaching

This unit introduces you to topics relevant for the actual ESL lessons to be carried out in classroom instructions. Topics that relate to the planning of a lesson, teaching objectives, teaching activities, factors to be considered in planning a scheme of work and other related topics will be discussed here.

Topic 1 Planning of teaching

Planning is a vital element in teaching, since the whole decision-making model is based on this skill. Cognitive learning theories recognize that the amount and rate of learning is influenced by the nature of the subject-matter itself, the way it is broken down and the order in which it is presented (Anderson and Ausubel 1965).

Ausubel (1965), Bruner (1960) and Gagne (1965) agree that control over learning can be exercised most effectively in three ways:

1. Substantively, by showing concern for the structure of a body of subject-matter.
2. Pragmatically, by employing suitable principles of ordering the sequence of subject-matter and constructing its internal logic and organization.
3. Arranging appropriate practice trials.

Specific steps in planning

The basic planning process involves:
1. Choosing the subject-matter of the lesson.
2. Finding out what the pupils already know about the subject matter you have chosen.
4. Devising instructional procedures which will help you to achieve the objectives.
5. Determining how to tell whether or not these procedures work.

Teachers seldom begin planning a lesson in a vacuum. They usually have a course syllabus (e.g. KBSM or KBKK) which is laid down by the school or an external examining body.

Topic 2 Teaching objectives

Having decided on the subject-matter of the lesson you must decide what kinds of things you want your students to learn. It is only after the formation of precise goals or specific instructional objectives that efficient learning can occur.
Sometimes you may be working from a course syllabus which clearly states its objectives. For instance, as stated in the KBKK programme, among other things its objectives are to teach students to be critical and creative thinkers, and to become good decision makers and problem solvers. As for the KBSM, its aims may include to teach students ESL so that they can engage in intelligible communication in English both verbal and in writing apart from inculcating the moral and ethical values which is geared towards developing humane and morally upright persons, who seek not only to know themselves better but also be able to contribute to the betterment and harmony of the society and the nation. As can be seen from the objectives of the KBKK and KBSM programmes, course objectives usually present long-term goals rather than the specific short-term goals which will make good instructional objectives for a lesson. However the general aims of the course as a whole usually reflect the values involved in the choice of the subject-matter and are an excellent source for effective objectives concerned with attitudes towards subject-matter.

The course aims or objectives are also usually a part of a larger set of goals, e.g. the objectives for fourth form mathematics are seen against the objectives for the mathematics curriculum of the entire school. Seeing your instructional objectives as part of a much larger set of objectives should help you understand what to expect from your pupils when they enter the class at the beginning of a session.

The second advantage of objectives found in a course syllabus is that they are not usually tied to a particular instructional materials. This leaves you free to choose appropriate materials and procedures to help you to achieve the short-term or instructional objectives for your lesson.

Stating instructional objectives

An instructional objective should state what you expect the pupils to learn as a result of your lesson and should describe how the pupils will show what they have learned. In other words, instructional objectives place emphasis on what the pupil will do, not upon what the teacher will do; they also indicate how learning is to be observed or evaluated.

For example, it is inadequate simply to state as your instructional objectives: ‘Students will learn about locomotion in aquatic animals.’ Although this states a desired learning outcome, it does not indicate how learning is to be observed or evaluated. On the other hand, it is also inadequate to state the objective in terms of a student’s activity. For example: ‘Given six aquatic animals, the pupils will work in groups observing them.’ Although this may be worthwhile activity for the students and may lead them to some outcome it is not the outcome itself. What is needed is a pupil-oriented learning outcome such as the following, e.g.: ‘Given six different aquatic animals to observe, students will report on the methods of locomotion they employ.’ This not only describes what the pupil will do, but also the conditions under which the learning will occur, so that the expected behaviour can be observed and evaluated.
Whenever you have an objective stated as a learning activity instead of a learning outcome you can convert it into an acceptable objective simply by answering the following question:

What will this activity help the pupil to be able to do?

Remember also that many good learning activities are potentially useful for helping pupils reach any one of a number of learning outcomes. Consequently, it is important that you should specify precisely what it is you want your pupils to learn from any given activity, and pupils should be told what is expected of them on completion. Learning outcomes are tied to learning focus (selective perception), which in turn is tied to specified goals and objectives.

Suppose, for example, that a teacher's lesson plan includes a class discussion about the effect of inflation on the economy. The pupils as a result might be expected to do any one of the following:

(a) to be able to describe in 1000 words the effect of inflation on the economy;
(b) to be able to define inflation;
(c) to be able to cite examples (from newspaper accounts) of the effect of inflation on the economy.

Whenever the performance expected of pupils is not clearly stated, the problem lies in the verb selected to describe that performance.

