

Methodology of Teaching English

as a Foreign Language
(TEFL)

*From Theory
to Practice*

Dr. Martin Kustati, M.Pd.

**METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING ENGLISH
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (TEFL): From
Theory to Practice**

DR. MARTIN KUSTATI, M.PD

**UNIVERSITAS ISLAM NEGERI
IMAM BONJOL PADANG
2017**

PREFACE

In the name of Allah, the Al-Mighty and Most Merciful. In my humble and mortal capacity, I am forever thankful to Allah SWT for guiding me whenever I was literally and methaphorically lost.

The title of this book is “Methodology of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL): From Theory to Practice”, which will be used as students’ handbook in English Department of Tadris. Hopefully, it would give some constructive contributions especially to writer herself, and generally to the readers as well as English students who concern with the teaching and learning of English.

It is always impossible to thank every person who help me in an understanding of this magnitude. However, some accolades and acknowledgments are in order. First and foremost, I would like to express my greatest gratitude to Research Center of UIN Imam Bonjol Padang that has given me a chance to write this book. I would also like to say my special thankfulness to Associate Professor Dr. Nooreiny Maarof and Dr. hamidah Yamat for their relentless support, sincere guidance, and conviction in my potential to succesfully complete book.

In writing this book, it is not possible without a financial support from DIPA of UIN Imam Bonjol Padang 2017. Many thanks are due to my friends who help me get through sufferings, self-exploration and transformation during completion of this book. For anyone who is not specifically mention here, please acknowleged that your helps and supports are really appreciated and contributed to the quality of the book. Without all of them, I can not be embraced as the way I am personally and through this journey of academic pursuit.

Finally, the writer frankly admits making many mistakes either in materials or ways to present them; therefore, she expects some criticisms and suggestions from readers for the sake of perfecting this book. She also hopes the reader can get positive value and negative one to avoid.

Padang, 01 Mei 2017

CONTENTS

Page

Preface	ii
Contents	iii

CHAPTER I

Theories of Learning and Language Learning	1
A. Theories of Learning	1
B. Theories of Language Learning	8
C. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) Theory	13

CHAPTER II

History of Language Teaching: A Brief Overview		
A. Grammar Translation Method	21
B. Language Teaching Innovation in the 19 th Century	26
C. Reform Movement	29
D. Direct Method	30

CHAPTER III

The Role of English as a Second (ESL) or Foreign Language (EFL)	37
A. Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL)	39
B. Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)	39
C. EFL Teaching in Indonesia	43

CHAPTER IV

Traditional Teaching Methods	63
A. Audio-Lingual Method	65
B. Silent Way	72
C. Suggestopedia	76
D. Community Language Learning	80
E. Total Psychal Response Method	83

CHAPTER V

Progressive Teaching Method	89
A. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)	91
B. Studies on the Use of CLT in Teaching English as a Foreign Language	121

Chapter VI

Cooperative Learning	137
A. The Nature of cooperative Learning	137
B. The Elements and Principles of Cooperative	139

Learning	
C. Practicing Cooperative Learning145
References154
Biography180

CHAPTER I
THEORIES OF LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE
LEARNING

Cohen (2014); Cook (2013); Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden (2013) define approach as a set of theories which encompassed the theory of what language is and how language is learned and is related to second language acquisition (SLA) linked to various design features of language instructions. Richards (2005); Richards & Rodgers (2014) claim that at the level of language theory, CLT has rich, if somewhat eclectic theoretical base. Thus, the following sections will further elaborate the theories of learning and language learning, and SLA as the theoretical background to language teaching.

A. THEORIES OF LEARNING

Various learning theories have been developed to explain how people learn a language. These theories highlight variables from personal to environmental aspects that have an impact on the learning of a language such as cognitive ability, personality, attitude, motivation, identity, agency sociocultural settings as well as interactions in the learning environment. These factors are reviewed differently in the various theories of learning. Some emphasize learning as a cognitive process while others stress on the significance of the social world as a form of stimulus (as in the behaviorist's theory of learning) or as a place for

participation which facilitates learners' on-going construction of knowledge (as in social constructivist and other socio-culturally oriented theories of learning). As it is, there is very little consensus as to how best to theorize learning. Language learning theories can be seen to draw upon all of these different perspectives. In other words, there is no one way of learning one's first language (L1), second (L2), or a foreign language. Three general learning theories which underpin the approach are reviewed: namely the cognitive, interactive, and sociocultural theories of learning.

1. Cognitive learning theory

The cognitive theory of learning views learners to be active processors of information. Learning and using a rule requires learners to apply their mental powers in order to distil a workable generative rule from the mass data presented, and to analyze the situations where the application of rule would be useful or appropriate. Gass (2003) describes the cognitive process as hypothesis testing. He pointed out that rules can only be found if the risk of error is run. This implies that learning is very structured and isolated for learners' existing knowledge.

However, according to Griffiths (2004); S. Krashen, (2002); S. D. Krashen & others (1981), five

hypothesis testings (acquisition learning, monitor, natural order, input, and affective filter hypothesis) require learners to relate to their existing knowledge is because learning involves the ability to understand, anticipate, and relate new information to pre-existing mental structures. This focus on meaningful learning is derived from an attempt to make sense of the world. Learning becomes a process in which learners actively try to make sense of the data based on their existing knowledge. Learning therefore can be said to have taken place when the learners have managed to impose meaningful interpretations or pattern on the data to be processed (Jordan, 2004; Mitchell et al., 2013; Myles, 2004; Myles & Mitchell, 2004). This view implies an interactive perspective of learning.

The cognitive approaches have sought to provide insights into the role of processing mechanisms or what goes on in the minds of learners during the process of language learning in the classroom (Brown & 吳一安, 2000; Macaro, 2002). However, in real life situations, language is used for communication purposes which are determined by what, where, why, and how the language is used; that is by the pragmatic aspects of language. In other words, how a language is being used is affected by interaction factors within the social world in which

interaction in the target language takes place. Thus, the next selection discusses the interactive learning theory and its relationship to account for the process of learning.

2. Interactive learning theory

In the interactive theory of learning, learners are viewed as interactors or negotiators of meanings which leads learners to keep revising or to go back their knowledge of their language (Lantolf, 2000; Lundvall, 2010; Richard-Amato, 1988). Learners are also continuously exchanging and negotiating meanings with their interlocutors. In other words, comprehensible input is not only achieved through the process of meaning-making within the learners but also between the learners and their interlocutors. Similarly, Mitchell et al. (2013) view learners as thoroughly integrated with the environment where learners receive the language input and produces the output through their interaction with others in the environment.

According to the interactive theory, learning involves the ability to receive the language input and to produce the output through the learner's interactions with others in the environment (Lantolf, 2000; Mitchell et al., 2013). This theory, according to these scholars,

focuses on the role of environmental input where learners receive the language input and produces output through his or her interactions with others in the classroom or in the formal setting. It is important to note that this theory does not deny the role of linguistic-cognitive features in learning language. What is stressed in this theory is the role of input, interaction, and output.

The interactive approaches have sought to provide insights into the role of interaction and their contextual factors to process of the making of meanings in the classroom. In other words, the role of interaction, input, and output are comprehended for use in ongoing communication for the short-term and long-term purposes of learning.

3. Sociocultural learning theory

Sociocultural theory is another language learning theory which underpins the CLT approach. This theory, which draws heavily on the work of Vygotsky which had influenced the development of current theory (Hiep, 2007; Hu, 2002; Lantolf, 2000; Nunan, 2006), views the learners as participants in activities that require cognitive and communicative functions where they are drawn into the use of these function in ways that nurture and scaffold them. (Lantolf, 2000), drawing upon

Vygotsky's ideas, argued that language is a tool for humans to think with and make use of in their relationship or interactions with themselves, other human beings and the physical world around them. Because language is an artifact created by humans, the meaning that come with the language are therefore influenced by how humans perceive the world and by their sociocultural environment. Similarly, Norton, (2013; Toohey (2000) based on their ethnographic studies on adult and Polish adult immigrants mentioned that the sociocultural theory views the learners as the agents in language learning environment because they determine the actions to be taken in ensuring success in the language learning. Learners are also viewed as active constructors of their own learning environment which they shape through their choice of goals and operations (Mitchell et al., 2013) .

According to this theory, learning a language involves the ability to interact to with the interlocutor. This is because language is a tool for humans to think with and make use of in their relationship or interaction with themselves, or with other human beings and with the physical world around them (Lantolf, 2000). It implies that learning a language involves active participation in the practices of social communities and

in the construction of identities in relation to these communities. Benson (2013); Gibbons (2003); Hall & Walsh (2002) also succinctly state that learning is embedded within social events by learners interact between or among them including their teachers, objects, and events in the language learning environment.

Sociocultural theory has sought insights into the role of mental development in mediating interaction that unfolds in the environment where learners learn language. In this theory, communication is primarily about information exchange and meaning negotiation. Thus, learners should be active in participating in meaningful interaction in the language learning environment. This is where the sociocultural theories are linked to play an important role in the CLT approach.

B. THEORIES OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

The above theories are involved in discussing how a language is learned; either L1, L2, or another language. S. D. Krashen (1987) reserved the term language learning to describe a formal conscious attention to language system such as in situations where explicit instruction is provided such as in a school setting. He also argued that second language learning is best facilitated by emulating the conditions in which he

believed first language is learned. That is by giving plenty of exposure and comprehensible input. Formal learning practices such as explicit attention to form are seen as counterproductive as they interfere with learners' internal pre-programmed natural order for language learning.

Nonetheless, this definition of language learning has been increasingly contested by several scholars especially those against Chomsky's views. They believe that language cannot be simply seen as a system of structurally related elements, in which rules are studied in a formal setting. Language should be seen as a vehicle for the expression of meaning and social interactions, which is the social view of language learning; that language has function, semantic as well as interaction purposes. Thus, Richards & Rodgers (2014) introduced the notion of communicative competence. This has been also developed by Savignon & Wang (2003), who discussed on the use of language in the social context and on the observance of sociolinguistic norms of appropriacy.

Canale & Swain (1980) also extended Hymes' model and developed a more comprehensive set of principles of communicative competence. This detailed theory of communicative competence includes

grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competencies. As the focus of the study is on the teaching reading, these competencies should also be acquired in teaching reading. It illustrates that learning involves not only knowledge of grammar rules, but also two types of knowledge which are language use and usage. In other words, the rules of language, its use and usage are complementary and not isolated. These proposed principles that serve as a set of guidelines organize and develop the communicative approach. Savignon (1991) also noted that communicative competence characterizes the ability of language learners to interact with the texts to create meaning that it is relative, not absolute and is dependent on the cooperation of all the participants involved. Broadly speaking, communicative competence is an aspect of the learner's competence that enables him or her to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meaning interpersonally within a specific context.

This also reflects the sociolinguistic theory of language learning, that the act of communication cannot be seen basically as an exchange of linguistic messages, but rather as a social phenomenon in which the use of language plays a part. LoCastro (2013) argues that the existence of a semantic network is the linguistic

realization of pattern of behavior. He postulates that “the more we are able to expose the options in grammatical system to meaning potential in social contexts and behavioural settings, the more insight we shall gain into the nature of the language system” (Brown (2000); Holliday (1994); Rutherford (2014)). In his functional account of language use, he further mentioned that linguistics is concerned with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning are brought into focus. Similarly, in the field of ethnography of communication, Stern (1983) defines communication as the study of the individual’s communicative activity in its social setting, language becomes a sub-ordinate and integrated part of the social and situational system, which is actually a behaviour pattern. These views complement Hymes’s opinion of communicative competence, and we can only understand language if we view it as an instrument or as a communicative tool. Richards (2005); Richards & Rodgers (2014) adds that “once we accept the need to teach language as communication, we can obviously no longer think of language in terms of only sentences”. It implies that teaching language is taught does not only

require focus on the learners' linguistic competence but also on the learners' communication needs. In other words, teaching a language is not as simple as teaching a system of structurally related elements which form a rule, but rather teaching is a vehicle for the expression of meaning and social interaction. It is this idea that provides the justification for the emphasis on discourse and with action in CLT

In discussing the term language acquisition, it is important to note that these theories of language learning are strongly correlated with second language acquisition (SLA). Mitchell et al., (2013) extended S. D. Krashen (1981) theories of learning and acquisition and proposed that a subconscious process can occur in the language classroom as well as the conscious process in a naturalistic setting. In other words, learning can take place not only in a formal, planned and systematic manner such as in a classroom but also in an informal and unstructured form such as when a new language is picked up in the community.

Similarly, in discussing the term language acquisition, Block (2003); Byrnes (2005); Dykstra (2007); Mackey (2004); Ortega (2011) argued that "for most SLA researchers, there is a tendency to use the terms of acquisition interchangeably because it is in this

‘acquisition’ and ‘learning’ experiencing language learning in complex webs encompassing language acquisition, language use and language activities”. However, the reality is that the term acquisition is still widely used in discussion of second language as well as foreign language development. In line with this, as this study discusses more on the subconscious learning but do so with reference context to the way this is seen to describe a field of study, it also employs the term of SLA or FLA to understanding language development which can be seen in the following section.

C. SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION (SLA) THEORY

With regard to the theory of second or foreign language learning, the development of second language (SL) or foreign language (FL) acquisition is a trajectory of the first language acquisition; of the move from the behaviourist through innatist and cognitive to interactionist and more recently to sociocultural perspectives. These reflect the different conceptualizations of language. However, this study focuses on the cognitive and interactive theories and sociocultural development theories as these theories underpin the CLT approach in teaching reading.

The cognitive approach to SLA draws upon cognitive psychology and neurology (Mitchell et al., 2013). This is because researchers within this field believe that SLA involves a mental process, and does not focus on other social factors that may contribute to the process of learning a second or foreign language. SLA researchers examine how SL or FL learners process linguistic information and how this ability to process develops. They view SLA as related to language use, that the language is acquired as a result of the associations made during interaction in which the target language is being used. In other words, language acquisition in this view is driven by learners' communicative needs.

A second theory of SLA which seeks to accommodate the CLT approach is an interactionist perspective of SLA theory. This theory, influenced by Krashen's Input Hypotheses; expanded on the notion of comprehensible input and focuses on the role of environmental input where a second language learner receives the language input and produces the output through his or her interactions with others in the environment (Mitchell et al., 2013).

The interactionists believe that while a learner has an innate ability, interaction plays an important role

in language acquisition. According to (Lightbown & Spada, 2006), this is influenced by Vygotskiĭ, (2012) who claims that language develops as a result of the complex interplay between learners and its environment. In other words, language is developed through the learners' interaction with the people and events in their environment. Thus, drawing upon this research perspective, research in SLA or FLA has focused on observing the interaction process (Block, 2003a; Byrnes, 2005).

An alternative approach to the study of SLA which underpins the CLT approach is the socio-cultural approach, which is influenced by Vygotskian theory and theories of language socialization (Bronson & Watson-Gegeo, 2008; Duff, 2007; Gregg, 2006; Watson-Gegeo, 2004; Zuengler & Miller, 2006). In this approach, it is targeted the contexts in which language acquired is emphasized on teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction. Larsen–Freeman (2007) stated that the aim of this approach was to understand the purpose underlying interaction in order to elaborate on learning in general. This is because learners use language to participate in their daily activities. Thus, participation is viewed as both the product and process of language acquisition. Vygotsky's ideas were developed or

illustrated by SLA scholars such as Lantolf and others (Duff, 2007; Gass, 2003; Gregg, 2006; Lantolf, 2000) in attempt to account for SLA. Lantolf (2000), drawing upon Vygotsky's ideas, argued that language is a tool for humans to think with and make use of in their relationship or interactions with themselves, other human beings and the physical world around them.

Lantolf (2000) also claims that language acquisition is a mediated process. This is because language is an artifact created by humans, the meaning that comes along with the language are therefore influenced by how humans perceive the world or events around them that is by the sociocultural environment. While this mediated process might be seen as self regulated for skilled language learners, for unskilled learners, however, the process is seen to proceed with the guidance of more skilled interlocutors such as the teachers (Mitchell et al., 2013). That is, the learners need to be scaffolded in their acquisition and learning process through collaborative activities such as pair or group discussions and role play activities. These activities become the main characteristics of CLT approach in language teaching (Brown, 2002; Larsen–Freeman, 2007; Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

In the field of SLA, a theory that can be seen to draw upon the interactionist and sociocultural perspectives outlined above is Krashen's Theory of SLA (1981). This has a great influence on second language teaching practice (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). The theory consists of five hypotheses. First, the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis where Krashen makes a distinction between acquisition and learning; the former is a product of a subconscious process similar to first language acquisition while the latter is the product of a conscious process of formal instruction. Second, the Monitor Hypotheses in which learning serves as a monitor that acts in a planning, editing and correcting in SL acquisition. Third, the Natural Order Hypothesis which suggests that there is a natural order in which language is acquired or learned. Fourth, the Input Hypothesis which is the belief that a learner will improve and progress when he or she receives SL input that is one step beyond (above) his or her stage of linguistic competence. Finally, the Affective Filter Hypothesis to accounts for affective variables, such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety which may have impact to facilitate or hinder language acquisition.

The SLA theory which Krashen (1981) proposed was built upon and extended by those who

stress a greater role for interaction. For example, (Ellis, 1997; Knardahl, 2002) proposed an Interaction Hypothesis, arguing that it is a primary trigger for language acquisition. In other words, the “conversational and linguistic modifications that occur in interactions provide learners with the input they need and more opportunities to understand and use the language” (Mackey, 2004). Swan (1985; Wright, (2015) extended this further by stressing the importance of output generated from interaction to language acquisition by means of Comprehensible Output. She argues that there is a relationship between language use and language learning. The role of input, interaction and output in SLA has been further redefined and developed by (Gass, 2003) in the Input-Interaction-Output Model (IIO Model), which is, according to Block (2003b), the closest thing to a grand theory of SLA at the moment because of its ability to account for many observed phenomena in SLA or FLA.

From the above description, it can be inferred that the of development SLA has shown the move from the perspective that theory is concerned only with the learners’ innate or cognitive ability to a more interactionist understanding of SLA as a social process and to the more recent move of a sociocultural

understanding of SLA which influences the English language teaching as SL or FL.