When selecting an instructional objective for use in your teaching, use a verb which describes observable actions or actions which have observable products, such as to identify, to choose, to solve, to analyse, to explain. Avoid vague unobservable verbs such as, to know, to believe, to appreciate.

There are many processes which cannot be directly observed, e.g. it is not possible to observe the thinking process of a pupil when he is solving a mathematical problem, but the teacher can examine the steps taken to arrive at the solution which will give

When using active observable verbs to frame objectives, also make the objects of these verbs describe observable end-products. If the object of any of these verbs does not describe an observable end-product, the resulting objective becomes vague and unobservable, e.g.: 'To explain the Middle East Crisis.' What is to be explained, the causes of the Middle East Crisis or the political ideologies involved? Here the problem is not the verb, but the object. Make sure that both the verbs and object are clearly defined, pointing to observable end-products.

**ACTIVITY 1**

Correct each of the following objectives by making sure both verbs and object clearly define observable actions and end-products.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Observable</th>
<th>Unobservable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To translate a paragraph from a Malay text</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To understand the theory of Behaviourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To identify four common trees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. To describe the characteristics of mammals
5. To appreciate the ‘Moonlight’ Sonata
6. To study a diagram of the circulation in a man

ACTIVITY 2

1. To learn this week’s English vocabulary.
2. To know the rules for correct punctuation.
3. To know the causes of the Civil War.
4. To understand the difference between hard- and softwoods.
5. To know Chapter 3 in your English book.

Answer key

Suggested corrections are given below. Other corrections are possible, but carefully check that verbs describe observable action or end-products of that action.

1. (a) To write the English equivalent of each French word in this week’s vocabulary.
   (b) To use each word in this week’s English vocabulary in a conversation with the teacher.
2. (a) To state the rules for correct punctuation.
   (b) To punctuate a paragraph correctly.
   (c) To correct incorrect punctuation in a given passage.
   (d) To explain each punctuation rule and write a sentence illustrating the proper application of each rule.
3. (a) To list the causes of the Civil War.
   (b) To arrange the events causing (leading up to the beginning of) the Civil War in sequential order.
4. (a) To distinguish between the hard- and softwoods in a number of given samples.
   (b) Explain the difference between hard- and softwoods.
   (c) Give six examples of trees having hardwood and six examples of softwoods.
5. (a) To recall the major facts in Chapter 3 and list them from memory.
   (b) To explain the contents of Chapter 3 to the teacher, using your own words.

ACTIVITY 3

Each of the following objectives is poorly written. (a) Identify the major problem and (b) rewrite the objective to correct that problem.

1. To show the class how to extract moisture from soil.
2. To understand the problems of developing countries.
3. To grasp the significance of the energy crisis.
4. To collect newspaper clippings about the European Economic Community (EEC).
5. To view a film on air pollution.

Answer key

1. (a) Problem: Teacher-focused learning activity.
   (b) Correction: To investigate the amount of moisture in soil. Pupils, working in
   groups of two, will carry out an experiment to measure the moisture contained
   in 100 grams of soil.
2. (a) Problem: Vague, unobservable.
   (b) Correction: To describe the problems of one developing country and discuss
   with the pupils possible solutions to these problems.
3. (a) Problem: Vague, unobservable.
   (b) Correction: To consider the sources and uses of energy. To discuss the pros
   and cons of the use of nuclear energy.
4. (a) Problem: Learning activity rather than outcome.
   (b) Correction: To list the advantages and disadvantages of EEC membership.
5. (a) Problem: Learning activity rather than outcome.
   (b) Correction: To explain in your own words the necessity for control of air
   pollution giving examples to support your argument.

Topic 3 Lesson plans

Making a lesson plan involves:

1. Deciding on the kind of things you want the pupils to learn and stating what is to
   be learned in terms of precise instructional objectives.
2. Specifying an appropriate sequence of topics and tasks.
3. Describing the teaching methods to be used to move pupils towards the learning
   objective.
4. Describing how the pupils will demonstrate what they have learned or determining
   how to tell whether or not the procedures have worked by establishing checkpoints
   to provide feedback and monitor pupils' progress.

Remember that without a plan which features objectives, an observer is likely to
misjudge the effectiveness of your classroom behaviour, e.g. a class discussion
which contains too many recall questions on the part of the teacher is likely to be
criticized unless the reason for doing so is explained. If the recall questions are
intended to be used as a device to reinforce the information contained in a lesson
which the class found difficult and are followed by a discussion in which the class
are encouraged to reflect on and apply the information they have gained, it could
be an effective strategy. But without your objectives and the strategy used to
achieve them being described your teaching performance may be misjudged. Knowledge of your plans and intent enables the supervisor to help the student analyse how well classroom behaviour corresponded to what was planned.

A guide to making a suitable lesson plan is given below.

**Lesson planning guide**

1. General headings of date, class, age of pupils, number in class, duration of lesson and subject taught.
2. General aim: Why am I teaching this?
3. Particular aim or instructional objective: Exactly what do I hope the pupils will learn as a result of this lesson?
4. Subject–matter: What am I teaching?
5. The intended structure of the lesson and how the time will be used. The form of this section will vary according to the kind of work undertaken. It should indicate:
   (a) the teacher’s work: e.g. exposition, questioning; showing of film or filmstrip; individual coaching - explaining, where possible, the kind of help it is hoped to give.
   (b) the pupil’s work: e.g. their share in planning and carrying through the work; discussion; completion of exercises or questionnaires; individual or group work.
   (c) where possible, the order in which the work is expected to progress, e.g. accompanying diagrams might show planned blackboard work and use of other visual aids, samples of exercises set, assignments, etc.
6. Materials and equipment: (a) required by teacher, (b) required by pupils.
7. Subsequent comments (to be completed as soon as possible after the lesson is over):
   (a) How far the work has developed as planned.
   (1.) particularly good aspects of the work: e.g. things in which the children showed unusual interest; marked cooperation on the part of the children; particularly useful material or equipment; outstandingly good work.
   (c) particularly bad aspects of the work: e.g. things in which the children showed very little interest; behaviour difficulties; inadequate provision of material or equipment; unforeseen difficulties; outstandingly bad work.
   (d) Assessment of the total situation, suggestions about future work, good points to be followed up, deficiencies made good, desirable modifications in original programme.

**Topic 4 Teaching activities or methods**

It is important to remember that teaching and learning are two different functions, the process of teaching being carried out by one person, while the process of learning is carried out by another. If teaching-learning processes are to work effectively there must be some connection or bridge between the teacher and the learner. Much of this book, therefore, deals with the communication skills required by teachers to become effective in making these connections. These skills primarily involve talking.

Research studies have shown that the average teacher does 70 per cent of the talking in primary and secondary classrooms (Flanders 1970; Perrott 1977). The percentage is
probably higher in some settings (e.g. higher education) and lower in others. Much of
this time is spent in presenting new concepts and information to pupils using
narration, description and explanation. This activity, which may be called the lecture-
explanation method, is teacher centred, interaction between teacher and pupils being
minimal.

Lecture and explanation techniques

In almost all lessons or learning sequences the teacher has to present information and
ideas. He has to introduce topics, summarize the main points of the learning activity
and stimulate further learning. All these activities require the use of lecture-
explanation techniques at various points in a learning sequence, but they must not take
up too much of the lesson time.

A rough guide is that lecture–explanation, without any pupil participation, should not
usually exceed 10–20 per cent of the lesson time, the time being nearer 10 per cent for
younger pupils and 20 per cent for older pupils. However, teachers frequently use
techniques which ensure that pupils do not sit passively through an entire lecture-
explanation sequence. Asking pupils questions about the lesson is an example of a
technique designed to create pupil involvement.

Discussion

Discussion consists of questions, answers and comment by both teacher and pupils.
Since it involves feedback and pupil participation one would expect it to be an
effective method of learning. This expectation is borne out by research evidence
(McKeachie 1963; Abercrombie 1971). It is a useful preliminary or follow-up to any
independent learning and it is useful in helping pupils to work out complicated
problems. Most lessons should contain some discussion.

Independent studies

These methods vary from the common situation in which each pupil carries out a
given activity independently, for example the solving of a mathematics problem or the
translation of a passage into another language, at one end of the continuum, to a
completely open-ended choice of individual activity at the other, e.g. an ‘activity’
session in a primary classroom in which objectives are hidden until the tasks are
complete. In between these two are the inquiry methods commonly used by science
teachers in which specific problems are set for investigation, bearing in mind the
resources available, but freedom in the methods of solving the problem are allowed.
Inquiry methods although often effective can be time-consuming, requiring decisions
by the teacher on the best mix of methods to use to achieve his instructional
objectives. The use of these methods require very careful planning in advance on the
part of the teacher (Perrott et al. 1977), requiring as they do arrangements for
independent study by individuals or small groups.

Gage and Berliner (1975) describe the most common teaching methods as being a
combination of lecture-explanation, discussion and individual instruction. In the
following chapters, we shall consider in greater detail the teaching skills which play
an important role in these three common teaching strategies.
Topic 5 Lesson presentation skills

Lessons which combine lecture-explanation, discussion and individual instruction require a considerable amount of verbal structuring and directing to keep classroom activities progressing smoothly. In other words the teacher assumes a role similar to that of a presenter of a radio or television programme. Regardless of the level of the pupils, the necessity of exposing pupils to new facts, concepts and principles; of explaining difficult ideas; of clarifying issues or of exploring relationships more often than not places the teacher in a position where he has to do a great deal of presenting. In order to become an effective presenter there are five skills which it is important to master. These are:
1. Set induction.
2. Closure.
3. Stimulus variation.
4. Clarity of explanation.
5. Use of examples.