CHAPTER II

HISTORY OF LANGUAGE TEACHING: A BRIEF OVERVIEW

Brief history to language teaching serves the experts, researchers, as well as the people who work in the field of English language teaching about the development of language teaching itself. As they will observe, many of the themes get recycled in different forms, but each time new approach, method, and technique to language teaching expand it add a slightly different perspective and expands understanding among the experts in language teaching. All of these approaches, methods, and techniques were seen to work at some point, and so none can be discounted. It is believed that every one still has its place in the area of language-teaching approaches, methods, or techniques and that are aware experienced teachers will be able to utilize all of them in an intuitive, and integrated way in their classrooms. Two main purposes to understand to understand the history of language teaching are: 1. Key to the understanding of the way things are and why they are that way, and 2. Teachers may better comprehend the forces that influence their profession. The following sections will describe the Grammar Translation Method, Language Teaching Innovation in the 19th century, Reform Movement, and Direct Methods,

A. GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD (1850s – 1950s)

The Grammar-Translation approach is one example of traditional teaching methods to teach English as a foreign or second language context. The focus of this method is on grammatical aspects such as the form and inflection of words, and a typical exercise is to translate sentences of a text from the target language to the learners' native language or vice versa (Larsen–Freeman, 2007). Reading and writing are the major skills learned and little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening. The instruction is given in the learners' mother tongue, with little active use of the target language. Vocabulary of the text is taught in the form of isolated word lists. Elaborate explanations of grammar are always provided. Grammar instruction provides the rules for putting words together; instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words. Reading of difficult texts is begun early in the course of study. Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis. Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue, and vice versa. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation (Mora, 2013).

By the characteristics GTM above, Larsen–Freeman (2007); Mora (2013) proposed useful techniques associated with GTM. They are:

1. Translation of a Literary Passage (*Translating target language to native language*).
2. Reading Comprehension Questions (*Finding information in a passage, making inferences and relating to personal experience*).
3. Antonyms/Synonyms (*Finding antonyms and synonyms for words or sets of words*).
4. Cognates (*Learning spelling/sound patterns that correspond between L1 and the target language*).
5. Deductive Application of Rule (*Understanding grammar rules and their exceptions, then applying them to new examples*).
6. Fill-in-the-blanks (*Filling in gaps in sentences with new words or items of a particular grammar type*).
7. Memorization (*Memorizing vocabulary lists, grammatical rules and grammatical paradigms*).
8. Use Words in Sentences (*Students create sentences to illustrate they know the meaning and use of new words*).
9. Composition (*Students write about a topic using the target language*).

(Brown, 2002) pointed out that this method does virtually nothing to enhance a student's communicative ability in the language. This resulted in the type of

grammar translation courses remembered with distaste by thousands of school learners, for whom foreign language learning meant a tedious experience of memorizing endless lists of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary and attempting to produce perfect translations or literary prose Richards & Rodgers (2014). It causes little use of the target language which results in learners' inability of using the target language for communication. (Richards & Rodgers, 2014) further state that Grammar-Translation approach has no advocates. It is a method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a rationale for justification for it or that attempts to relate to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory. Meanwhile, (Norland & Pruett-Said, 2006) mentioned that there are three strengths of GTM. They are: a) students who are analytical learners may need to know grammar to make sense of a language, b) students who have learned other language through GTM may find it easier to learn through this method, c) students especially older ones, may need to know some grammar to produce the language correctly.

As mentioned above, although the GTM has fallen out of favor mainly because of its inability to foster communicative ability, this method is still

commonly used in language teaching, especially in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context. Norland & Pruett-Said (2006) modified GTM to more communicative and authentic method, as they provided the English teachers with the example of the application of this method. Below is the example of GTM innovation in teaching that is possibly used in the classroom as proposed by (Norland & Pruett-Said, 2006):

1. Strategy:

- a. Teacher presents the grammatical structure or rule.
- b. Students practice of the structure
- c. Students use the structure in a holistic, authentic manner

2. Application and Example:

Topic: Teaching the Present Perfect Verb Tense

English Skill Level: Advanced Beginning to Advanced

Grade Level: Upper Elementary to Adult

- a. Students read a passage that makes use of the present perfect. Students are asked to recognize the present perfect. Students may also be asked why they think the present perfect is used in the reading.

b. The teacher then orally and visually explains the present perfect. One way to write the following on the board or overhead:

- How to make : subject + has/have + past participle

- Example:

He has done his homework over

They have visited Chicago several times.

- When to use:

- For actions that began in the past and continue in the present.

I have live in Chicago for five years

- For repeated actions.

I have seen that movie five times

- For an action that happened at an unspecified or unknown time.

She has already eaten lunch

- For an action that was just completed

Sherly and Hellen have just finished painting their house

c. Students then do exercise to practice the tense.

These exercises may be spoken or written exercises. Students may begin with exercise in which they only need to write in the correct form. Students may then do exercises practicing

adverbs that often go with the present perfect such as recently, until now, and so far. In addition, they may practice exercises that ask them to recognize the difference between the simple present and the present perfect tense.

- d. Students then do expansions and application exercises in which they practice writing or speaking about a topic that encourages them to make use of present perfect. For example, students may write or speak about places they have visited or activities they have done since coming to the country they are in now.

(Source from A Kaleidoscope of Models and Strategies for Teaching English of Other Languages by Deborah L. Norland, Ph.D and Terry. Westport. CT: Libraries Unlimited/Teacher Ideas Press. Copyright © 2006).

B. LANGUAGE TEACHING INNOVATION IN THE 19TH TO EARLY MID 20TH CENTURY

Throughout the development of English language teaching in the nineteenth century, there are some factors that influence the rejection of the GTM by many experts that has been described in the section of Grammatical-

Translation Method. Increasingly, three reformers (Marcel, Pendergast, and Gouin responded this issue and proposed new approaches to English language teaching. They worked on the way children learned languages was relevant to how adults learned languages) considered the nature about language and language learning in relation to demand for ability to speak a foreign language.

According to Richards & Rodgers (2014), in innovating the approaches and methods to language teaching, first, Hiep (2007) emphasized the importance of understanding meaning in language learning and proposed that reading was taught before other language skills. He also placed the language teaching in a broader educational framework.

Second, Celce-Murcia (2001) proposed the first structural syllabus (arranging grammatical structures so that the easiest was taught first). He also recorded his observation that children use contextual and situational cues to interpret utterances and they used memorized phrases and routines in speaking.

Last, Gouin (1831-1896) proposed painful experience in learning German, tried to memorize a German grammar book and a list of 248 irregular German verbs, and observed his three-year old nephew. He came up with the two insights: first, children use language to represent their

conceptions. He believed that second, language is a means of thinking, of representing the world to oneself. In other words, language learning was facilitated through using language to accomplish events consisting of a sequence of related actions. Gouin established schools to teach according to his methods. It was quite popular from time to time. As described by (Titone, 1968), Gouin's first lesson of a foreign language can be seen in the following Table:

I walk toward the door.	I walk.
I draw near to the door.	I draw near
I draw nearer to the door.	I draw nearer.
I get to the door	I get to.
I stop at the door.	I stop.
I stretch out my arm.	I stretch out.
I take hold of the handle.	I take hold.
I turn the handle.	I turn.
I open the door.	I open.
I pull the door.	I pull.
The door moves.	Moves.
The door turns on its hinges	Turns.
The door turns and turns.	Turns.
I open the door wide.	I open.
I let go of the handle.	Let go.

Source: (Titone, 1968)

C. THE REFORM MOVEMENT

At the end of nineteenth century, reform movement of language teaching began because English language teachers discussed the need for new approaches and methods to language in books, articles, pamphlets. This ideas was responded by several linguists such as Henry Sweet in England, Wilhelm Viotor in Germany, and Paul Passy in France who started to provide the intellectual leadership needed to give reformist ideas greater credibility and acceptance. According to Richards & Rodgers (2014), The experts sought new ideas and advocated:

1. The study of the spoken language.
2. Phonetic training.
3. The use of dialogues to introduce conversational phrases and idioms.
4. An inductive approach to the teaching of grammar.
5. Avoidance of the mother tongue.

The reform movement was followed by development of direct method that will be described in the following section.

D. DIRECT METHOD (1890s – Now)

As a reaction to the failure of the grammar-translation approach to produce learners who could use the target language in instruction, the Direct Approach was suggested. This method was posited by Charles Berlitz. Second language learning is similar to first language learning that emphasizes on oral interaction, spontaneous use of language, no translation, little if any analysis of grammatical rules and structures. The principles of this method as described by (Richards & Rodgers, 2014) are as follows:

1. Classroom instruction was conducted in the target language
2. There was an inductive approach to grammar
3. Only everyday vocabulary was taught
4. Concrete vocabulary was taught through pictures and objects
5. Abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas
6. New teaching points were introduced orally
7. Communication skills were organized around question-answer exchanges between teachers and students

8. Speech and listening comprehension were taught
9. Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized

In the implementation of this method, reading lesson, for example, begin with a dialogue using a modern conversational style in the target language. Reading material is first presented orally with actions or pictures. Mora (2013) mentioned that the mother tongue is permitted, teachers, therefore, must be native speakers or have native-like proficiency. Since the spoken is primarily in this method, learners hear the language first before seeing it in written form or a reading text. Grammar is taught inductively rules are generalized from the practice and experience with the target language. Verbs are used first and systematically conjugated only much later after some oral mastery of the target language. Advanced students read literature for comprehension and pleasure. Literary texts are not analyzed grammatically. The culture associated with the target language is also taught inductively. Culture is considered an important aspect of learning the language.

Based on the principles of the direct method above, Larsen–Freeman (2007) mentioned useful

techniques which will help English teachers in implementing this approach. They are:

1. Reading Aloud (*Students take turns reading sections of a passage, play, or dialog out loud*).
2. Question and Answer Exercise (*This exercises conducted in Target Language only*).
3. Getting Students to Self-Correct (*The teacher in this class has the students self-correct by asking them to make a choice between what they said and an alternative answer he supplied*).
4. Conversation Practice (*The teacher asks students a number of questions in the target language, which the students have to understand to be able to answer correctly*).
5. Fill-in-the-Blank Exercise (*All activities are in the target languages where students would have induced the grammar rule they need to fill in the blanks from examples and practice with earlier parts of the lessons*).
6. Dictation (*The teachers read the passage three times,- normal speed, phrase by phrase, and normal speed*).

7. Map Drawing (*Mostly this technique is used to improve students' listening comprehension*)
8. Paragraph Writing (*Teacher asks their students to write a paragraph in their own words on certain topic*).

This method, however, depended too much on the teacher's skill, and not all teachers were proficient enough in the foreign language to follow the principle of this method. As a result, direct method was difficult to implement in public secondary schools education. It overemphasized and distorted the similarities between naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language learning and failed to consider the practical realities of the classroom (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Meanwhile, Norland & Pruett-Said (2006) mentioned that there are two strengths of direct method. They are: 1). This is quick way for students to learn basic conversation skills, 2). This teaching method is helpful to teachers who do not know their students' first language.

Based on the strengths of the method, Norland & Pruett-Said (2006) modified the strategies and

application of this method in the class, as seen in the following descriptions:

1. Strategy:

- a. The teacher shows a set of pictures that often portray life in the country of target language.
- b. Teacher describes the pictures in the target language.
- c. Teacher asks questions in the target language about the picture.
- d. Students answer the questions as best they can use the target language. Pronunciation is corrected, but grammatical structure is not.
- e. Students may also read a passage in the target language.
- f. The teacher asks questions in the target language about reading.
- g. Student answer questions as best they can use the target language.

2. Applications and Example:

English Skill Level: Advanced Beginning to Advanced

Grade Level: Upper Elementary to Adult

- a. The teacher shows a picture of a beach in Florida (or the teacher uses other pictures relate to students' environment).
- b. The teacher describes the picture: "There is a beautiful beach in Miami. It is near the ocean. There are some people on the beach. They are wearing bathing suits. The woman is wearing a hat. The man is swimming. The children are building sandcastle. There is a man selling ice cream. The children want to buy some ice cream. Their father will buy them some ice cream". The teacher may also use realia and other material to help students understand vocabulary.
- c. Students are asked questions such as:
 - Where is the beach?
 - What are the people wearing?
 - What is the woman wearing?
 - What is the man doing?
 - What are the children doing?
 - What is the man selling?
 - What do the children want?
 - Who will buy the ice cream?
- d. Students give the answers. The teacher corrects pronunciation but it is not overly concerned

about grammatical correctness. The main goal is that the students are communicative.

- e. Students are then given a short reading about tourist attraction in Miami.
- f. Students are then asked about the reading.

(Source From: A Kaleidoscope of Models and Strategies for Teaching English of Other Languages by Deborah L. Norland, Ph.D and Terry. Westport. CT: Libraries Unlimited/Teacher Ideas Press. Copyright © 2006).

CHAPTER III BASIC CONCEPT OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Teaching second and foreign languages is a complex task which requires a lot of effort. However, the effort taken will often bring success, especially if a teacher persistently exerts himself or herself to make his or her students do the work. The emphasis on the use of language and the identification of purposes for which language should be taught is important because this confirms a shift from the view that language is primarily an academic study to the idea that it is a practical ability to communicate.

Pachler (2000) said that the examination of the present position and future direction of modern second

and foreign languages (SL/FL) must be set in the wider context of current understanding of the value and the purposes of education. The purposes of education in SL/FL context listed by Crookes, 1991 are: (i) to develop the ability to use language effectively for purposes of practical communication, (ii) to form a sound base of the skills, language and attitudes required for further study, work, and leisure, (iii) to offer insights into the culture and civilization of the countries where the target language is spoken, (iv) to develop an awareness of the nature of a language and learning, to provide enjoyment and intellectual stipulations, (v) to encourage positive attitudes to foreign language learning and to speakers of foreign languages and sympathetic approach to other culture and civilizations, and (vi) to promote learning of skills of more general application (e.g. analysis, memorizing, drawing of inference. These education purposes emphasize that SL or FL learning focuses on meaning rather than on form and on the ability to use language, rather than on knowledge about language. A methodology developed which emphasizes a focus on the learner by endeavoring to provide the learner with necessary language and communication skills to use language effectively and in a purposeful way (Thompson, 1996), as well as active learner

participation in pair-work and group-work around information gap or problem solving activity (Harmer 2007; Pachler & Field 1997). The following sections further elaborate on the differentiations between the acronym of ESL and EFL in language teaching, and EFL Teaching in Indonesia.

A. TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

ESL is an acronym for English as a second language. ESL is defined as the role of English for immigrant and other minority groups in English-speaking countries (Gebhard, 2006; Scovel, 2001; Sharifian, 2009). In this context, since English has a special standing, it is used both inside and outside the classroom. When English functions as a second language, that is, where it is used alongside other languages, but is commonly the most important language of education, government, or business, it is often regarded by its users as a local rather than a foreign language (Richards, 2008). Examples of an ESL situation can be seen when non-native English speakers reside in America or Australia.

B. TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

In contrast, EFL, an acronym for English as a foreign language, are defined as the role of English in countries where it is taught as a subject in schools but not used as a medium of instruction in education nor as a language of communication (Jenkins, 2014). In this context, students have fewer chances to practice English outside the classroom because English is not an official language. But it may still have a significant role to play. It may be an important school subject and it may be necessary to pass an examination in English to enter a university. It may be the language of certain courses at a university, or at least of a large percentage of the students' textbooks. It may be related for people who work in a tourism, business, and for some sections of the civil service (Richards, 2005). Countries such as Japan and China are regarded as EFL settings. The role of EFL is not an official language unlike in countries of ESL. In this situation, the language is just one of the schools' requirements or personal hobby, rather than a survival necessity. Students often learn English with

the sole purpose of passing certain examinations (Aida, 1994).

Meanwhile, according to Barwell (2003, 2005); Cameron (2002); Probyn (2001), the role of English as another language (EAL) may be a third or even fourth language for some learners rather than necessarily a second or foreign language. In this situation, the language is used to refer broadly to the study of English by speakers of other languages and is an established discipline internationally. In other words, it serves as an umbrella term for both English as a second and foreign language. From the distinction among EFL, ESL, and EAL, it can be assumed that they have the same theoretical background but they are different in the teaching and learning contexts.

In context of teaching and learning, ESL, EFL, and EAL are different as can be seen in the nature of the classroom. According to Harmer (2007; Richards (2005) teaching and learning in ESL is one grounded on the notion of communicative competence as a goal to learning, which essentially means the involvement of learners in discovering the rules of the language in a creative and autonomous manner. There is thus a desire for

teaching environments where a lot more attention is paid to active and engaging teacher-student and student-student interactive behavior. In most cases, students in an ESL environment usually do not share the same native language as their classmates, so creating friendships and interactions in and outside the classroom depends on the learning and development of the target language. While, teaching and learning in an EFL context is the one in which the students do not have ready-made contexts for communication beyond their classroom. This is because English is taught as the first foreign language and generally students in these situations have exposure to the target language only during class time (Ellis, 1991b). Meanwhile, teaching and learning in EAL context is one in which students learn English as a mainstream subject, with modern foreign language teaching, and with English as a foreign language teaching, each of which are discrete subject areas, but EAL pedagogy is applied in all areas of the curriculum. The learning of English for students with EAL occurs in subjects such as science, mathematics, humanities and the arts as with for the 'subject' English. It also takes place within informal education. Beyond the school,

it is affected by attitudes towards race and culture in a wider society. This is why teacher trainees need to understand how EAL teaching and learning takes place in their classrooms and their schools.

1. EFL TEACHING IN INDONESIA

According to (Nur, 2003), English language teaching in Indonesia started in 1950, when a choice of a foreign language (either Dutch or English) had to be made for the inclusion in school curriculum nationwide. Even though many people were familiar with Dutch, English was eventually selected as the first foreign language because Dutch was considered as the language of colonialist and it did not have international status such as English (Ibrahim, 2008; Kam, 2002; Lauder, 2010). This policy is reflected in the 1967 decree of Ministry of Education and Culture which is well-known as the Department of Education now. It became a starting point to speed up nations and development to carry out its national foreign policy.

The objective of English instruction in secondary schools as officially stated in 1967 decree focused on the development of reading skills to facilitate the transfer of science and technology knowledge. The acquisition of speaking skills was

considered to be a luxury then and also because such expertise in the young could endanger national identity. Nur (2003) states that the students need to be equipped with a working knowledge of English in order to be enable then to: (i) read textbooks and reference materials in English as such materials constitute 90% of all available reference materials, (ii) understand lectures given by foreign lecturers as part of affiliation programmes with universities abroad or to communicate with individuals and students from overseas, (iii) introduce the culture of Indonesia to an International community, and (v) communicate orally with foreign lecturers, individuals, and students in examinations and discussions. With regard to these objectives of English, the four language skills should be developed. Nonetheless, the focus of English instruction then has been on the development of reading skills with speaking skills given a low priority.

The significant change in ELT in Indonesia took place in 1984 by the adoption of the communicative approach with emphasis on the development of speaking skill. However, the priority on teaching skills remained the same in that reading is considered as the most important, then listening, writing and speaking. It was continued by the revision of curriculum in 1994.

This curriculum had three types of syllabi: (i) national content, to be implemented nationally, (ii) enrichment content, to cater the students who have mastered the national content, and (iii) local content, to satisfy the regional and local need of students.

The government then revised the 1994 curriculum into Competency-based Curriculum (CBC) 2004 and Educational Unit Curriculum (EUC) 2006 or better known as KTSP 2006. Today, the English language which is based on the current curriculum, KTSP 2006 is taught from elementary schools up to university. This subject is taught twice 45 minutes per meeting or 180 minutes in secondary schools, but it is taught twice 35 minutes in elementary schools weekly. The objective of teaching English for high schools (SMA or MA) in Indonesia is to develop communicative competence in spoken and written English, and to gain informational literary level through developing skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Being communicatively competence, learners are hoped to own the consciousness about the importance of English as one of many foreign languages, and be able to be competitive in the global era and also improve understanding of language and culture (*Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan* 2005).

The syllabus was developed to meet with the current needs of learner that reflect the social and cultural situations.

Since the implementation of CLT; its suitability in the Indonesian context has been the topic of many discussions and papers (Huda, 2016; Larson, 2014; Widiati & Cahyono, 2006). EFL teaching in Indonesia seems to face problems in its implementation. (Huda, 2016) examines aspects of teaching objectives, materials, and techniques within the Indonesian context, which, he claims does not fit CLT. He argues that the objectives of CLT are not appropriate with the objective of ELT in Indonesia. While the focus of CLT is to use the spoken English for communication in real context, ELT in Indonesia has placed emphasis on the development of reading skills. Sadtono (1997) also mentioned ELT in secondary high schools has been oriented towards developing students' reading skills. The goal of teaching reading is not suitable with what was actually happening in practice. Students are confined to restricted hours of English sessions. These sessions in part have been used for teaching of oral skills as the main thrust of CLT.

Teacher's lack of English proficiency is another obvious factor that contributes to the ongoing problems

in English Language Teaching in Indonesia, especially for rural English teachers. Some of them might not have the background in ELT, but still have to teach to fulfill the demand of teachers in the rural areas. Some of them are the product of old ELT processes which might need to be updated. Some of the ELT teacher might not have good speaking skills or grammatical knowledge, which does not seem to be at a problem as the medium of instruction used to teach English is bahasa Indonesia. The problem is their real competence is not enough to enable students to achieve the standard of communicative competence (Dardjowidjojo 2003 in (Kustati, 2013). Yuwono (2005) states other reasons for ELT hindrances are: (i) limited time allocated for teaching English, (ii) students do not have enough time to actually learn to speak English in class because the teacher is more concerned to teach grammar and syntax, (3) the absence of good and authentic learning materials, and (4) the absence of the social uses of English outside the classroom (Musthafa, 2001, 2015).

Another difficulty in the implementation of CLT is the fact that the change in curriculum and approaches (Dardjowidjojo 2000; Nur 2003) along with the challenging policies of Ministry of Education and education policy which do not always match. It is

therefore important to provide a description of the development of curriculum implemented in schools in line with the whole education system in Indonesia and the place of the CLT approach in the curriculum.

a. EFL Curriculum in Indonesia

In Indonesia, the curriculum has changed several times. The changes began with the implementation of the curriculum in 1947, and followed later in 1952, 1964, 1968, 1975, 1984, 1994, 2004, and finally in 2006. This occurred because of the changes of political, socio-cultural, economic, and science and technology changes in Indonesia. Thus, since curriculum is a set of education plan, therefore it should be developed dynamically based on the changes and demands in society.

The changes of the above curriculums were legally regulated under the Minister of Education Decree No 096/1967, stipulating English as first foreign language to be taught in higher levels of education in Indonesian (*Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa* 1984; (Alwasilah, 1997). When English was taught only in higher levels of education, the teachers used traditional methods

through translating, reading, listening and speaking. The teachers often focused on teaching grammar, imparting knowledge to students. Thus, they largely dominated the classroom during the learning and teaching process. In 1984, the Indonesian Ministry of Education introduced a new curriculum with a communicative approach that encouraged the active participation of students in their learning process. In this way, the focus of teaching was changed from an emphasis on grammar to an emphasis on its use in practice. The Indonesian curriculum changed into 1994 curriculum regulated under Law No.2/1989. The focus of this curriculum was on content. The grading system focused more on the cognitive aspects. The learner has to study in class for 40 hours every week. The syllabi used were centralized and all schools thus had the same syllabi. The focus of ELT in this curriculum was grammar and reading whereby the teachers became the source of information.

After being implemented for ten years, curriculum 1994 was changed into curriculum 2004 which was called competence-based curriculum (*Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi or KBK*) which regulated under the law No. 20/2003. In this

curriculum, the focuses were product and competence. The concepts of learning were learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be. The grading system combined the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor sides altogether. The learning hours were reduced from 40 hours to 32 hours every week although the number of subjects taught was the same as curriculum 1994. In this curriculum the government gave the freedom to teachers to create the syllabi which could fulfill the needs of local area and learners.

However, curriculum 2004 was replaced with curriculum 2006 which is well-known as *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan or KTSP*. This curriculum was developed from curriculum 2004. The schools are given the authority to design syllabus, the learning hours, the academic calendar and the standard of graduates. Moreover, more parties such as societies, parents, and school committees were involved in the syllabus design. The following sections will further discuss KTSP 2006, as recent curriculum.

b. Curriculum 2006 (*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan/ KTSP*) in High Schools

In regard with the successful of English language teaching for high school students in Indonesia, curriculum is one of the most important factors to be considered in relation to other factors such as the availability of English teachers, facilities, methodology, and so on. Thus, curriculum is used as one of the quality indicators of education. Historically, there are five curriculum revisions in elementary up to secondary levels, namely 1968, 1975, 1984, 1994, and 2004 curriculums. These revisions are intended to create suitable curriculum with the society's need and to be able to acquire scientific and new information in the global era.

The most recent practice of English language teaching at high schools in Indonesia is marked by the School-Based Curriculums (KTSP or *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan*) whereby the curriculum is created by each school so that it can develop the uniqueness of its human resources and their potency. This is the implication of the change of the policy from centralisation to decentralisation in the scope of education. This change exerts the existence of paradigm modification in developing the schools. The development which was carried out centrally is now shifted into guidance to each of the schools.

The changes happens in the strategic environments of education because of the effects of economic globalization, revolutions of information technology, as well as the change of constructional paradigm from centralisation to decentralisation have some implications to education. One of them is the assertion and even challenge to upgrade the quality of the education system's output. In Indonesia, this is measured based on a number of students who have passed a national test that is held in the country. A student allegedly makes his or her national test or is ascertained to pass the test if he or she has fulfilled some requirements that are established by the government.

The Indonesian government has its own criteria that must be fulfilled by graduate students. In addition, the most important is that they must achieve 5.25 score in average for all of the subjects in the test and no subject should be below 4.25. (*BNSP (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan) dalam Prosedur Operasi Standar (POS) Ujian Nasional SMP, MTs, SMPLB, SMA, MA, SMALB, dan SMK Tahun Pelajaran 2007/ 2008*)

One of the subjects in the test is English. Therefore, if a student is able pass the English test

and achieve the minimum score, he or she will be considered as a graduate student, who has met the Graduate Competence Standard (SKL or *Standar Kompetensi Lulusan*) of School-Based Curriculums (KTSP) in the four skills tested. One of the skills is reading, and the goal is that the students are able to identify the meanings in some short functional texts and genre (procedure, descriptive, recount, narrative, and report) accurately, fluently, and in acceptable manners.

It can be inferred that the main purpose of learning the language is communication. Communication is the manifestation form to express ideas and feelings, all sorts of texts, reflect one's own experiences and others', and participate in societies that use the language. English itself is a means of global communication. The mastery of English is expected to help the students' understanding and strengthening of the local and national culture, as well as recognising international cultures. The above overview of the development of Indonesian curriculum has shown the move from the curriculum 1947 to a more recent curriculum 2006 which is based on the CLT approach.

It is clear that the national education department of Indonesian republic has stated that English education is aimed at providing school graduates with life skills in the sense that they are expected to own the consciousness about the importance of English as a foreign language, and able to be competitive in acquiring new scientific and technological information in global era and also to improve the learners' understanding between language and culture (*Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan (BNSP) 2005*). This goal is also clearly stated in the *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (KTSP) 2006*.

The implication of the above goal is that every learner should have language competence which is well-known as communicative competence. It is the basic of communicative language teaching approach which became the foundation of knowledge and skills required for understanding patterns and fuelling the process of communication. The pedagogic principles underlying the communicative approach inserted in KTSP 2006 and 2013 Curriculum are predicated on the idea that teaching revolves around learner needs and therefore learner centred. The target language is experienced through

tasks perceived to be valued by learners because the experience leads to further use of that target language (Brumfit, 1979; Brumfit, Myles, Mitchell, Johnston, & Ford, 2005). Formal components of language are discussed within the communicative context as reading, writing, listening and speaking are skills integrated within tasks.

The curriculum sets the theory of language, the theory of learning, objectives, syllabus, activity types, and the roles of teachers, learners, and materials in line with the principles of communicative approach. The activity types for example, are arranged in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks that promote real communication between teacher and learner as well as between learner and learner. Meaningful tasks for example are important because when classrooms include opportunities for students to be actively involved and to communicate with one another, students are more able to learn from one another. Thus, the activities are set more in form of pair and group activities.

Another example is in the context of the role of teachers which are expected to plan and execute tasks that require learners to be engaged with class

members in a variety of ways to facilitate English as foreign language development. Larsen-Freeman (2000) state the role of teacher in communicative classrooms is to act as a language facilitator to learners. It implies that the teachers appropriately channel students' language curiosity and promote learners to take a more independent role in their language development (Brown, 2002). The following sections will further discuss the nature of communicative syllabi in Indonesia.

c. Communicative School Syllabus in Indonesia

It cannot be denied that language is more than simply a system of rules. It is now generally seen as a dynamic resource for creating meaning. Thus, communication is focused on an integrated process rather than a set of discrete learning outcomes. This principle is also paid great attention by syllabus designers in creating their own syllabi. This is the document which says what will be learnt.

D. Wilkins (1976; D. A. Wilkins 1976) proposed a syllabus which is suitable with the principle of communicative language teaching is the notional-functional syllabus. Thus, it will places great emphasis on helping students use the target

language in a variety of contexts and places great emphasis on learning language functions. Its primary focus is on helping learners create meaning rather than helping them develop perfectly grammatical structures or acquire native-like pronunciation. This means that successfully learning a foreign language is assessed in terms of how well learners have developed their communicative competence, which can loosely be defined as their ability to apply knowledge of both formal and sociolinguistic aspects of a language with adequate proficiency to communicate.

Littlewood (1981:53) mentions that the teachers should consider the following skills to design communicative syllabus: (i) the learner must attain as high a degree as possible of linguistic competence. That is, he must develop skills in manipulating the linguistic system, to the point where he can use it spontaneously and flexibly in his intended message, (ii) the learner must distinguish between the forms he has mastered as part of his linguistic competence, and the communicative function which they perform. In other words, items mastered as part of the linguistic system must also be understood as a part of the communicative system,

(iii) the learner must develop skills and strategies for using language to communicate meaning as effectively as possible in a concrete situation. He must learn to use feedback to judge his success, and if necessary, remedy failure by using a different language, and (iv) the learner must become aware of the social meaning of language forms. For many learners, this may not entail the ability to vary their own speech to suit different social circumstances, but rather the ability to use generally acceptable forms and avoid potentially offensive ones.

In light of the Indonesian English syllabus, the communicative syllabus has been used in 1984 until the implementation of KTSP 2006, current Indonesian school curriculum. The content of the KTSP syllabi is competency standard, basic competency, materials, learning activities, the indicator of assessment, time allocation, and learning resources. Syllabus design is based on the government regulation number 19/2005 about the national standard of education based on KTSP. The principle of syllabus development should be relevance, systematic, consistence, actual and flexible and whole. The mechanism of syllabus

development based on KTSP can be drawn in the Figure below:

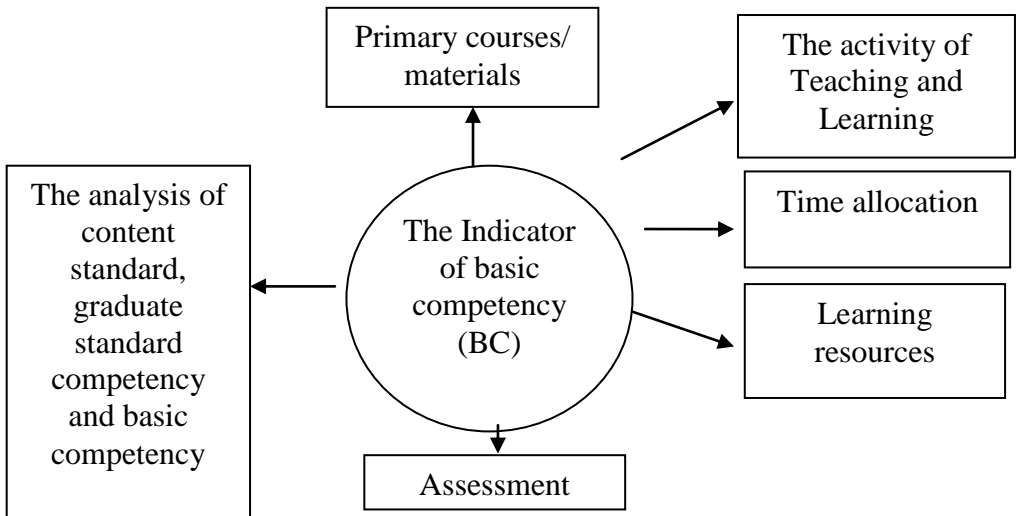


Figure 1: The mechanism of syllabus development based on KTSP 2006

Figure below shows the steps of syllabus development in KTSP which are to determine the standard competency and the basic competency, identify the primary courses and materials, develop the teaching and learning activity, formulate the indicator of graduate competence standards, determine the type of assessments, and determine learning resources.

Name of school :

Course :

Standard Competency	Basic Competency	Learning Materials	Learning Activities	Indicator	Assessment	Time Allocation	Learning Resources

Class/ Semester :

Syllabus format based on KTSP 2006

The above model should also be followed in arranging the English syllabus.

English is a tool of oral and written communication. In communication, one will understand and express his information, ideas, feeling, and develop science, technology, and culture. In the education context, students are expected to be able to have discourse competence which can be seen in the ability of four language skills; listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Thus, the English course is directed to develop the four language skills in order to improve the students discourse competence and communication in a certain literacy level and should be stated in making an English syllabus in EFL context.

In designing a syllabus, the teachers as syllabus designer should also consider the students' literacy level. There are four types of literacy level which should be acquired by students. They are performative, functional, informational and epistemic

(Ellis, 1991a; Wells, 1981). In per formative level the students are expected to write what they say or to say what is written. It is the level for elementary students. To be literate in functional level is to be able to as a member of that particular society, cope with the demand of everyday life that involves written language (Wells, 1981). In this level, the students are expected to be able to communicate or to participate in the creation of texts that serves their daily needs to entertain themselves, to read manuals, to carry out transactional exchanges and to write simple narratives, descriptive, reports and recounts. It is the literacy target for senior high school students. Next, at informational level, the students are to be able to access the accumulated knowledge because they are also expected to be able to access information for academic purposes. It is the literacy level for senior high school students. Finally, in epistemic level, the students are expected to learn daily expressions especially fixed expression and idioms that are needed in their daily communication. It is the literacy level for English department graduates at EFL contexts.

CHAPTER IV

TRADITIONAL TEACHING METHODS

The chronology of teaching methods evolved as early as the Middle Ages, the Renaissance, and the seventeenth century down to the twentieth century. The change in of practices in language teaching happened because of the quest for better methods, thought out history brings the chronology up through direct methods in the 20th century. According to (Richards & Rodgers, 2014), method refers to the notion of a systematic set of teaching practices based on a particular theory of language and language learning. The theory statements concern theories of what language are and how language is learned, which is related to SLA and designed features of language instructions.

Design features include stated objectives, syllabus, specifications, type of activities, role of teachers, learners and materials which is in turn linked to actual teaching and learning practices as observed in environments where language teaching and learning occurs. In other words, method is procedural in that theory is put into practice and in which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented. In regard with teaching reading in ESL or EFL context, the development of teaching methods has shown the move from the perspective of teaching as teacher-centered, to the view of teaching as student-centered teaching approaches and methods.

As the focus of topic on traditional approaches and methods to teach ESL or EFL students, these approaches and methods reflect that teachers dominate the class. Students are seen as passive learners during the learning process and the teachers are active in organizing systematically the structure of teaching systematically. Mastery of what is in the text is achieved through verbal communication. In teaching reading, for example, the teacher works through the text by providing a long series of questions. Biggs (2011); Brophy (2013); Jensen (2005) argued that learners are allowed little opportunity to formulate their feelings about the text and that too much of

the formulation comes directly from the teachers. In addition, students do not have the freedom to voice out their opinions regarding the text.

Hinchman (1987; Park (2005) observes that teachers' dependence on textbooks leaves little room for improvisation. The text book will instead be the learning objective while the teachers and the learners' role may be predetermined. However, if the teacher teaches the right materials with the appropriate methodology, the teacher will be able to improvise and adapt lessons relevant to the learners' needs. Rosenshine & Meister (1994) labels this approach as direct instruction or explicit teaching. For a similar approach, Calinon & Billard, (2007); Clayton, (2006) use the term active teaching while Kohlberg (1987) expository teaching is also called direct instruction. In implementing these methods, teachers expect students to master the curriculum, but not on their own learning. The basic purpose of direct instruction is to help students learn basic academic content such as mathematics and to assist the students in reading in the most efficient way.

E. AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD

While the direct method or reading approach had not dealt with language content systematically, under the influence of systematic structural linguistics and behavioral psychology, a new approach, called

Audio-lingual method was introduced and became dominant in language classrooms during the 1940s, 1950s and 1960s. Mora (2013) states that a new material is presented in the form of a dialogue. Based on the principle that language learning is habit formation, the method fosters dependence on mimicry, memorization of set phrases and over-learning. In teaching reading, great importance is given to precise native-like pronunciation. The use of the mother tongue by the teacher is permitted, but discouraged among and by the students. Successful responses are reinforced; great care is taken to prevent learner errors. There is a tendency to focus on manipulation of the target language and to disregard content and meaning.

According to Larsen–Freeman (2007), pattern practice was a basic classroom technique in the audio-lingual method. The basic tenets of audio-lingual method are: (i) language is speech, not writing, (ii) a language is a set of habit, (iii) teach the language, not about the language, (iv) a language is what a native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say, and (v) languages are different (Moulton, 1966). This approach is therefore characterized by presentation of oral language before written, extensive pattern-practice, dialogue memorization, a minimum of

explanation (Paulston, 1981) and learner errors and mistakes are strongly prevented in this approach. Structures are then sequenced and taught one at a time. Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills. Little or no grammatical explanations are provided; grammar is taught inductively. Skills are sequenced: Listening, speaking, reading and writing are developed in that order. Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in context. Teaching points are determined by contrastive analysis between L1 and L2. In addition, there is abundant use of language laboratories, tapes and visual aids including an extended pre-reading period at the beginning of the course.

By the basic tenets of audio-lingual method, Larsen-Freeman (2000) proposed selected techniques that can be adapted by English language teachers in ELT context. They are:

1. Dialog memorization (*Dialog is short conversation between two or among two people and are often used to begin conversation*).
2. Transformational drill (*teacher gives students a certain kind of sentence pattern, an affirmative sentence for example*).

3. Question-and-answer drill (*drill gives students practice with answering question. The students should answer the teacher's question very quickly*).
4. Use of minimal pairs (*teacher works with pairs of words which differ in only one sound; for example, ship/sheep*).
5. Complete dialog (*selected words are erased from a dialog students have learned*).
6. Grammar game (*game is designed to get students to practice a grammar point within a context*).

Savignon (1991); Savignon & Wang (2003) criticized and pointed out that the audio-lingual method, with its attendant testing concepts, reflects little concern for the distinction between communicative competence and linguistic competence. Savignon (1991) distinguishes between communicative competence and linguistic competence as follows:

“The linguistic competence may be defined as the mastery of the sound system and basic patterns of a language. It is typically measured by discrete point tests consisting discrete and separate of achievement in terms of the elements of language: pronunciation, grammar and

vocabulary. Communicative competence may be defined as the ability to function in a truly communicative setting-that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors” (p.8)

However, Norland & Pruett-Said, (2006) stated that there were two strengths of audio-lingual method. Controlled drills may encourage shy students to speak, and because audio-lingual lessons and drills tend to go very quickly, they may help create a sense of fluency for some students. By the strengths of this method, they proposed the innovation of audio-lingual method that possibly implemented by English teachers in the classroom.

1. Strategy

- a. The teacher orally presents a phrase to the students.
- b. Students are then asked to repeat the phrase quickly.

- c. If a student pronounces the phrase correctly and grammatically, the student is praised. Students who do not say it correctly is asked to repeat until they can say it correctly.
- d. The teacher modifies the phrase by changing a word in the phrase.
- e. Students continue with drills in which they try to say the phrase quickly and accurately with various modifications.

2. Applications and Examples

Topic: Teaching Simple Present Tense
English Skill Level: Beginning to intermediate

Grade Level: Elementary to adult

- a. The teacher presents the simple present tense form of a verb (or verbs) such as “like”.
- b. The teacher says, “I like, he likes (emphasizing the ending “s”, she likes, it likes, we like, you like.”
The teacher may also add “John likes, my mother likes.”

- c. Students repeat chorally, “I like, he likes, she likes, it likes, we like, you like, they like.”
- d. The teacher then says the sentence “I like coffee.” Then the teacher cues an individual student with the word “he.” The student is expected to respond with “He likes coffee”. If the response is incorrect, the student is corrected and asked to try again until he or she can say the sentence correctly. The teacher cues other students with other subject, so that a replacement drill occurs rapidly around the room.
- e. The teacher may then change not only the subject but also the object. For example, the teacher may say to a student, “He/tea.” The student would correctly respond, “He likes tea.” Then the teacher may give the cue, “They/parties.”
- f. The teacher might also use pictures instead of vocal cues. The teacher might then introduce the negative

by modeling it, having students repeat it, and then do a drill in which students are cued (perhaps by an upturned or down-turned or down-turned thumb) to make an affirmative or negative sentence.

(From A Kaleidoscope of Models and Strategies for Teaching English of Other Languages by Deborah L. Norland, Ph.D and Terry. Westport. CT: Libraries Unlimited/Teacher Ideas Press. Copyright © 2006).

F. SILENT WAY

As a reaction to behaviorists teaching approach, the cognitive approach (Gattegno, 2010) such as silent way was introduced. In this method, language learning is viewed as rule acquisition rather than as habit formation. Learner errors are viewed as inevitable and as evidence of the constructive learning process. Grammar is taught deductively; rules first, practice later. Reading and writing are as important as listening and speaking. The teacher is expected to have a good general proficiency in the target language as well as an ability to analyze the target language. It is a method of teaching initial reading in which sounds are coded by specific colours. His materials are copyrighted and marketed through an organization he operates called

Educational Solution Inc, in New York. This method represents Gategno's venture into the field of foreign language teaching. It is based on the premise that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom and that the learners should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible. Elements of this approach, particularly the use of colour charts and the coloured Cuisenaire rods, grew out of Gategno's previous experience as an educational designer of reading and mathematics programme.

The cognitive approach shares a great deal with other learning theories and educational philosophies. In general, the learning hypotheses underlying Gategno's work could be stated as (i) learning is facilitated if the learner discovers and creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learnt, (ii) learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical objects, and (iii) learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned (Larsen-Freeman 2000).

There are some techniques that are probably applied in the classroom by English language teachers, as proposed by Larsen-Freeman (2000). They are:

1. Sound-color chart (*the chart contains block of color, each one representing a sound in the target language*).

2. Teacher's silence (*the teacher gives just as much help as is necessary and then is silent*).
3. Peer correction (*Students are encouraged to help another student when he or she is experiencing difficult*).
4. Rods (*Rods can be used to provide visible actions or situations for any language structure, to introduce it, or to enable students to practice using it*).
5. Self-correction gestures (*the teacher puts his palm together and then moved them outwards to signal to students the need to lengthen the particular vowel they were working on*).
6. Word charts (*the teacher, and later the students, points to words on the wall charts in a sequence so that they can read aloud the sentence they have spoken*).
7. Fidel Charts (*the teacher, and later the students, points to the color-coded Fidel Charts in order that students associate the sounds of the language with their spelling*).
8. Structured feedback (*students are invited to make observation about the day's lesson and what they have learned*).

Gattegno (2010); Norland & Pruettt-Said (2006);

Richards & Rodgers (2014) mentioned some weaknesses of silent way in the actual practices. First, this method is much less revolutionary than might be expected. Working from what is a rather traditional structural and lexical syllabus, the method exemplifies many of the features that characterize more traditional methods, such as Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingualism, with a strong focus on accurate repetition of sentences modeled initially by the teacher and a movement through guided elicitation exercises to freer communication. Second, some students may need more teacher input than what is provided through this method, third, language is not learned as a whole nor is it authentic. Last, teacher must have access to materials and to the system.

Meanwhile, Norland & Pruett-Said (2006) made an innovations in Gattegno's method derive primarily from the manner in which classroom activities are organized, the indirect role the teacher is required to assume in directing and monitoring learner performance, the responsibility placed upon learners to figure out and test their hypotheses about how the language works, and the materials used to elicit and practice language. They proposed possible strategy to

implement his method, as described in the following:

Strategy

1. The teacher introduces a discrete sound or structure by pointing at Silent Way charts or by using Cuisinare rods to demonstrate a structure or grammar point.
2. Students then figure out what they are learning and reproduce the sound or structure.
3. Between activities or sessions, students may ask questions of the teacher.
4. The teacher then introduces another discrete sound or structure in the same manner.
5. Students again figure out the meaning and reproduce the sound or structure.
6. As time goes on, students are ideally able to combine discrete sounds and structures to create longer strings of language.

(From A Kaleidoscope of Models and Strategies for Teaching English of Other Languages by Deborah L. Norland, Ph.D and Terry. Westport. CT: Libraries Unlimited/Teacher Ideas Press. Copyright © 2006).

G. SUGGESTOPEDIA

Suggestopedia is a teaching method developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist, Lozanov, 2004; Lozanov & Gateva, 1988) in the 1960's. According to Richards

(2005), this method contains elements such as the use of relaxing music, art and the additional importance that is given to the learning environment as well as the authoritative behavior of the teacher. According to Lozanov & Gateva, (1988) students can re-integrate these reserves into the active personality by means of suggestion, which increases enormously the ability to learn, to remember and to integrate what they learn into their personality. He assumes that the only major linguistic problems in the language classroom are memorization of the words and patterns of the language and their integration into the students' personalities. To overcome these problems, Lozanov & Gateva (1988) proposed a dramatized texts, music, active participation in songs and games, yoga, etc,. He believed that background of music during class would create relaxed atmosphere for students to absorb their language learning.

According to Lozanov (2004), there were some theoretical components through which desuggestion and suggestion operate: They are:

1. Authority: students remember best and are influenced when information comes from an authority or teachers.

2. Infantilisation: learners may regain self-confidence in a relation of teacher-student like that of parent to child.
3. Double-Planedness: learning does not only come from direct instruction but also comes from the environment in which instruction takes places.
4. Intonation, rhythm, and concert pseudo-passiveness: varying tone and rhythm of presentation frees the instruction from boredom, and presenting linguistic material with music gets the benefit of the effect produced on body.

The theoretical components above implied that Suggestopedia is an effective comprehensible input based method with a combination of desuggestion and suggestion to achieve super-learning. It is to motivate more of students' mental potential to learn and which obtained by suggestion. According to Larsen-Freeman (2000), desuggestion means unloading the memory banks, or reserves, of unwanted or blocking memories. Suggestion then means loading the memory banks with desired and facilitating memories.

According to Lozanov (2004), learners have difficulties in learning English as a second or foreign language because of the fear of the students to make mistakes. When the learners are taught through suggestopedia, their heart and blood pressure raise. (Lozanov, 2004) believes that there is a mental block in the learners' brain (affective filter). This filter blocks the input, so the learners have difficulties to acquire language caused by their fear. In short, it provides some valuable insights into the power of cognition and creates techniques that make students feel comfortable, relaxed and suggestible to the material being learned.

To make suggestopedia principles above more meaningful, there are several techniques that the teachers can implement in their classroom. Larsen-Freeman (2000) listed them, as can be seen in the following:

1. Classroom set-up
2. Peripheral learning
3. Positive suggestion
4. Choose a new identity
5. Role play
6. First concert (active concert)
7. Second concert (passive concert)

8. Primary activation
9. Creative adaptation

In line with Larsen-Freeman's proposed techniques in suggestopedia method, Norland and Pruett-said (2006) suggested innovation strategies where this method could work efficiently in the classroom. They are:

1. Students sit in comfortable armchairs in a semicircle to create a relaxed atmosphere.
2. The teacher reads or speaks a new text in harmony with the music.
3. Students read the text that has been translated into the target language at the same time as the teacher says it in the native language.
4. There is a period of silence.
5. Next, the teacher repeats the text while the students listen but do not look at the text.
6. At the end, students silently leave the classroom.
7. Students are told to read the text quickly once before going to bed and once after getting up in their morning.

(From A Kaleidoscope of Models and Strategies for Teaching English of Other Languages by Deborah L. Norland, Ph.D and Terry. Westport. CT: Libraries Unlimited/Teacher Ideas Press. Copyright © 2006).

H. COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING

Both the cognitive approaches have, however, shown a lack of effective consideration about the language learner. As a result, the Counseling-Learning approach such as community language learning was introduced in language classrooms (Savignon, 1991). In this approach, understanding was emphasized between teacher and students, and respect is emphasized for each individual and his/her feelings. Learning a foreign language is viewed as a self-realization experience. The teacher is viewed as counselor or facilitator and should be proficient both in the target language and the students' native language. Learners bring materials to the class and communication that is meaningful to learner is emphasized in this approach.

In contrast, the Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983) and Total Physical Method (Asher, 1969) are based on the assumption that second and foreign language learning is similar to first language acquisition. In the natural approach, listening is viewed as the most important skill that will allow speaking, reading, and writing over time. That is, it emphasized that learners need to be exposed to comprehensible and meaningful speech and that they progress by being exposed to the comprehensible and meaningful input that is a little beyond their current level of competence.

In the Total Physical Respond Approach, there is a combination between information and skills through the use of the kinesthetic sensory system. This combination of skills allows the student to assimilate information and skills at a rapid rate (Larsen-Freeman 2000). As a result, this success leads to a high degree of motivation. The basic tenet is understanding the spoken language before developing the skills of speaking. In addition, imperatives are the main structures to transfer or communicate information. Furthermore, the student is not forced to speak, but is allowed an individual readiness period and allowed to spontaneously begin to speak when the student feels comfortable and confident in understanding and producing the utterances.

Norland and Pruett-Said (2006) proposed possible strategies and application of this approach in language teaching. They are;

1. Strategy:
 - a. Students sit in a small circle.
 - b. The teachers stand behind a student.
 - c. The student makes a statement or poses a question in his or her own language.
 - d. The teacher translates the statement into the language being learned.
 - e. The student repeats what the teacher said.

- f. The new phrase is recorded on a tape recorder.
- g. The procedure is repeated with other student until a short conversation is recorded.
- h. Students take a tape home or copy written conversation from board to study at home.
- i. Direct instruction of grammar and vocabulary may take place from conversation.

2. Applications and Examples:

See Norland and Pruet-Said (2006), page 12.

(From A Kaleidoscope of Models and Strategies for Teaching English of Other Languages by Deborah L. Norland, Ph.D and Terry. Westport. CT: Libraries Unlimited/Teacher Ideas Press. Copyright © 2006).

I. TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE METHOD

Total Physical Response (TPR) is one of the English teaching methods developed by Dr. James J. Asher in the 1960s and 1970s. He believed that this method attempts to center attention to encouraging learners to listen and respond to the spoken target language commands of their teachers. In other words, TPR is a method of teaching language using physical movement to react to verbal input in order to reduce student inhibitions and lower their affective filter. It allows students to react to language without thinking too much, facilitates long term retention, and reduces student anxiety and stress. In order to implement TPR

effectively, it is necessary to plan regular sessions that progress in a logical order, and to keep several principles in mind.

There are some theoretical perspectives that underpin TPR. According to Asher (1969) that cited in www.c-english.com/files/tpr.pdf, this method was based on the theories that:

1. Childhood language acquisition theories Children are exposed to huge amounts of language input before speaking. Language learners can also benefit from following this natural progression from comprehension to production, instead of the more normal situation where learners are asked to produce instantly.
2. The right brain/left brain divide The left brain can be described as logical, one-track, and cynical. It is used when analyzing, talking, discussing, etc. Most classroom activities in Japan are aimed at the left brain. The right brain is used when moving, acting, using metaphor, drawing, pointing, etc. It is targeted by sports and extra-curricular activities in Japanese schools. When language is taught by lecturing or explaining, the cynical left brain is targeted and the information is kept in short term memory (if at all). It is soon forgotten as it never becomes “real” to the

student. When language is taught actively through movement, the right brain “believes” the information and retains it, in the same way that skills such as swimming or riding a bicycle are remembered long term.

3. Lowering stress and the affective filter Students learn more when they are relaxed. This is because the affective filter, a mental barrier between the students and the information, is raised when students are nervous or uncomfortable. When the affective filter is high, learners find it harder to understand, process, and remember information. TPR helps reduce the affective filter because it is less threatening than traditional language activities. Students do not have to produce language. Mistakes are unimportant and easily (and painlessly) corrected by the teacher. Language is remembered easily and long-term. Some principles
4. Prepare a script. It is essential to prepare a script for what you want to do, as it is extremely important not to change the language half way through. It is also important to recombine previously learned language in new ways. These factors, combined with the pace necessary for successful TPR

instruction, mean that it is extremely difficult to improvise the commands.

5. Build on what has gone before TPR instruction should be seen as a progression, with new language being added to and combined with the old every session.
6. Recycle language and review extensively. On a similar note, previously learned language should be reviewed and cycled into lessons constantly in order to reinforce it.
7. Do not change the target language While it can be useful to introduce synonyms, it is extremely important that the language not be changed half-way through a session. This is extremely confusing for students.
8. Be good-natured and positive In order for students to relax and feel comfortable, during TPR practice the teacher should project a friendly and positive manner.
9. Introduce limited number of new items and manipulate them extensively It is very important to limit the number of new items in order to avoid student overload and to allow students to process and absorb the language. New and old language

should be manipulated in a variety of ways in order to give students a large amount of practice.

10. Incorporate some humor. Previously students are used to TPR practice, introducing a limited amount of humor into the class can greatly increase students interest and enjoyment.
11. Students do not speak. Students should not be forced to repeat the commands or otherwise speak until they are ready.
12. Students do not help each other students should not need help with the TPR commands, as the meaning should be obvious from context/the teachers' explanation/previously learned language. Translating commands into Japanese reverts to left brain input, and the benefits of TPR are lost. Student listening abilities are also not improved.

In relation to theoretical assumptions above, TPR is a method that assists both children and adult learners to learn English in conjunction with corresponding motor activity would reinforce the learning of words and expressions and the use of such commands would reduce anxiety level and make use of the right brain (Norland and Pruettt-Said 2006). They also proposed some possible strategies that can be implemented in language classroom. They are:

1. Strategy
 - a. The teacher gives command such as:
 - Open the door
 - Close the window
 - Touch your nose
 - Stand up
 - Sit down
 - Draw a circle
 - Draw a square
 - b. The student completes the action of the command.
 - c. If the student does the command correctly, the teacher knows that the student understands the command.
 - d. The student's understanding is reinforced by performing the action.
2. Application and Examples

See Norland and Pruett-Said (2006), page 28.

(From A Kaleidoscope of Models and Strategies for Teaching English of Other Languages by Deborah L. Norland, Ph.D and Terry. Westport. CT: Libraries Unlimited/Teacher Ideas Press. Copyright © 2006).

CHAPTER V

PROGRESSIVE TEACHING METHOD

The progressive approach or the student-centered approach is considered as one of the promising ways to support students for maximum learning as the subject matter is integrated in one lesson. The approach allows students to discover for themselves in the process of learning (Brown, 2007). Discovery learning allows students to work on their own to discover basic principle (Mayer, 2004). The process of self learning and experience is encouraging in developing a deeper understanding and in promoting higher levels of thinking.

The key difference between student-centered and teacher-centered approaches is that the former emphasizes a collaborative effort between teachers and learners (Nunan, 2006). In a traditional classroom, there are a series of steps that need to be considered in any curriculum development, as the process is more formal and rigid. The main decision about the purpose and objectives, materials and methodology are made before there is any encounter between teacher and learners. However, in a student-centered learning, learners are closely involved in determining the content of the curriculum and on how it is taught (Nunan, 1986). The major implication in student-centered learning is that the major burden in the formulation of the curriculum is placed on the teachers.

Group and discussion methods allow all levels of learners to become engaged in the learning process. The class can be formal and informal where everyone is at ease to give their response. If properly used, discussions can stimulate critical thinking. Discussion addresses both cognitive and affective objectives. The cognitive domain signals students to analyze ideas and facts from the lesson and to discover interrelationships between previously taught content. In the affective domain, discussion allows students to examine an opinion, to interact and evaluate other students' ideas, thereby developing good listening skills.

The communicative language teaching (CLT) approach has become the most and popular and progressive teaching method over 30 years since the 1970s. Savignon (1987) pointed out that CLT has been at the center of foreign and second language teaching for several decades and has been considered as one of the ideal teaching approaches all around the world by researchers, teachers, and educators associated with language teaching. It is hence obvious that CLT needs to be discussed in more detail than any other language teaching pedagogy.

J. COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

Communicative Language teaching begins with a theory of language as communication, which aims to develop learner's communicative competence. This was a notion first proposed by Dell Hymes in 1971 (Savignon, 1991) to represent the use of language in the social context and the observance of sociolinguistic norms of appropriacy. The term was used by Savignon in the early 1970s to define the focus of her classroom research. It was claimed that the goal of any language teaching programme should be the development of the learners' communicative competence, which is essential in achieving actual use of a language for communication (Savignon & Wang, 2003). It is also an approach to the [teaching](#) of second and [foreign languages](#) that emphasizes [interaction](#) as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a [language](#) (Larsen-Freeman 2000). Responding to the advent of CLT, the English teacher's role changed. He or she was no longer simply the drill leader but was also charged with providing students with opportunities for communication, in using the language to interpret and express real-life messages (Sullivan, 2000). Furthermore, this approach has caused a major revolution in the way some teachers thought about language teaching.

Galloway (1993) states that the communicative approach could be said to be the product of educators and linguists who had grown dissatisfied with the audio-lingual and grammar-translation methods of foreign language instruction. They felt that students were not learning enough realistic, whole language. They did not know how to communicate using appropriate social language, gestures, or expressions; in brief, they were at a loss to communicate in the culture of the language studied. Interest in and development of communicative-style teaching mushroomed in the 1970s; authentic language use and classroom exchanges where students engaged in real communication with one another became quite popular.

Richards & Rodgers (2014) identify CLT as an approach which provides theories on the nature of language and learning, differentiating it from methodology which emphasizes the study of the nature of language skills and procedures for teaching them. This definition implies that communicative language teaching is best considered an approach rather than a method. Thus although a reasonable degree of theoretical consistency can be discerned at the levels of language and learning theory, at the levels of design and procedure there is much greater room for individual

interpretation and variation than most methods permit. It could be that one version among the various proposals for syllabuses model, exercise types, and classroom activities may gain wider approval in the future.

The concept of CLT has gained prominence in language pedagogy through the work of (Savignon, 1991). Berns (2013) commented that Savignon's main view of language is meaning making. It implies that the implementation of the CLT should focus on meaning which provide the students with motivation to communicate and the experience of communication. (Larsen–Freeman, 2007) states that communication is a process. It is insufficient for students to simply have knowledge of target language forms, meanings and functions. Students must be able to implement this knowledge in negotiating the meaning. It is via interaction between reader and author or speaker and listener that make meaning becomes clear. Littlewood (2007) added that a necessary aspect of communication skill is the ability to find language which will convey an intended meaning effectively in a specific situation.

Kamiya (2006); Wu (2010) provide a list of six characteristics of the CLT approach: 1) a focus on

communicative function; 2). A focus on meaning tasks rather than on language per se (eg, grammar or vocabulary study; 3) efforts to make tasks and language relevant to a target group of learners through analysis of genuine, realistic situations; 4) the use of authentic, from life materials; 5) the use of group activities; and 6) the attempt to create a secure, non-threatening atmosphere. Although this definition is characterized concisely, it is also a necessary clarification of the expected roles of teachers and students. In order to bring about effective and efficient language teaching, teachers are required to take into account and analyze the reality which holds various kinds of aspects such as learners' attitude, language levels, circumstances, expectations and goals. There is no doubt that it has been hailed as a revolution and adopted globally {Citation}.

CLT is usually characterized as a broad approach to teaching, rather than as a teaching method with a clearly defined set of classroom practices. Thus, it becomes a fashionable term to cover a variety of developments in syllabus design, teaching materials and, to a lesser extent, in the methodology of teaching foreign language, especially relating to the listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills . Consequently,

teaching reading will also be stressed on the interactive reading process involving features of teachers, readers, texts, and tasks (Brumfit, 1979). Then, Savignon (1991) sees the identification of learner communicative goals as the first step in the development of teaching programme that involves learners as active participants in the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning. It is the act of communication in most settings of language learning practice.

Thus, CLT itself focuses primarily on teaching the meaning, functionality and use of language in a learner-centered manner utilizing real-life tasks, situations and roles in order to develop learners' communicative proficiency in English. So that, the activities presented should be authentic, which mean that the activities reflect real life situations. In CLT, the role of the teachers is as facilitators, initiators, and encouragers and also as group process managers (Larsen–Freeman, 2007). In other words, the activity is less teacher-centered, and so it is the teacher's responsibility to organize the classroom as a setting for communication and communication activities.

From a student centeredness perspectives, the CLT approach features low profile teacher roles,

frequent pair work or small group problem solving, students responding to authentic samples of English, extended exchanges on high interest topics, and the integration of the four basic skills, namely speaking, listening, reading, and writing (Celce-Murcia, 2001). The CLT approach discourages extensive teacher-controlled drills, quizzing of memorised materials, and extended commentary on forms of English.

The implementation of CLT in the EFL classroom emphasizes and focuses on the fluent selection of appropriate utterances in communication instead of the production of accurate but isolated utterances. The learners are concerned with language use rather than usage. This concern will distinguish CLT from the structural approach, the ultimate aim of which is structural competence. After all, the development of CLT began with the concern for communication as a meaning-based activity and with the role of functions or uses of language in the expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning (Berns, 2013; Larsen–Freeman, 2007). Berns (2013) also summarized that CLT is found on an understanding of the nature of communication from context to context. Since it draws on the functional approach to linguistics, for its theoretical perspective on language, language

use, and language development, the function and use refer not only to function in the sense of apologising or describing but also to the ideational, interpersonal, and textual function of language.

Based on the above description, CLT presents a new way of language teaching that distinguishes itself from traditional methods. The aim of CLT is to foster the learners' communicative ability, which focuses on meaning and linguistic forms in context. This is carried out indirectly, for example, through reading and listening to meaningful, comprehensible language input. On the other hand, the goals of traditional methods such as GTM and Audiolingual methods are to teach learners structural or grammatical competence and to provide him or her with pattern drills and rote memorisation of isolated sentences and contrived dialogues so as to prevent the learners from producing incorrect language forms.

The outcome of the above effort became the proposal for CLT, which is now used in many countries all over the world, including Indonesia. Language is no longer seen as abstract grammatical rules, but of having applications in social contexts and as such it is not just about grammar, but also about functions and notions. It

represents a reaction against the traditional approaches that have been surviving for the last forty years.

Based on the description above, there are some key differences between traditional teaching and progressive teaching methods (CLT approach). They are summarized in the Table below.

The Differences between Traditional Methods and Communicative Language Teaching Approach

Traditional Methods	Communicative Language Teaching Approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Teacher –centered• Grammar-focused• Rote-memorisation• Non-authentic materials• Explicit and immediate error correction• Teacher as authority figure• Students as tabula rasa• Language in isolation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Learner-centered• Meaning-focused• Meaningful tasks• Authentic materials• Tolerance of error• Teacher as facilitator• Students as negotiator• Language in context

From the Table above, it can be inferred that between traditional teaching methods and communicative approach, the key difference is in the terms of the collaborative effort between teachers and students (Nunan, 1986).

1. The Elements of Communicative Language Teaching Approach

CLT is usually characterized as a broad approach to teaching, rather than as a teaching method with a clearly defined set of classroom practices (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Current communicative language teaching theory and practice, thus, draws on a number of different educational paradigms and traditions. And since it draws on a number of diverse sources, there is no single or agreed upon set of practices that characterize current communicative language teaching. Rather, communicative language teaching today refers to a set of generally agreed upon principles that can be applied in different ways, depending on the teaching context, the age of the learners, their level and learning goals and so on. As such, it is most often defined as a list of general principles or elements.

The elements of CLT itself can be inferred from communicative teaching practices. According to Richards & Rodgers (2014), there are three elements of CLT. One such element might be described as the communicative principle. The first

element is activities which involve real communication and promote learning. A second element is the task principle. This principle forms the activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks to promote learning (Johnson, 2004). A third element is the meaningfulness principle which states language is a system for the expression of meaning (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Belchamber (2007) describes four elements of CLT. They are communication according to ability, accuracy as well as fluency, promoting learning, and motivation. Communication according to ability means to challenge the future relevance of CLT. Firstly, the label implies a focus on communication and some might argue that this method cannot be employed genuinely with low levels as there is no authentic communication, due to limited vocabulary and restricted range of functions. Initially, many of a learner's utterances are very formulaic. As an aside, consider just what percentage of our own English expressions is unique, and how often do we rely on a set phrase; just because it is delivered unconsciously and with natural intonation does not make it original. The aim is that the length and complexity of exchanges

and confident delivery will grow with the student's language ability. With the emphasis on communication, there is also the implication that spoken exchanges should be authentic and meaningful; detractors claim that the artificial nature of classroom-based (i.e. teacher-created) interactions makes CLT an oxymoron. Nevertheless, a proficient teacher will provide a context so that class interactions are realistic and meaningful but with the support needed to assist students to generate the target language.

The second element of CLT is accuracy as well as fluency. It argues that the extent of some of the structures or functions may never be used in real life. One example is adjective order. This is very unnatural, as most times an English teacher should only combine two or three adjectives. The other example is directions. The English teachers have students follow a map and negotiate exhaustive directions which suggest maze-like complexity. In reality, most of them are probably are only involved in a three-phase set of directions. In fact, what they are doing with these exercises is exposing students to patterns which they can later activate. This focus on accuracy versus fluency is one of the issues not

often considered in a discussion of CLT. The teachers decide to pay attention to one or the other end of this band, depending on the type of lesson, or the stage of a particular lesson, and accuracy is their choice if they want to deal with students getting things right, take an opportunity for correction, or gauge the success of their teaching, for example. Freer speaking involves more choice, therefore more ambiguity, and less teacher intervention. While CLT implies the lessons are more student-centered, this does not mean they are un-structured. The teacher has an important role in the process, and that is setting up activities so that communication actually happens. There is a lot of preparation; accuracy practice is the bridge to a fluency activity. By implication, CLT involves equipping students with vocabulary, structures and functions, as well as strategies, to enable them to interact successfully.

Promoting learning is, then, the third element of CLT. This element which maintains the dichotomy between learning and acquisition, and who argues that the teachers' primary focus is learners and this makes CLT still relevant. It is timely to review an early definition of CLT.

According to Richards and Rodgers (2014), CLT is basically about promoting learning. Then again, (Littlewood, 2007) suggests that the teachers follow Halliday's lead and discard the distinction between learning and acquisition, and refer to language mastery instead. After all, if the students master the language, they will certainly be able to perform better in exams, if that is their goal. In addition, those who do see a purpose beyond classroom-related English will be better equipped for using the language socially.

The fourth element is motivation. It relates to engaging students, but also includes confidence building. If there is a climate of trust and support in the classroom, then students are more likely to contribute. One way of developing this is to allow peer-checking of answers before open-class checking occurs. Another way is to include an opportunity for students to discuss a topic in small groups before there is any expectation for them to speak in front of the whole class. (Doman, 2005) suggests that "The need for ongoing negotiation during interaction increases the learners' overt participation...". It is this involvement the teachers need to harness and build on. If they consider an

activity to be irrelevant or not engaging enough, there are many other tasks which may be more appropriate, such as surveys, using a stimulus picture and prompt questions (Who... Where... When...What...), or a series of pictures which need to be sequenced before a story is discussed. In this respect, CLT addresses another area which constantly challenges teachers, the mixed-ability class. When the lesson progresses to a freer-speaking activity, students can contribute according to their ability and confidence. So there is a challenge for the more capable students, while those with an average ability still feel their effort is valid. This compares with the less creative opportunities offered by some textbooks, where students read a dialogue, perhaps doing a substitution activity, for example. A basic responsibility is considering and responding to the needs of our students, so if the course book is inadequate, then the following steps need to be employed: select, adapt, reject and supplement. Moreover, because each class we teach has its own characteristics and needs, CLT will vary each time we employ it. The four elements of CLT above have emphasized that in practical terms, the English teachers should do a lot on assisting mixed-

ability classes, aiding motivation, leading from a focus on form to one of fluency, and supporting learning. Nunan (1986) describes briefly the elements of CLT approach in Table below.

Table The elements of the communicative language teaching approach

Elements of CLT Approach		Description
Theory of Language	of	Language is a system for the expression of meaning; primary function- interaction and communication
Theory of Learning	of	Activities involving real communication; carrying out meaningful tasks; using language which is meaningful to the learner promote learning
Objectives		Objectives will reflect the needs of the learner; they will include functional skills as well as linguistic objectives
Syllabus		Will include some or all the following: structure functions, notions, themes, tasks. Ordering will be guided by learner's needs
Activity Types		Engage learners in communication, involve processes such as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction
Learner Roles		Learner as negotiator, interactor, giving as well as

Teacher Roles	taking Facilitator of the communication process, participants' tasks, and texts; needs analyst, counselor, process manager
Roles of Materials	Primary role in promoting communicative language use; task-based materials; authentic

From the Table 2.2, It can be concluded that the elements of the CLT approach are (i) an emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language, (ii) the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation, (iii) the provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the learning management, (iv) an enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning, and (v) an attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom, These elements and principles of CLT approach are supported by practitioners of CLT to show that they are very interested in the needs and desires of their learners as well as the connection between the language as it is taught in their class and as it used outside the classroom. Under this broad umbrella definition, any teaching practice that helps students

develop their communicative competence in an authentic context is deemed an acceptable and beneficial form of instruction. Thus in the classroom CLT often takes the form of pair and group work requiring negotiation and cooperation between learners, fluency-based activities that encourage learners to develop their confidence, role-plays in which students practice and develop language functions, as well as judicious use of grammar and pronunciation focused activities.

Based on the previous discussion, it can be suggested that the CLT approach mainly focuses on: (i) meaning, resulting in language lessons involving communicative functions, (ii) the use of authentic materials, (iii) learner-centered and experience-based views of L2 learning, (iv) meaningful tasks in which learners play a role of negotiators of messages rather than on linguistics items, and (v) the use of pair and group activities carried out in a learner-friendly atmosphere. In short, CLT is focused on communication both as a process and as the primarily goals in both second and foreign language learning.

2. Communicative Competence

Hymes (1972), a sociolinguist, was convinced that Chomsky's (1969) notion of competence was too limited. He defines the notion of communicative competence as what the speaker needs to know to communicate effectively in culturally significant setting. It also refers to a competence as in knowing when to speak, when not, as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, and in what manner. According to Hymes, understanding and producing the social meaning of language is equally important as knowledge of grammatical rules for understanding and producing the referential meaning of language. Similarly, Savignon (1991) notes that communicative competence is relative, not absolute, and depends on the cooperation of all participants involved. It is not so much an intrapersonal construct as in Chomsky's idea on linguistic and communicative competencies, but rather a dynamic, interpersonal construct that can only be examined by means of the overt performance of two or more learners in the process of negotiating meanings.

Research on communicative competence distinguishes between linguistic and communicative competence to highlight the difference between knowledge about language forms and knowledge that enables a person to communicate functionally and interactively (Paulston, 1985). In similar vein, (Cummins, 2008) proposed the distinction between BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) and CALP (Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency). BICS are language skills needed in social situations. It is the day-to-day language needed to interact socially with other people. English language learners employ BICS skills when they are on the playground, in the lunch room, on the school bus, at parties, playing sports and talking on the telephone (Brown 2001). Social interactions are usually context-embedded. It occurs when there is much contextual support in the classroom, and especially in the street and at home. In face-to-face conversations (verbal language), for instance, nonverbal features like gestures, body movement, and facial expressions all convey meaning and aid understanding. Due to

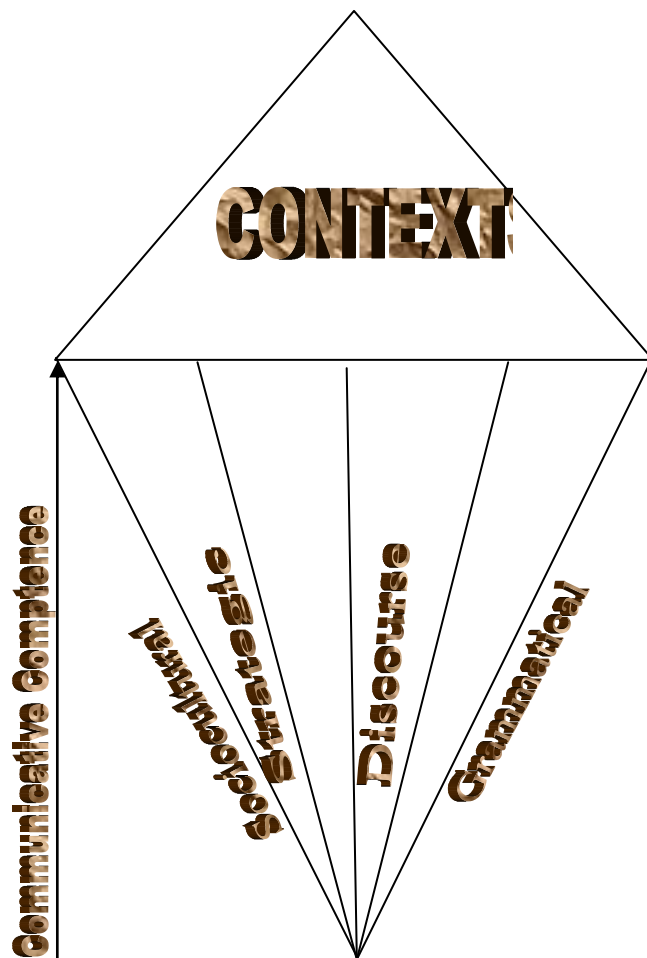
contextual support, a second language is more easily acquired in this 'context-embedded' situation. However, a student's good performance in BICS is not a predictor for her or his success in schools. CALP, on the other hand, is that dimension of proficiency in which the learner manipulates or reflects upon the surface features of language outside the immediate interpersonal context. It is what learners often use in classroom exercises and tests that focus on form. To develop CALP, learners must be provided with many opportunities to observe, listen to, and speak about content area concepts in real life situations. In addition, students need to master reading and writing using CALP. Thus, it can be assumed that ESL or EFL learners are hoped to have both knowledge of BICS and CALP. This is because there is no value in CALP language development if learners do not know the language for social interaction.

Seminal work on defining communicative competence was carried out by language educationist Dubin (1989), who asserted that communicative competence has at least two meanings. She argued that the

autonomous meaning of communicative competence entailed an idealized speaker-hearer's socio-culturally neutral ability to communicate. Dubin contends that this meaning of communicative competence leans towards Chomsky's linguistic competence, which is narrow and reductionist. In contrast, according to Dubin (1989), the ideological meaning of communicative competence signifies what Hymes elaborated on in an attempt to separate it from Chomsky's linguistic competence. In other words, the ideological meaning is a broad definition incorporating the socio-cultural aspects of language. In the present study, the analysis of EFL or ESL teachers' conceptualization of communicative competence is informed by the categorization put forward by Dubin (1989).

Placing linguistic competence into a larger construct of communicative competence, (Berns, 2013; Hymes, 1972; Richards & Rodgers, 2014; Savignon, 1991) support the idea and discuss the hypothetical integration of four components communicative competence which was developed by (Canale & Swain,

1980) as: grammatical competence, sociolinguistics competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. It can be drawn in the ‘inverted pyramid’ classroom model proposed by Savignon (1991) in Figure.



Components of Communicative Competence

Source: (Savignon, 1991)

Pyramid shows how, through practice and experience in a wide range of communicative context and event, the learners of language should expand their knowledge gradually. All the four competences are interrelated. They can be measured in isolation and cannot go from one component to the other as one strings beads to make a necklace (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Thus, an increase in one component interacts with other components to produce a correspondence in overall communicative competences.

Savignon (1991) described a detailed interpretation of the four communicative competences. In her view, grammatical competence is equal to linguistic competence in its restricted sense. It is the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactic and phonological features of language and to make use these features to interpret and form words and sentences. This competence relates to the use of rules in interpretation, expression, or

negotiation of meaning. It is not linked to any single theory of grammar and does not include the ability to state rules of usage.

Sociolinguistic competence involves understanding sociocultural rules of appropriateness in language use. It is the knowledge of the rules of interaction: turn taking, appropriate use of first names, appropriate formula for apologizing, and appropriate greetings. This competence requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used. The social context includes the role of participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction. Thus, second language or foreign language learners need to know not only what to say and how to say it in certain situations, but also when to remain silent. Cultural awareness is also very important to develop the learners' sociolinguistic competence because multicultural learners are sensitive not only to the cultural meanings attached to language itself, but also to social conventions concerning language use, such as turn-taking, appropriacy of content, nonverbal language and

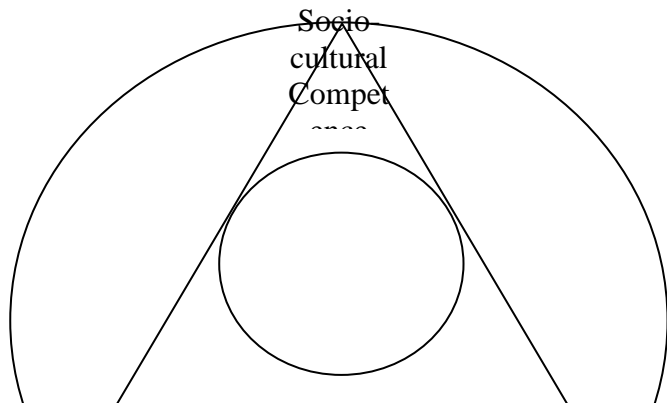
tone of voice. These conventions influence how messages are interpreted.

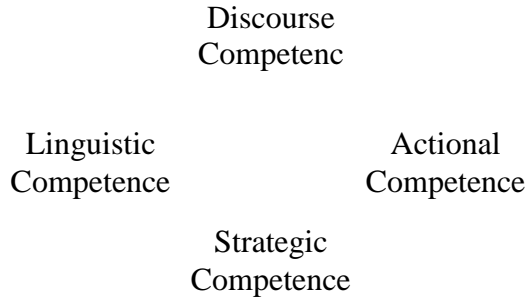
Since the relation between sentences and utterances are not overtly expressed, discourse competence becomes very important. This competence is the knowledge of the rules of cohesion and coherence across sentences and utterances. The rule of coherence is the relation of all sentences or utterances in a text to a single global proposition. The establishment of a global meaning, or topic, for a text is an integral part of both expression and interpretation and makes possible the interpretation of individual sentences that make up the text. Then, the rule of cohesion is a local connection or structural link between individual sentences. Identification of isolated sounds or words contributes to interpretation of the overall meaning of the text. This is known as bottom-up processing. On the other hand, understanding of the theme or purpose of the text helps in the interpretation of isolated sounds or words. This is known as top-down processing. Both bottom-up and top-down processing are important in communicative competence. Halliday & Hasan (1976) are well-

known for their identification of various cohesive devices used in English, and their work has influenced teacher education materials for ESL or EFL.

Another necessary component of communicative competence is strategic competence. It is the ability to use the strategies to compensate an imperfect communication such as repetition, avoidance, guessing, or shifts in register and style in sustaining communication. Thus, this competence is important to constraint the communication due to imperfect knowledge of rules or limiting factors in their application.

In line with Savignon's communicative model, Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1995) also proposed a communicative competence model which is rather similar with Savignon. They added actional competence. The model is shown in the following Figure.





Communicative competence model

Source: Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, Turrell (1995:10)

The above figure shows that the primary competence in language is discourse. That is a language learner communicates orally or in writing, he or she is involved in a discourse. A discourse is a communication event which is influenced by the topic being communicated. According to (McCarthy & Carter, 2001), if a language learner uses his/ her discourse competence, he or she uses a set of strategy and procedure to represent language components and grammar. Discourse competence can be gained by the language learner if he or she can reach other supporting competences such as linguistic, actional, sociocultural, and strategic competence. This model is used to improve

English language learning in Indonesia. It is contained the curriculum 2004 (National Education Department 2003).

In developing communicative competence, the classroom techniques put more emphasis on the 'use' than 'usage'. Usage then is one aspect of performance, that aspect which makes evident the aspect to which the language user demonstrates his knowledge of linguistic rules. Use is another aspect of performance: that which makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his linguistics rules for effective communication (Johnson, 2004; Littlewood, 2007).

Richards (2008) asserts that communicative competence includes the following aspects of language knowledge: (i) knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions, (ii) knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants (e.g. knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication), (iii)

knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g. narratives, reports, interviews, conversations), and (iv) knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one's language knowledge (e.g. through using different kinds of communication strategies).

Having studied the various definitions of the term communicative competence, it can be inferred that communicative competence concerns the question of how and whether one gets it right when one transfers a message to others, regardless of whether it is in terms of abstract syntactic theory (Chomsky 1965) or in terms of social interaction (Hymes 1972). Communicative competence is also viewed as a fundamental basis for actual communication or performance. These knowledge and skills are shared by the groups, although room exists for differences in the degree of knowledge and skills individual obtained. To be a communicatively competent speaker, the speaker needs to have at least the receptive dimension of communicative competence encompasses both the verbal and non verbal

codes of communication as well as realization that there is a variety of language uses among individuals.

Based on the description of communicative competence above, it can be concluded that Indonesian English teachers should consider the following factors in teaching English. They are: (i) students are expected to interact with other students in order to communicate in the target language (Larsen-Freeman 2000; Richards & Rodgers 2014). It implies that tasks should include pair work, and the activities such as role plays, language games and problem solving tasks are encouraged, (ii) the role of teacher is that of facilitator in communication (Larsen-Freeman 2000; Richards & Rodgers 2014). It implies that the amount of teachers talking time should not be a barrier for students for in using the target language (iii) fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal (Richards & Rodger 2014). It means that the teacher her or himself should be a fluent English speaker, (iv) students should be given enough opportunities to get to know the authentic language (Larsen-Freeman 2000). It

means that the authentic materials are very important in an English classroom, (v) the role of the students' native language should be minimal (Larsen-Freeman 2000). It means that English should be used most of the time, and (vi) non-technical and technical media are important tools for language learning and teaching for carrying out language tasks (Brinton 2001). It means that both non-technical media which include whiteboard, posters, maps, pictures, or photos and technical media which include tape recorder, CD, Video, DVD player, and overhead projector should be used. These conclusions have tended to focus on the importance CLT approach in ELT. Nevertheless, some studies can also be seen to draw upon the advantages and disadvantages of this approach.

K. STUDIES ON THE USE OF THE CLT APPROACH IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

A number of reports in the study of CLT approach advocated the adoption of CLT in EFL countries. Kenny & Savage (2000) found that professors at the Centre for Language and Educational Technology, Asian Institute of Technology (AIT),

Bangkok, Thailand, implemented CLT approach to teach AIT students and also use this approach for in-service training of primary schools teachers in Southeast Asia: Laos, Indonesia, Vietnam, Cambodia, Thailand, and other ESL countries. They found a positive impact on the students' and teachers' performances when CLT is implemented in such courses and trainings.

Fotos & Ellis (1991), professors of English and applied linguistics in Japan, studied the use of grammar consciousness-raising tasks as possible methods for the development of knowledge of problematic grammar structure through communicative activities. Finding from Ayatollah Razmjoo & Riazi (2006) also reported a positive effect of CLT in EFL context. They found that Iranian high schools and institute teachers' attitude toward CLT are positive, indicating a welcoming atmosphere toward the implementation of CLT approach.

Although there are many advantages to implement a communicative approach in Asian EFL contexts, there remains a strong rationale challenges for pursuing CLT methodology. Based on the studies conducted by experts in language teaching

methodology, they are caused by the constraints administrative factors, EFL contextual factors, and cultural factors. The following Table 2.3 lays out difficulties encountered in Asian English classrooms reported in the previous studies.

The studies on the difficulties in the Implementation of the CLT approach in EFL Contexts

	Burnaby & Sun (1989)	Rao (2002)	LoCastro (1996)	Li (1998)	Sakui & Geiss (1998)	Sato (2002)	Deckert (2005)	Butler (2005)	Chuang and Huang (2009)	Sato & Kliensaecker (1999)
ADMINISTRATIVE FACTORS										
	Teacher Insufficient Communicative Competence/Teacher Preparation									
language proficiency	V	V		V	V	V	V	V	V	V
Sociolinguistic Competence	V	V		V						
Pre-service Training				V				V		
In-service training				V		V				
	Time, Resource, Support, and Class Concerns									
Material Development	V			V		V				
Large Classes	V	V		V		V				V
Fixed curr.	V	V								
Funding facilities	V			V						V
Colleague		V		V			V	V		V

Repetition										
------------	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Table 2.2 shows that there are three main hindrances that cause CLT can not be implemented properly in EFL contexts. First, it is caused by administrative factors where government often does not prepare administratively before incorporating the policy into education system. Problems such as insufficient teacher training, large classes, fixed schedules, prescribed textbooks, insufficient funding and resources, grammar-based exams, lack of assessing instruments, and heterogeneous grouping are factors that need to be dealt with in the school administration and the educational system. Second, contextual factors influence the implementation of CLT because this approach was originally designed for ESL contexts. The differences between ESL and EFL are reflected in such factors as lack of authentic materials, students' low English proficiency, students' lack of motivation, students' resistance because of low valuing of English, the conflict of using English only in instruction, and the conflict of doing grammar explanation and error correction. Third, it is influenced by cultural factors because in EFL contexts, students do not have much exposure to the target language because they do not need to use this language to survive or simply because

they do not have access. Although the internet website provides easier access to English, EFL learners' ability might not be advanced enough to do self-learning without teachers' guidance. Majority of their language learning still occurs in language classrooms only. In order to help EFL learners understand the linguistic system, a certain degree of focus on form and repetition is indispensable although CLT prioritizes fluency over accuracy.

The above factors can be seen in the study conducted by (Li, 1998), for example, reported that South Korean secondary school English teachers had difficulties adopting curricular innovations prompted by the adoption of CLT. The constraints are caused by the teachers' lack of strategic and sociolinguistic competencies in English, lack of training in CLT, few opportunities for training CLT, deficiency in spoken English, misconceptions about CLT, and little time and expertise for developing communicative materials. In addition, Sato & Kleinsasser (1999) showed that Japanese LOTE teachers in Australia believed that CLT (a) emphasised communication in the L2, (b) relied heavily on speaking and listening skills, (c) involved little grammar teaching, (d) used time-consuming

activities. They revealed the teachers' reluctance to implement either interactive or innovative practices.

Other studies found that little time and expertise on the teaching materials are a major obstacle in implementing CLT. Deckert (2004), for example, found that the most frequent obstacle to CLT in EFL classroom is excessive talk on the part of the teacher. This teacher tendency possibly rests upon teachers' own contrary beliefs about how language learning takes place. There may be failure to appreciate the way CLT methodology aims to track the known processes of second language acquisition. Alternatively, excessive teacher talk may simply be the reassertion of old habits that resist change in spite of teacher acknowledgements about the value of CLT activities. Conceivably, lack of preparation time may lead some teachers to fill the class hour with extemporaneous talk about the target language. Whatever the cause, students end up doing less talking. That is, excessive teacher talk hampers the emergence of sustained purposeful student talk.

It can be inferred that the English teachers should reduce talking excessively in the classroom. Thus, they should acquire facility for adapting textbooks, creating communicative tasks, and providing selective, useful feedback to students on their

performances. Granted, the reorientation may come slowly as students overcome old expectations and new insecurities and as entire programmes accommodate to the changes being made in the classroom. During this process of gradual pedagogical and curricular change, however, teachers can find encouragement in knowing they are not expected to attain some ideal CLT standard (Deckert 2004). Lesson by lesson, activity by activity, teachers can gradually increase the degree of meaningful interaction between their students. What English teachers need, however, is administrative assurance that their less dominant role in the classroom is not a sign of negligence or loss of control, but rather a sign of informed belief that students learn best by using language for purposeful communication.

Other difficulties in employing the CLT approach is caused by teachers' difficulties in selecting appropriate communicative activities. Butler (2005) found that teachers' challenges were due to a lack of understanding of three factors. First is that there appears to be no clear definition of what constitutes 'communicative competence' for foreign language learners (i.e., non-native speakers) and thus what constitutes 'teaching for communicative purposes' remains ambiguous. Without specifying motives and

goals, the introduction of communicative activities into classrooms does not necessarily lead to children learning. In order to help teachers identify socially and cognitively meaningful motives and goals for their activities, teachers need both a theoretically consistent and operationalized definition of communicative competence for foreign language learners. A second factor that needs to be taken into account is the insufficient consideration given to developmental factors in current curricula. Effective mediational means have to be identified based on students' developmental stages, or more precisely, ZPD in Vygotsky's terms. While all three countries in this study are still largely in the process of developing curricula for English language education at the elementary school level, greater consideration needs to be given to developmental factors in their curricula and suggested activities for teachers and students. A third factor is the challenge that teachers face in situating activities while considering classroom harmony. This process has to be carried out through extensive negotiations and dialogues between teachers and students as well as between teachers in the case of team-teaching. Of course, each of the three factors mentioned above need to be further examined and incorporated into English teaching

approaches within the specific sociocultural and policy contexts of each country.

The other weakness in the implementation of CLT approach includes students who are skeptical has negative attitude, and beliefs, and are reluctant to classroom participate (Chung & Huang, 2009). These constraints can also be found in (Horwitz, 1988) study. He explored the beginning university foreign language students' beliefs on a variety issues concerning the language learning and teaching. He argued that a major obstacle to the attainment of the desired learning outcomes came from the inexistence of learners' perspectives in to consideration in the teaching and learning. Another study conducted by (Sakui & Gaies, 1999) examined beliefs about language learning of 1296 Japanese university learners of English and concluded that Japanese students of English get some awareness of and beliefs about different methodological orientations they may experience in their classes.

Findings from Anderson (1993) suggested that learners' skeptical attitude towards the use of communicative activities as learning tools is one of the obstacles in implementing CLT. Similarly, Shamim (1996) identified learners' resistance as a barrier in her attempt to introduce innovative CLT in Pakistan

English classroom. It was further argued that although learners' resistance can be such effective barrier to change their role is generally marginalised during the planning and decision making phases when an innovation is being introduced. A study by Li (1998) found that students in secondary schools in South Korea are mostly concerned about grammar and scores but are reluctant to participate in class activities, which became one of the key difficulties for CLT to be adopted in a previously traditional classroom.

Rao (2006) study looked at the Chinese students' perception of communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classrooms. He concluded that most of the students favour a combination of communicative and non-communicative activities demand and what the EFL situation in China allows. Findings from (Savignon & Wang, 2003) reported that there is a certain mismatch between EFL learner needs and preferences and their reported experiences of classroom instruction. A major limitation of this study is that it relied mainly on university students' recollections of their English language learning experiences during their senior and even junior high school years. However, it is risky to rely too much on stretching people's memories to the extent that the

answers for many of them are likely to be inaccurate (Bryman, 2015). What's more, results obtained from the above mentioned studies which employed different instruments seem to present considerable inconsistency.

A study by Ellis (1996) found that there was a mismatch between CLT and FL contexts. She conducted her research in Vietnam where English is taught as EFL, that is a setting in which students have no or minimal exposure to the English language and also have low English proficiency, showed that CLT is a teaching methodology better suited to second language (SL) setting. In such an environment the ESL students has a good English proficiency and a greater need to communicate verbally using English as the language of communication and is exposed to more of the SL.

In line with Ellis (1996), the results of a case study conducted by Taguchi (2002) revealed some internal and external constraints that may discourage the practice of the communicative approach in EFL classrooms, especially in Japan. One major internal constraint reported by the teachers is students' passivity. Students' lack of motivation and their reluctance to participate in class seem to be a primary limitation in implementing communicative teaching practices. Some

teachers stated that the problem is common in all classes, not only in English classes, and arises from the Japanese education system as a whole. The expected roles of a student in a traditional Japanese classroom are to listen to the teacher attentively and to take notes; however, such roles are obstacles to the success of a communicative class where it is crucial for students to engage in speaking. The other principal external constraints identified in this study are large class size and university entrance exams. The teachers and curriculum supervisors reported that it is extremely difficult to promote communicative activities with 40 students in one class. Large class size is probably the factor that limits classroom activities to mechanical and structured exercises, such as dialogue practice or listening to a tape. Finally, lack of systematic assessment of oral communication classes also provides support for this interpretation. The data seem to indicate that teachers do not appear to have clear ideas of how to assess communicative skills.

Much research has reported on a number of obstacles with CLT implementation such as the education system in the EFL context which focuses on grammar and reading comprehension, with large class sizes, and with cultural mismatches (Ahmad & Rao,

2013; Chowdhury, 2012; Eveyik-Aydin, 2003; Huang, 2005; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Ozsevik, 2010; Samimy & Kobayashi, 2004). Penner (1995) added that the conflict between Eastern tradition and Western approach causes the difference underlying values and tradition in the implementation of CLT. The focus in the traditional Eastern approach on the teacher, textbook and grammar is in almost direct contrast to CLT's focus on learner, practice and skill development, because CLT views learning as a skill development rather than a knowledge receiving process. In addition, the differences between CLT and traditional teaching methods, culture, and the roots of educational philosophy of EFL countries make it difficult to implement CLT in EFL context, as reported by (Hayes, 1995; Liyanage & Bartlett, 2008; Rao, 2010; Sun & Cheng, 2000). Another study which relates to the constraint of CLT is conducted by Hiep (2007) in his research "Imported CLT Implication for Local Teachers". He defined the theoretical essential of CLT and characterized the issues that commonly arise when CLT theory is put into practice and redefine of CLT to accommodate the theory to differing local conditions.

(LoCastro, 1996) in his ethnographic of 30 classroom observations and several unstructured

interviews with teachers over years to get a detailed picture of English language instruction in Japanese high schools found a mismatch between policy and practice. Even worse, the ignorance of other aspects of this new curriculum and related sociocultural factors stimulated pervasive hostility. First of all, the period of teacher training as short as two weeks did not equip teachers to practice this new curriculum. The constraints of sociocultural contexts were found similar to those of the above Asian contexts, such as a washback effect of the entrance exam system; traditional teacher-centered classes; class size with at least 47 students in one class in high schools and sometimes more than one hundred in universities; class content emphasizing grammatical accuracy, translation, word use, and pronunciation; and the influences of Confucian concepts about learning and teaching in Chinese culture. What was unique in the Japanese context was Japanese nationalism developed in the Meiji Era fostering a belief that learning a foreign language kept them from maintaining “Japanese spirit intact” (LoCastro, 1996). This ideology further decreased some students’ motivation to learn English. The researcher concluded that Japanese English classrooms precluded CLT.

The above studies show a consensus that CLT could not really be implemented in Asian EFL classrooms at the initial stage even though the governments, which usually had a great power in hierarchy systems, imposed adoption of this new approach. The previous studies revealed that the problems encountered were mainly due to the cultural perspective and administrative factors. The administrative factors, specifically teacher training, exams' effect, authentic materials, class size, and fixed curriculum, showed that the old system was not ready to implement this new curriculum. Moreover, the cultural factors seemed rooted in learners as well as teachers and therefore might need to be taken into account over other possible factors.

The progression towards CLT is certainly evident in Indonesia where schools are looking to impose a communicative approach to language teaching on the current high school system in which learners typically leave school after studying English for 6 years with no communicative capability in the language (Ellis 1996). However, the adoption of his teaching approach in Indonesia raises context specific concerns in relation to teachers, students and school administrators. The

following sections will therefore look at the studies which relate to the use of CLT in teaching reading.

CHAPTER VI

COOPERATIVE LEARNING

A. NATURE OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING

Cooperative learning was used as a set of teaching methods or techniques in communicative language teaching (CLT). The implementation of CLT through cooperative learning was not new. Richards (2000); Richards & Schmidt (2013) pointed out that cooperative learning activities were used in communicative language teaching. Johnson & Johnson (2008); Slavin, (2008) also claimed that communicative language teaching and cooperative learning was natural match in foreign language teaching. Kagan & Kagan (1994) also stressed that cooperative learning is a system of teaching and learning techniques in which learners were active agents in the process of learning instead of passive receivers of the product of any given knowledge (Kagan & Kagan, 1994). This system could increase students' academic learning as well as personal growth because (1) it reduced learning anxiety, (2) it increased the amount of student participation and student talk in the target language, (3) it built supportive and less

threatening learning environment, and (4) it helped the rate of learning retention.

There are various definitions of cooperative learning proposed by scholars. Kagan & Kagan (1994) defined cooperative learning based on the implementation of cooperative learning in the classroom. According to Kagan & Kagan (1994), cooperation is working together to accomplish a shared goal. In other word, cooperative learning is an instructional strategy in which students work together that are carefully designed to promote positive interdependence and individual accountability. Slavin (2008) mentioned that cooperative learning share the idea that the students work together to learn are responsible for their team-mates's learning as wellas their own.

Meanwhile, Davidson (1990) listed seven points in his definition of cooperative learning. His definition shows the diversity, which exists among views of cooperative learning. He pointed that cooperative learning is as:

1. Explicit teaching of collaborative skills.
2. A task for group complexion, discussion and (if possible) resolution.
3. Face-to-face interaction in small group.
4. An atmosphere of cooperation and mutual helpfulness within each group.

5. Individual accountability (everyone does their share).
6. Heterogeneous groupings.
7. Structured mutual interdependence.

B. COMPONENTS AND PRINCIPLES OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING

1. Components of Cooperative Learning

In cooperative learning, students work with their peers to accomplish a shared or common goal. The goal is reached through interdependence among all group members rather than working alone. Each member is responsible for the outcome of the shared goal. According to (Johnson & Johnson, 2008), cooperative learning does not take place in a vacuum. Not all groups are cooperative groups. Putting groups together in a room does not mean cooperative learning is taking place. In line with this definition, Kagab & Kagan (1994) divided the two major components of cooperative learning, namely (1) socially oriented lessons and (2) small group interaction, which also underpinned communicative language teaching approach as the umbrella of the cooperative learning. In similar vein, Johnson & Johnson (2008), there are 5 essential elements are

needed in order to have effective cooperative learning in the classroom practice. They are:

a. Positive interdependence

Each group member depends on each other to accomplish a shared goal or task. Without the help of one member the group is not able to reach the desired goal. It requires all group members to believe that they and all other members in their team are essential for the success of the group. This element promotes a situation in which learners not only perceive that their work benefits their group member, but also the effort of their group to assist them.

b. Face-to-face interaction

It promotes the success of group members by praising, encouraging, supporting, or assisting each other. Example of promotive interaction includes providing each other in the same group with feedback to improve their future performance and influence each other's effort to achieve group goals.

c. Individual accountability

It is the feeling among group that each member is responsible for their own learning as well as that of their group members. Each group

member is held accountable for his or her work. Individual accountability helps to avoid members from hitchhiking on other group members' accomplishments. Johnson & Johnson (2008) believed that individual accountability could be achieved by: i) keeping the size of the small group; ii) giving an individual test to each learner; iii) calling on the learner in the class randomly and asking them to present the group work on the entire class; iv) assigning one member of each group for example a checker to ask the other group members to explain the new material to the rest of the group; and v) making sure that each learner teaches what he learned to a fellow group member or to someone from another group.

d. Social skills

It refers to the development of skills that students need to work with others. Cooperative learning groups set the stage for students to learn social skills. These skills help to build stronger cooperation among group members. Leadership, decision-making, trust-building, and communication are different skills that are developed in cooperative learning.

e. Group processing

Group processing refers to time spent for groups to think about how well they have collaborated and how to enhance their future collaboration. It is also an assessment of how groups are functioning to achieve their goals or tasks. By reviewing group behavior the students and the teacher get a chance to discuss special needs or problems within the group. Groups get a chance to express their feelings about beneficial and unhelpful aspects of the group learning process in order to correct unwanted behavior and celebrate successful outcomes in the group work.

2. Principles of Cooperative Learning

Jacobs (2004) stated eight such principles of cooperative learning.

a. Heterogeneous Grouping. This principle means that the groups in which students do cooperative learning tasks are mixed on one or more of a number of variables including sex, ethnicity, social class, religion, personality, age, language proficiency, and diligence.

b. Collaborative Skills. Collaborative skills, such as giving reasons, are those needed to work with

others. Students may lack these skills, the language involved in using the skills, or the inclination to apply the skills. Most books and websites on cooperative learning urge that collaborative skills be explicitly taught one at a time.

- c. Group Autonomy. This principle encourages students to look to themselves for resources rather than relying solely on the teacher. When student groups are having difficulty, it is very tempting for teachers to intervene either in a particular group or with the entire class. We may sometimes want to resist this temptation, because as Roger Johnson writes, “Teachers must trust the peer interaction to do many of the things they have felt responsible for themselves” (<http://www.clrc.com/pages/qanda.html>).
- d. Simultaneous Interaction (Kagan & Kagan, 1994). In classrooms in which group activities are not used, the normal interaction pattern is that of sequential interaction, in which one person at a time – usually the teacher – speaks. In contrast, when group activities are used, one student per group is speaking. In a class of 40 divided into groups of four, ten students are speaking

simultaneously, i.e., 40 students divided into 4 students per group = 10 students (1 per group) speaking at the same time.

- e. Equal Participation (Kagan & Kagan, 1994). A frequent problem in groups is that one or two group members dominate the group and, for whatever reason, impede the participation of others. Cooperative learning offers many ways of promoting more equal participation among group members.
- f. Individual Accountability. When we try to encourage individual accountability in groups, we hope that everyone will try to learn and to share their knowledge and ideas with others.
- g. Positive Interdependence. This principle lies at the heart of CL. When positive interdependence exists among members of a group, they feel that what helps one member of the group helps the other members and that what hurts one member of the group hurts the other members. It is this “All for one, one for all” feeling that leads group members to want to help each other, to see that they share a common goal.
- h. Cooperation as a Value. This principle means that rather than cooperation being only a way to

learn, i.e., the how of learning, cooperation also becomes part of the content to be learned, i.e., the what of learning. This flows naturally from the most crucial cooperative learning principle, positive interdependence. Cooperation as a value involves taking the feeling of “All for one, one for all” and expanding it beyond the small classroom group to encompass the whole class, the whole school, on and on, bringing in increasingly greater numbers of people and other beings into students’ circle of ones with whom to cooperate.

C. PRACTICING COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN EFL CONTEXT

Cooperative learning with its emphasis on teamwork, takes a step further by taking into consideration the social relationship among students and using them to promote learning. In regard with this concept, English teacher should convey teaching materials with a clear and specific description of the task to their students. According to Roger & Johnson (1988), the group goal communicates that group members are in this together and need to be as concerned with other group members' understanding of

the material as they are with their own. The reward system needs to be consistent with the structure. Students will more easily understand the group goal if they are turning in a single paper that each group member is able to defend, or can receive bonus points on the basis of how well each group member does, or will be able to skip the next quiz (or get extra recess) on the basis of a group score. It is also important to establish criteria for success as a classroom in order to make intergroup cooperation possible and extend the cooperativeness across the class. It is also necessary to specify the basic behaviors you expect to see in the groups so that students have an operational definition of what cooperation is.

Several models of cooperative learning can be practiced in ELT classrooms. They includes Learning Together, Students Team Learning, Jigsaw, Group Investigation, Structured Approach, and Finding Out. These model shared different approaches and emphasis, especially relate to the degree of allowing for individualistic learning, and within group as well as between group cooperation and competition, they share certain basic elements. These elements are positive interdependence, individual accountability and face to

face interaction among students in a conducive learning environment.

First, Learning Together Model is based on cooperative principles advocated by (Slavin, 2008). The role teacher in the class is to assign tasks to their students that have been divided into their small groups. Each member in a group is assigned a specific role such as note taker, explainer or checker. The purpose of providing specific role is to encourage quiet member to speak, have responsibility of task distribution, collect feedback, ensure all members do and complete the right task.

Second, Slavin (2008) introduced student team achievement division (STAD), Team-games-tournament (TGT), Team assisted individualization (TAI) and cooperative integrated reading and composition (CIRC) as part of Student Team Learning model. In this model, students within a given class are assigned to four or five member learning teams, each of which has representatives of both sexes, various racial or ethnic groups, and high, average, and low achievers. After the teacher has introduced the academic material, team members use worksheets to master the academic materials and then help each other learn the material through tutoring, quizzing one another, or carrying on

team discussions. The students also receive worksheet answer sheets, emphasizing the importance of learning the concepts rather than simply filling out the worksheets. Following team practices, students individually take quizzes on the material they have been studying. These quizzes are scored, and each individual is given an improvement score. This improvement score is based on the degree to which the score exceeds a student's past averages, rather than on a student's absolute score. Weekly newsletters announce teams with the highest scores and students who have exceeded their own past records by the largest amounts or who have perfect scores on the quizzes.

Third, Jigsaw is a particular technique of cooperative classroom organization and instruction that proposed by (Aronson, 1997, 2011). In jigsaw, students in small groups depend on one another for information needed to learn a topic, complete a task, or solve a problem. Each student in a group become an expert on a particular topic or section of a topic and thus has a specific portion of the puzzle. The jigsaw model is very simple to use. Aronson (2011) states 10 steps to implement Jigsaw model, as in the following:

1. Divide students into 5- or 6-person jigsaw groups. The groups should be diverse in terms of gender, ethnicity, race, and ability.
2. Appoint one student from each group as the leader. Initially, this person should be the most mature student in the group.
3. Divide the day's lesson into 5-6 segments. For example, if you want history students to learn about Eleanor Roosevelt, you might divide a short biography of her into stand-alone segments on: (1) Her childhood, (2) Her family life with Franklin and their children, (3) Her life after Franklin contracted polio, (4) Her work in the White House as First Lady, and (5) Her life and work after Franklin's death.
4. Assign each student to learn one segment, making sure students have direct access only to their own segment.
5. Give students time to read over their segment at least twice and become familiar with it. There is no need for them to memorize it.
6. Form temporary "expert groups" by having one student from each jigsaw group join other students assigned to the same segment. Give students in these expert groups time to discuss the main points

of their segment and to rehearse the presentations they will make to their jigsaw group.

7. Bring the students back into their jigsaw groups.
8. Ask each student to present her or his segment to the group. Encourage others in the group to ask questions for clarification.
9. Float from group to group, observing the process. If any group is having trouble (e.g., a member is dominating or disruptive), make an appropriate intervention. Eventually, it's best for the group leader to handle this task. Leaders can be trained by whispering an instruction on how to intervene, until the leader gets the hang of it.
10. At the end of the session, give a quiz on the material so that students quickly come to realize that these sessions are not just fun and games but really count.

Fourth, Group Investigation is based on John Dewey's work (Slavin 1989/1990). It collaborates to produce a group product for presentation. This is an open ended investigation which students may help determine the focus of their investigation. The activity is structured to emphasize higher order thinking skills where: a) students are assigned or decide on the topic for investigation; b) students divide the investigation into smaller parts; c) each student is responsible for

researching one of the subtopics; d) students come together as a group and share their information; e) Students synthesize information to produce an end product; and f) Each group member participates in the class presentation.

Fifth, Structured Approach is advocated by (Kagan & Kagan, 1994). This approach is based on human behavior that is influenced by the environmental situation. This approach is said to be structured as teachers could choose cooperative effort. Last, Finding Out is proposed by (Slavin, 1991). It is a science program that is oriented towards discovery learning in primary schools.

There are some other popular strategies that that can be used in teaching English as foreign language (Ash, Kuhn, & Walpole, 2008; Lyman, 1987). Most of these strategies are especially effective in teams of four:

1. Round Robin

Present a category (such as "Names of Mammals") for discussion. Have students take turns going around the group and naming items that fit the category.

2. Roundtable

Present a category (such as words that begin with "b"). Have students take turns writing one word at a time.

3. Write around

For creative writing or summarization, give a sentence starter (for example: If you give an elephant a cookie, he's going to ask for...). Ask all students in each team to finish that sentence. Then, they pass their paper to the right, read the one they received, and add a sentence to that one. After a few rounds, four great stories or summaries emerge. Give children time to add a conclusion and/or edit their favorite one to share with the class.

4. Numbered Heads Together

Ask students to number off in their teams from one to four. Announce a question and a time limit. Students put their heads together to come up with an answer. Call a number and ask all students with that number to stand and answer the question. Recognize correct responses and elaborate through rich discussions.

5. Team Jigsaw

Assign each student in a team one fourth of a page to read from any text (for example, a social studies text), or one fourth of a topic to investigate or

memorize. Each student completes his or her assignment and then teaches the others or helps to put together a team product by contributing a piece of the puzzle.

6. Tea Party

Students make two concentric circles or two lines facing each other. You ask a question (on any content) and students discuss the answer with the student facing them. After one minute, the outside circle or one line moves to the right so that students have new partners. Then pose a second question for them to discuss. Continue with five or more questions. For a little variation, students can write questions on cards to review for a test through this "Tea Party" method.

REFERENCES

- Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *The modern language journal*, 78(2), 155–168.
- Aronson, E. (1997). *The jigsaw classroom: Building cooperation in the classroom*. Scott Foresman & Company.
- Aronson, E. (2011). *Cooperation in the classroom: The jigsaw method*. Printer & Martin Limited.
- Ash, G. E., Kuhn, M. R., & Walpole, S. (2008). Analyzing “inconsistencies” in practice: Teachers' continued use of round robin reading. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 25(1), 87–103.
- Asher, J. J. (1969). The total physical response approach to second language learning. *The modern language journal*, 53(1), 3–17.
- Alwasilah, A. C. (1997). Lament for Minor Languages. *The Jakarta Post*.
- Barwell, R. (2003). Patterns of attention in the interaction of a primary school mathematics student with English as an additional language. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, 53(1), 35–59.
- Barwell, R. (2005). Working on arithmetic word problems when English is an additional language. *British Educational Research Journal*, 31(3), 329–348.
- Benson, P. (2013). *Teaching and researching: Autonomy in language learning*. Routledge.
- Biggs, J. B. (2011). *Teaching for quality learning at university: What the student does*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Block, D. (2003a). *The Social Turn in Second Language Acquisition*. ERIC.

- Block, D. (2003b). *The social turn in SLA*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- Bronson, M. C., & Watson-Gegeo, K. A. (2008). The critical moment: Language socialization and the (re) visioning of first and second language learning. In *Encyclopedia of language and education* (page. 2621–2633). Springer.
- Brophy, J. E. (2013). *Motivating students to learn*. Routledge.
- Brown, H. D. (2002). English language teaching in the “post-method” era: Toward better diagnosis, treatment, and assessment. *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*, 9–18.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). Principles of language learning and teaching. Retrieved from http://www.academia.edu/download/40433526/_H._Douglas_Brown__Principles_of_language_learningBookZZ.org.pdf.
- Brumfit, C. (1979). Communicative” language teaching: an educational perspective. *The communicative approach to language teaching*, 183–191.
- Brumfit, C., Myles, F., Mitchell, R., Johnston, B., & Ford, P. (2005). Language study in higher education and the development of criticality. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 15(2), 145–168.
- Byrnes, H. (2005). The Social Turn in Second Language Acquisition. *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 61(3), 433–436.
- Calinon, S., & Billard, A. (2007). Active teaching in robot programming by demonstration. In *Robot and Human interactive Communication, 2007. RO-*

MAN 2007. *The 16th IEEE International Symposium on* (hal. 702–707). IEEE.

- Cameron, L. (2002). Measuring vocabulary size in English as an additional language. *Language Teaching Research*, 6(2), 145–173.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied linguistics*, 1, 1.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (2001). Language teaching approaches: An overview. *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*, 2, 3–10.
- Clayton, L. H. (2006). Concept mapping: an effective, active teaching-learning method. *Nursing education perspectives*, 27(4), 197–203.
- Cohen, A. D. (2014). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. Routledge.
- Cook, V. (2013). *Second language learning and language teaching*. Routledge.
- Crookes, G. (1991). Second language speech production research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13(2), 113–131.
- Davidson, N. (1990). *Cooperative Learning in Mathematics: A Handbook for Teachers*. ERIC. Diambil dari <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED335227>.
- Duff, P. A. (2007). Second language socialization as sociocultural theory: Insights and issues. *Language teaching*, 40(4), 309–319.
- Dykstra, L. D. (2007). The social turn in second language acquisition. *Language*, 83(4), 909–910.
- Ellis, R. (1991a). *Instructed second language acquisition: Learning in the classroom*. Wiley-Blackwell.

- Ellis, R. (1991b). The Interaction Hypothesis: A Critical Evaluation. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED338037>
- Ellis, R. (1997). *SLA Research and Language Teaching*. ERIC.
- Gass, S. M. (2003). Input and interaction. *The handbook of second language acquisition*, 224, 255.
- Gattegno, C. (2010). *Teaching foreign languages in schools: The silent way*. Educational Solutions World.
- Gebhard, J. G. (2006). *Teaching English as a foreign or second language: A teacher self-development and methodology guide*. University of Michigan Press.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching*.
- Gibbons, P. (2003). Mediating language learning: Teacher interactions with ESL students in a content-based classroom. *Tesol Quarterly*, 37(2), 247–273.
- Gregg, K. R. (2006). Taking a social turn for the worse: The language socialization paradigm for second language acquisition. *Second Language Research*, 22(4), 413–442.
- Griffiths, C. (2004). *Language-learning Strategies: Theory and Research*. AIS St Helens, Centre for Research in International Education.
- Hall, J. K., & Walsh, M. (2002). 10. Teacher-student interaction and language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 22, 186.
- Hiep, P. H. (2007). Communicative language teaching: Unity within diversity. *ELT journal*, 61(3), 193–201.

- Hinchman, K. (1987). The textbook and three content-area teachers. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 26(4), 247–263.
- Holliday, A. (1994). The house of TESEP and the communicative approach: the special needs of state English language education.
- Huda, N. (2016). A National Strategy in Achieving English Communicative Ability: Globalisation Perspectives. *Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan*, 4.
- Hu, G. (2002). Potential cultural resistance to pedagogical imports: The case of communicative language teaching in China. *Language Culture and Curriculum*, 15(2), 93–105.
- Ibrahim, R. (2008). Pendidikan Multikultural: Upaya Meminimalisir Konflik dalam Era Pluralitas Agama. *EL TARBAWI*, 1(1), 115–127.
- Jacobs, G. (2004). Cooperative learning: theory, principles and techniques. *JF New Paradigm Education*, 169–188.
- Jenkins, J. (2014). *Global Englishes: A resource book for students*. Routledge.
- Jensen, E. (2005). *Teaching with the brain in mind*. ASCD.
- Kohlberg, L. (1987). *Child psychology and childhood education: A cognitive developmental view*. Longman Publishing Group.
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2008). *Cooperative learning*. Wiley Online Library.
- Kagan, S., & Kagan, S. (1994). *Cooperative learning* (Vol. 2). Kagan Cooperative Learning San Juan Capistrano, CA.
- Lyman, F. (1987). Think-pair-share: An expanding teaching technique. *Maa-Cie Cooperative News*, 1(1), 1–2.

- Kam, H. W. (2002). English language teaching in East Asia today: An overview. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 22(2), 1–22.
- Knardahl, S. (2002). Psychophysiological mechanisms of pain in computer work: the blood vessel-nociceptor interaction hypothesis. *Work & Stress*, 16(2), 179–189.
- Krashen, S. (2002). Theory versus practice in language training. *Enriching ESOL pedagogy*, 211–228.
- Krashen, S. D., & Terrell, T. D. (1983). The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED230069>.
- Krashen, S. D. (1981). The “fundamental pedagogical principle” in second language teaching. *Studia Linguistica*, 35(1–2), 50–70.
- Krashen, S. D., & others. (1981). Bilingual education and second language acquisition theory. *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework*, 51–79.
- Kustati, M. (2013). The shifting paradigms in the implementation of CLT in southeast Asia countries. *Al-Ta lim Journal*, 20(1), 267–277.
- Lantolf, J. P. (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford University Press.
- Larsen–Freeman, D. (2007). Reflecting on the cognitive–social debate in second language acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91(s1), 773–787.
- Larson, K. R. (2014). Critical pedagogy (ies) for ELT in Indonesia. *TEFLIN Journal*, 25(1), 122.
- Lauder, A. (2010). The status and function of English in Indonesia: A review of key factors. *Makara Hubs-Asia*, 8(3).

- Lozanov, G. (2004). *Suggestology* (Vol. 2). Routledge.
- Lozanov, G., & Gateva, E. (1988). *The Foreign Language Teacher's Suggestopedic Manual*. ERIC. Diambil dari <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED363092>
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learned Oxford Handbooks for language teachers*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- LoCastro, V. (2013). *Pragmatics for language educators: A sociolinguistic perspective*. Routledge.
- Lundvall, B.-Å. (2010). *National systems of innovation: Toward a theory of innovation and interactive learning* (Vol. 2). Anthem Press.
- Macaro, E. (2002). *Learning strategies in foreign and second language classrooms: The role of learner strategies*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Mackey, A. (2004). The Social Turn in Second Language Acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 26(4), 639–641.
- Mitchell, R., Myles, F., & Marsden, E. (2013). *Second language learning theories*. Routledge.
- Moulton, W. G. (1966). *A Linguistic Guide To Language Learning*. Retrived from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED015701>.
- Musthafa, B. (2001). Communicative Language Teaching in Indonesia: Issues of Theoretical Assumptions and Challenges in the Classroom Practice. Diambil dari <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED462833>
- Musthafa, B. (2015). Communicative language teaching in Indonesia: Issues of theoretical assumptions and challenges in the classroom practice. *TEFLIN Journal*, 12(2), 184–193.

- Mora, J. K. (2013). *Major components of the study of grammar and syntax: Teaching grammar in context*.
- Norland, D. L., & Pruett-Said, T. (2006). *A kaleidoscope of models and strategies for teaching English to speakers of other languages*. Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge university press.
- Nunan, D. (2006). *Task-based language teaching*. Ernst Klett Sprachen.
- Nur, C. (2003). English language teaching in Indonesia: Changing policies and practical constraints. *English language teaching in East Asia today: Changing policies and practices*, 163–172.
- Ortega, L. (2011). SLA after the social turn. *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition*, 167–180.
- Pachler, N. (2000). Re-examining communicative language teaching. *Issues in modern foreign languages teaching*, 22–37.
- Paulston, C. B. (1981). Notional syllabuses revisited: Some comments. *Applied Linguistics*, 2, 93.
- Probyn, M. (2001). Teachers voices: Teachers reflections on learning and teaching through the medium of English as an additional language in South Africa. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 4(4), 249–266.
- Richard-Amato, P. A. (1988). *Making It Happen: Interaction in the Second Language Classroom, From Theory to Practice*. ERIC.
- Richards, J. C. (2000). Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics. Retrieved from

<http://archives.umc.edu.dz/handle/123456789/112046>

- Richards, J. C. (2005). *Communicative language teaching today*. SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- Richards, J. C. (2008). Second language teacher education today. *RELC journal*, 39(2), 158–177.
- Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (2013). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. Routledge.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge university press.
- Roger, T., & Johnson, D. W. (1988). Cooperative learning: Two heads learn better than one. *Transforming Education: Awakening the Full Human Potential... in Everyone*, Context Institute, Langley, WA, 34–36.
- Rutherford, W. E. (2014). *Second language grammar: Learning and teaching*. Routledge.
- Savignon, S. J. (1991). Communicative language teaching: State of the art. *TESOL quarterly*, 25(2), 261–278.
- Savignon, S. J., & Wang, C. (2003). Communicative language teaching in EFL contexts: Learner attitudes and perceptions. *IRAL*, 41(3), 223–250.
- Sadtono, E. (1997). *The development of TEFL in Indonesia*. IKIP Malang Publisher.
- Scovel, T. (2001). *Learning new languages: A guide to second language acquisition*. Heinle & Heinle Boston. Diambil dari <http://www.tesl-ej.org/wordpress/issues/volume5/ej18/ej18r12/>.

- Sharifian, F. (2009). *English as an international language: Perspectives and pedagogical issues* (Vol. 11). Multilingual Matters.
- Slavin, R. E. (1991). Synthesis of research of cooperative learning. *Educational leadership*, 48(5), 71–82.
- Slavin, R. E. (2008). Cooperative learning, success for all, and evidence-based reform in education. *Éducation et didactique*, 2(2), 149–157.
- Stern, H. H. (1983). *Fundamental concepts of language teaching: Historical and interdisciplinary perspectives on applied linguistic research*. Oxford University Press.
- Swan, M. (1985). A critical look at the communicative approach (1). *ELT journal*, 39(1), 2–12.
- Titone, R. (1968). *Teaching foreign languages: An historical sketch*. Georgetown University Press.
- Vygotskiï. (2012). *Thought and language*. Springer.
- Watson-Gegeo, K. A. (2004). Mind, language, and epistemology: Toward a language socialization paradigm for SLA. *The Modern Language Journal*, 88(3), 331–350.
- Wells, G. (1981). *Learning through interaction: Volume 1: The study of language development* (Vol. 1). Cambridge University Press.
- Widiati, U., & Cahyono, B. Y. (2006). The teaching of EFL speaking in the Indonesian context: The state of the art. *Bahasa dan seni*, 34(2), 269–292.
- Wilkins, D. (1976). Notional syllabuses. *Bulletin CILA (Commission interuniversitaire suisse de linguistique appliquée)*(«Bulletin VALS-ASLA depuis 1994»), 24, 5–17.

- Wilkins, D. A. (1976). *Notional syllabuses: A taxonomy and its relevance to foreign language curriculum development*. Oxford Univ Pr.
- Wright, W. E. (2015). *Foundations for teaching English language learners: Research, theory, policy, and practice*. Caslon Incorporated.
- Yuwono, G. (2005). English language teaching in decentralised Indonesia: Voices from the less privileged schools. In *AARE 2005 International Education Research Conference*.
- Zuengler, J., & Miller, E. R. (2006). Cognitive and sociocultural perspectives: Two parallel SLA worlds? *Tesol Quarterly*, 40(1), 35–58.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Martin Kustati was graduated her Ph.D from Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. She has currently presented papers on EFL literacy in seminars, conferences, workshops, and trainings in Malaysia, Singapore, Cambodia, Vietnam, Hongkong, Australia, and Indonesia. She was a recipient of national outstanding student achievement from Department of Education of Republic Indonesia in 1995 and also a recipient of the Southeast Asia fellowship in Asia Research Institute (ARI). Then, she conducted literature review at the National University of Singapore. She is presently an English lecturer at the Faculty of Tarbiyah and Teacher Training, UIN Imam Bonjol Padang. Her current publication entitles "Using DRTA Strategy to Overcome EFL Students' Problems in Reading Literature" was published by Commond Ground United State of America. Then, there

were several another articles which have been published in National and International Journals for her current publications.

INDEXES

A

ability, 1, 3, 5, 7, 10, 14, 18, 19
accomplish, 29
acronym, 39, 40
affective, 51
analyzed, 34
approach, 20, 21, 24, 31
approaches, 4, 5, 20, 28, 31, 32, 34
appropriate, 47
assessments, 62
assumption, 81
attention, 21
attitude, 1
authentic, 75
authoritative, 77

B

believed, 20
brief, 20
building, 143

C

centralisation, 53
characteristics, 22
civilization, 38
cognitive, 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 13, 19, 50, 51
communication, 4, 6, 7, 10, 24
communicative, 23, 25, 38
competence, 41, 46, 48, 51, 56, 59, 62, 63
complex, 37
comprehend, 21
conjugated, 34
constructivist, 2
continuously, 4
cooperation, 139, 143, 146, 147, 148
cooperative learning, 138, 142, 145, 147
credibility, 31
culture, 38, 43, 44, 46, 55, 56, 63
curriculum, 43, 45, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 55, 57, 61

D

decentralisation, 53
deductively, 72
descriptive, 55, 64
desuggestion, 78
developed, 1, 9, 15, 16, 18
directing, 76
discussed, 31

distinguishes, 68

E

education, 37, 39, 40, 43, 48, 49, 52, 53, 55, 61, 63

educational theory, 24

emphasize, 2, 37, 45, 47, 50, 59

encourages, 27, 73, 74

enrichment, 45

environment, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 14, 15, 16

environmental, 1, 5, 14

established, 41, 54

exercise, 21, 27

expands, 20

experienced, 20

experts, 20, 28, 31

expertise, 44

explanations, 22

explicit, 65

F

facilitated, 73

foreign, 21, 24, 28, 30, 35

formative, 63

formulate, 64

G

grammatical aspects, 21

H

hypothesis, 3

history, 20

humanities, 43

I

impact, 1, 18

implementation, 46, 48, 49, 60

implication, 53, 56

improve, 46, 56, 63

indicator, 61, 62

individual, 139, 142, 145, 148, 149 inductively, 67

influenced, 6, 14, 15, 16, 65

Innovation, 21

insights, 29

instruction, 40, 44, 48

interactions, 2, 5, 6, 9, 14, 16, 18

interactive, 2, 3, 4, 5, 13

interactors, 4

integrated, 20, 77

interlocutors, 4, 16

intellectual, 31

interaction, 139, 140, 141, 144, 145, 148

intervene, 144, 151

intuitive, 20

J

justification, 24

K

knowledge, 2, 3, 4, 9

L

language, 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18,

language learning, 63, 66, 72, 77, 81
learn, 1, 7
learned, 1, 8, 17
learner, 38, 46, 50, 56, 57, 59
learning, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17,
18
linguists, 31
listening, 22, 33, 35
literature, 24, 34

M

materials, 44, 47, 48, 57, 61, 62
meaningful, 3, 8
mechanism, 61, 62
memorizing, 24
motivation, 1, 18
mother tongue, 22, 31, 33
method, 20, 21, 23, 25, 28, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36
methods, 20, 21, 28, 30, 31, 32
methodology, 38, 52, 65
mistakes, 66, 79

N

negotiators, 4
narrative, 55
necessary, 38, 40, 60

O

observe, 20
objectives, 44, 47, 57

oral interaction, 32
overemphasized, 36

P

pattern-practice, 66
perceived, 56
performance, 76
person, 145, 150
personality, 1, 77
perspective, 20
picture, 36, 37
practice, 25, 27, 33, 35
principle, 58, 59, 61
problem solving, 38
procedural, 63
pronunciation, 33
psychomotor, 51

R

Reading, 21, 23, 33, 34
recognize, 26, 27
recorded, 29
reinforced, 66, 88
relaxing, 77
representing, 29, 73
researchers, 20
responsible, 139, 140, 142, 144, 152

S

sentences, 21, 23
skills, 21, 29, 33, 36, 139, 142, 144, 152
sociocultural, 1, 6, 8, 13, 16, 17, 19

speaking, 22, 27, 29
specifications, 63
spoken, 38, 46, 47
spontaneous, 32
strategy, 76
stressed, 5
strengths, 24, 36
structured, 3
students, 23, 25, 26, 27, 34, 37, 38
suggestible, 79
Suggestopedia, 77, 78
syllabus, 46, 51, 57, 58, 59, 60, 62, 63
sympathetic, 38

T

teaching, 39, 41, 43, 45, 46, 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 59, 62
translation, 2, 21, 22, 23, 24, 32
translating, 50
teaching, 1, 9, 11, 13, 17, 19
techniques, 20, 22, 34
textbooks, 64
theoretical, 1
theories, 1, 8, 12, 13, 15
thinking, 29
traditional, 63

U

understanding, 20, 29

V

Verb, 25
vice versa, 21
Vocabulary, 22

W

weaknesses, 75
word, 22
worksheet, 149
write, 23, 26, 27, 35
writing, 21, 27
written, 46, 63