Set induction

The concept of pre-instructional procedure or set comes from research on learning. This research appears to indicate that the activities which precede a learning task have an influence upon the outcome of that task and that some instructional sets promote learning better than others.

The functions of set induction

The functions of set induction are as follows:

1. To focus the student's attention on what is to be learned by gaining their interest, e.g. the teacher begins a lesson on movement in aquatic animals by introducing an aquarium containing a variety of aquatic animals into the classroom.

2. Transition set.
   A common type of set provides a smooth transition from known or already covered material to new or unknown material. This is often achieved by a question-and-answer session on the topic covered in the last lesson, providing a linkage with the next topic. Alternatively, it may use examples from pupils' general knowledge to move to new material by use of example or analogies.

3. To provide a structure or framework for the lesson. Research studies indicate that teachers can influence pupils' behaviour best when they are told in advance what is expected of them. DeCecce (1968) calls this 'the expectancy function of teachers', while Gage and Berliner (1975) speak of advance organizers. Set should attempt to create an organizing framework for the body of the lesson, e.g. supposing you wish your pupils to make detailed observations of movement in aquatic animals, to say, 'I want you all to observe the animals in the aquarium', is not only a weak set but will probably cause disruption in your classroom while all the pupils try to crowd round the aquarium. To improve your set you might extend it by saying,
'We shall be studying movement in three different aquatic animals during this lesson. First of all I shall ask you to examine one of these animals in the glass dish which will be provided for each of you and to observe its movements.'

As sufficient set is one which gives adequate preparation so that while engaged on a learning activity the pupil is able to come near to your instructional objectives.

4. To give meaning to a new concept or principle.
The introduction to an activity can also contain guides or cues which will be helpful to the pupils in understanding the lesson. For instance, appropriate use of examples and analogues can help pupils to understand abstract ideas, e.g. to begin a lesson on the principles of classification in living organisms by introducing a variety of common plants and animals into the classroom for the pupils to categorize.

Set induction is not used only at the beginning of a lesson. It may also be appropriately used during the course of a lesson. Examples of activities for which set induction is appropriate:
to begin a new unit of work to initiate a discussion to introduce an assignment to prepare for a field excursion
to prepare for a practical session in the laboratory to prepare for viewing a film or TV programme to introduce a guest speaker.

During school practice periods you will have the opportunity to observe lessons. Take this Opportunity to note the pre-instructional procedures used by placing a tally opposite the appropriate category in the guide.

Appraisal guide: Pre-instructional procedures set

1. The teacher’s method of introducing the lesson focused on the topic and engaged the pupils’ interest.

2. The teacher’s introduction provided a smooth transition from known material to new material.

3. The introduction created an organizing framework for the lesson.

4. The teacher gave cues or used materials which helped the pupils to understand the ideas explored in the body of the lesson.

ACTIVITY 4

Now take the opportunity to practise the skill of set induction yourself. Plan a short microlesson of five or ten minutes length concentrating on the introduction and arrange to give it to five or six pupils, or a few of your fellow students.

During a teaching practice period you might arrange to do this with some volunteer pupils during the lunch break or by offering to take on some small-group work for your supervising teacher. If you decide to work with some of your fellow students you
could make this a part of your lesson preparation. In either case arrange for some objective feedback. This can be most easily arranged by using an audio-recorder.

This will allow you to listen to yourself immediately after the lesson is over and to use the appraisal guide to classify your own performance. If you have been working with some of your fellow students, you might ask them to complete the appraisal guide too and then compare notes. It is also a good plan to follow the analysis of feedback by another attempt at the lesson and then evaluate it for improvement. The employment of this teach-reateach cycle allows you to put into practice what you have learned from feedback from your first attempt. If opportunity allows, you could also obtain feedback by means of a video-recorder. This would also give you valuable information about your non-verbal behaviour.

This type of practice makes it easier to concentrate on specific teaching skills than with the full class, because you are dealing only with a small group of pupils for a short time, and are receiving immediate feedback. Microteaching is a simple way to practise teaching skills in a situation of manageable proportions, and obtain objective feedback for analysis. It is analogous to the practice of scales on the piano before attempting to play a melody.

LAST FEW WORDS...

Alhamdulillah, you have come to the end of this module. It is our sincere hope that you will benefit from this module. The topics and sub-topics presented and discussed in this module are never meant to be exhaustive means of dealing with TESL Methods. You are encouraged to read more books on teaching methods so that your understanding of the subject is widened and thus become more knowledgeable and be able to practice more effective methods during your ESL classroom instructions. Hope you enjoy the sessions and...

ALL THE BEST TO ALL OF YOU!

Additional reading
For a comprehensive guide on teaching conduct:
On writing instructional objectives: