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**TEACHING ENGLISH**  
*for*  
**BEGINNING LEVEL**

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# PREFACE

As the Rector of the Universitas Negeri Makassar, I thank the writers, Amirullah Abduh and Rosmaladewi, who manage to complete the draft of this book. This book aims to address the scarcity of strategies and approaches to Teaching English for Beginning Level that particularly accommodate local teaching issues and materials as part of exercises and examples.

I expect that this book can be very useful for students across many different universities and beginning teachers who are interested to pursue their career in the field of teaching English for early ages. I recommend them to read and use this book as one of their resources. Last but not least, good luck for the writers and am looking forward to receiving other excellent books forthcoming.

Makassar, December 2016

Rector,

Prof. Dr. Husain Syam, M.TP

# WRITERS' NOTE

We thank Allah SWT who blesses us to get through this book. We thank all friends and colleagues who support for the completion of this book.

## Aim

This book is intended to provide unique perspectives of Teaching English for Beginning Level (TEBL). It includes concepts, strategies, examples, and exercises from both local and global knowledge.

## Contents

This book, from the beginning to the end of the chapters, contains all relevant information regarding TEBL.

## Acknowledgement

Any materials used in this book is acknowledged and referenced in the final section of this book.

## Expectation

This book can be used as one of the key resources for student teacher and beginning teacher in the field of English Language Education and other related fields.

Writers

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# I. LEARNERS OF BEGINNING LEVEL

## 1.1. Defining beginning level

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The definition of beginning level provided by Slatterly and Willis (2001) is used widely in online courses: “Young Learners” (YL) were 7–12 years old; “Very Young Learners” (VYL) were defined as under 7 years of age. The term of beginning level is called the foundation stage or young learners. For a small child, being 3 is very different from being 4 or being 5. The beginning level is about us teachers celebrating what it means to be 3 (or 4 or 5) years of age and not constantly striving to make children ‘be’ something else. This means that we need to know our children, know what they can do, what they enjoy and what they find challenging. Teachers must help them feel secure and valued.

Teaching beginners is considered by many people as the most challenging level of language instruction. Since students at this level have little or no prior knowledge of the target language, the teacher becomes a “central determiner” in whether students accomplish their goals. This also be the most tangibly rewarding level for a teacher because the growth of students’ proficiency is apparent in a matter of a few weeks. In this level, the students have very little language “behind” them. Teacher may be attempt to go along with the popular micro- conception that the target language cannot be taught directly, that the teacher have to resort to a good deal of talking about the second language in the students’ native language, such beginning language courses have demonstrated for many decades. Teachers have to keep in mind that the students’ capacity for taking in and retaining new words, structures, and concepts is limited. As teachers,



we should present the material in simple segments that do not overwhelm our students. We have to remember that they are just beginning!

## 1.2. Principle theories of teaching beginning level

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The principle theories of teaching young learners are important to be taken into account when dealing with young learners. They are:

- a. Children are active learners and thinkers (Piaget, 1970). Children construct knowledge from actively interacting with the physical environment in developmental stages. They learn through their own individual actions and exploration. Piagetian stages of development (cited from Pinter, 2012) cover four levels: *first* is sensori-motor stage from birth to two years of age that young children learn to interact with the environment by manipulating objects around them; *second* is pre-operational stage from two to seven years of age that child's thinking is largely reliant on perception but he or she gradually becomes more and more capable of logical thinking; *third* is concrete operational stage from seven to eleven years of age that children thinking begins to resemble 'logical' adult thinking and they develops ability to apply logical reasoning in several areas of knowledge at the same time such as maths, science, or map reading; *fourth* is formal operational stage from eleven years onwards that children are able to think beyond the immediate context in more abstract terms and they are able to carry out logical operations such as deductive reasoning in a systematic way.

- b. Children learn through social interaction (Vygotsky, 1962). Children construct knowledge through other people, through interaction with adults. Adults/teachers work actively with children in the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) refers to the difference between the child's capacity to solve problems on his own and his capacity to solve them with assistance.
- c. Children learn effectively through scaffolding by adults (Bruner, 1983). The adult's role is very important in a child's learning process. Like Vygotsky, Bruner focused on the importance of language in a child's cognitive development. He shows how the adult uses "scaffolding" to guide a child's language learning through finely-tuned talk. (Cameron, 2001). Bruner stated that parents who scaffolded effectively:
  - ✚ created interest in the task;
  - ✚ broke the task down into smaller steps;
  - ✚ kept child "on task" by reminding him of the purpose or goal;
  - ✚ pointed out the important parts of the task;
  - ✚ controlled the child's frustration during the task;
  - ✚ modeled the task, including different ways to do the task.

### 1.3. Characteristics of learners of beginning level

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A number of experts provide detail characteristics of young learners into two phases; under 7 years old and 7-12 years of age (Slatterly, & Willis, 2001; Shin, 2006), as in table below:

Very young learners (under 7)	Young learners (7-12)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- acquire through hearing and experiencing lots of English, in much the same way they acquire L1</li> <li>- learn things through playing; they are not consciously trying to learn new words or phrases – for them it's incidental</li> <li>- love playing with language sounds, imitating, and making funny noises</li> <li>- are not able to organize their learning</li> <li>- not able to read or write in L1; important to recycle language through talk and play</li> <li>- their grammar will develop gradually on its own when exposed to lots of English in context.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- are learning to read and write in L1</li> <li>- are developing as thinkers</li> <li>- understand the difference between the real and the imaginary</li> <li>- can plan and organize how best to carry out an activity</li> <li>- can work with others and learn from others</li> <li>- can be reliable and take responsibility for class activities and routines</li> </ul>

## 1.4. Environment for L1 and L2 learners

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Researchers have noted that even though children may use similar processes for acquiring L1 and L2, the environment for L1 and L2 acquisition can be quite different (Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 2004).

L1 environment	L2 environment
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>❖ language highly contextualized</li><li>❖ in the real world the language used is authentic</li><li>❖ learner highly motivated</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>❖ language more decontextualized</li><li>❖ in the classroom the language used tends to be artificial</li><li>❖ learners may not be highly motivated</li></ul>

It is important to create environment where children can enjoy learning foreign language by self exploration and can interact with others. In L2 learning, the environment should be created to attract students' motivations and interests. It is also essential to provide realia or objects where learners can illustrates the materials that are currently being discussed.

## 1.5. Learner's learning style

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Every child has its unique characteristic of language learning. This characteristic is highly influenced by learning styles. Pinter (2012: 14) classified 'styles' into three broad categories. The first

style can describe personality types such as more careful and reflective children as opposed to impulsive and more interactive children. Other styles, related to personality features, describe cognitive categories such as analytic or global learners who are more holistic in their approach. Finally, some styles describe perceptual differences. Some children prefer listening to new input while others need lots of visual stimulus. Yet others are kinesthetic, which means that they like to feel and touch things and move their body in expressive ways to aid their learning and communication.

Gardner's Framework of Multiple Intelligence which was published in 1983 are also known as the learning styles of children, as follows:

Linguistics	Sensitivity to the sound, rhythm, and meaning of words and the different functions of language
Logico-mathematical	Sensitivity to and capacity to detect logical and numerical patterns, ability to handle long chains of logical reasoning
Musical	Ability to produce or appreciate pitch, rhythm, or melody and aesthetic-sounding tones, understanding of the forms of musical expressiveness
Spatial	Ability to perceive the visual/spatial world accurately, to perform transformation on those perceptions, and to recreate aspects of visual experience in absence of relevant stimuli
Bodily-kinaesthetic	Ability to use the body skilfully for expressive as well as goal oriented purposes, ability to handle objects skilfully
Interpersonal	Ability to detect and respond appropriately to the moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions of others

Intrapersonal	Ability to discriminate complex inner feelings and to use them to guide one's own behaviour, knowledge of one's own strengths, weaknesses, desires, and intelligences
Naturalist	Ability to recognize and classify varieties of animals, minerals, and plants.

Garner Multiples Intelligence. Adapted from A. Pinter, *Teaching Young Language Learners*, Oxford University Press 2012.

## 1.6. Summary

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- The definition of beginning level: “Young Learners” (YL) were 7–12 years old; “Very Young Learners” (VYL) were defined as under 7 years of age.
- Children are active learners and thinkers.
- Children learn through social interaction.
- Children learn effectively through scaffolding by adults.
- Both YL and VYL require both six senses to acquire language.
- The environment for the acquisition of L1 and L2 is quite different.
- Children learning styles follows Gardner's multiple intelligences.

# 2. TEACHERS OF BEGINNING LEVEL

## 2.1 Teachers beliefs

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All of us bring to teaching memories of our own lives in school, perceptions about what it is ‘teach’ and beliefs about classroom should be. Moyles (2002) has identified the basic beliefs and principle in teaching beginning level:

- B** believe in what you do, and believe what you do on children’s interest and needs
- A** approachable personality is vital & always try to think positively and react thoughtfully
- S** sense of humor is essential-second sight is useful & structured approach to teaching
- I** in-touch with different abilities and interests as well as integrate children in a class
- C** control and respect must be earned and communication skills must be excellent
- T** totally firm, fair and flexible as well as treat everyone with respect
- E** explain things clearly and explicitly
- A** analytical and self reflective
- C** confident, calm, caring, and creative
- H** happy background and happy classroom
- I** imaginative and inspiring
- N** need for planning, observation, and evaluation
- G** get it organized

## 2.2. Areas of teaching beginning level

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Teachers at the foundation stage has its own areas of learning and teachers of younger children still require a sound knowledge of the subject matters within the areas stated in figure below, for it probably true to say that younger child, the securer our knowledge of different curriculum aspects needs to be. Harmer (1998) described the areas of beginning level that teachers should know as follows:

- a. Role of language: language acquisition, language learning, foundation of literature.
- b. Children voice: time spent on activities, concentration/attention/opportunity, and handling choices.
- c. Self discipline: autonomy, self management, intrinsic motivation, and appropriate behaviour.
- d. Team work: roles of other adults, team management skills, being facilitators, and reading about early years matters.
- e. Observation and assessment: using knowledge of planning, record keeping, and setting up new learning environment.
- f. Children abilities: start with what child can do, individual differences, and gradual access to new skills.
- g. Child's world: concept of early childhood, ability to enter child's world, and child-like view of experiences.
- h. Play: its role, children exploration, imagination and creativity, and teachers understanding of play.
- i. First hand experiences: uses of senses, immediate experiences, concrete materials, cross curriculum topics, curiosity and context of learning.
- j. Process of learning: observation-activity, skills, new learning, transfer of knowledge and skills, and practice.
- k. Physical development: motor skills, fine, gross, and psycho-motor development.
- l. Parents: collaboration in learning, home contact, and carers.



- m. Perceptual variation: understand how each children ‘see’ the world.
- n. Important of whole child: socially, emotionally, morally, intellectually, physically, and spirituality.

## 2.3. What makes good teachers

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A research has been conducted in an English course which consisted of students from different nationalities. The students who were studying at Cambridge Comprehensive School have been interviewed by Harmer (1998) to get the characteristics of good teachers as follows:

- a. They should make their lessons interesting so you don’t fall asleep in them.
- b. A teacher must love his/ her job. If she/ he really enjoys her/his job that will make the lessons more interesting.
- c. The teacher has his/ her own personality and doesn’t hide it from the students, so he/she is not only a teacher but a person as well- and it comes through the lesson.
- d. Teacher has lots of knowledge, not only of his/ her subject.
- e. A good teacher is a good entertainer in a positive sense.

The character and personality of the teacher is a crucial issue in the classroom. However, it is usually related with the relationship between the teacher and the students. These are some responses of the study;

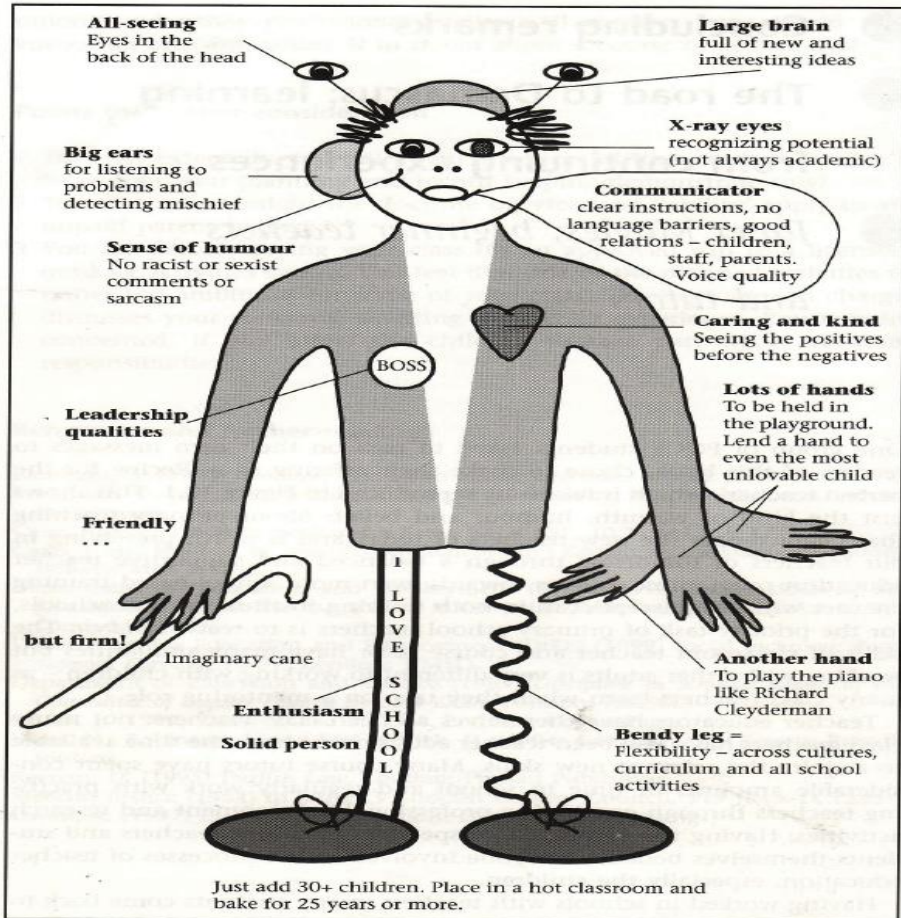
- a. Teacher must be approachable. Teacher should be available when their students need to talk whether about the subject or other case.
- b. A good teacher has an affinity with the students that they are teaching. Successful teachers are those who can identify with

the hopes, aspiration and difficulties of their students while they are teaching them.

- c. Teacher helps rather than shout!
- d. Teacher knows their students' names.

## 2.4. Recipe of perfect teacher

The perfect teachers proposed by Janet Moyles (2002) have the characteristics of its shown in picture 1.



## 2.5. Summary

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- a. Teachers' beliefs refer to the principles of basic teaching.
- b. The areas of teaching cover pivotal points for teachers to get through when they teach.
- c. Teachers' characters and personality becomes crucial elements to become good teachers.
- d. Teachers of English should know the recipe of becoming outstanding teachers.

# 3. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

## 3.1. Contact with students

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There are four basic principles as proposed by Harmer (2003, pp. 15-16) of how teachers use their physical presence in class: *proximity, appropriacy, movement and contact.*

*Proximity:* teachers should consider how close they want to be to the students they are working with. Some students resent it if the distance between them and the teacher is too small. There is specific criteria of how distant teachers to the students in the class, however it will depend on what is happening in the classroom that teacher should think about.

*Appropriacy:* Determining of how closely you ought to work with students is a matter of appropriacy. Any behavior that is done by the teachers in class such as standing behind the chairs, sitting on the floor, standing beside students should bring about the positive impact to the students and to the teachers themselves. More importantly that building good relationship is one of the excellent ways to have effective class.

*Movement:* teacher is not a runner or a tennis player who move actively around the class during the session, but a person who can move in moderation according to the need and interest as well as the condition of the class. A teacher is not also a statue that is just silent and passive so that it makes the class bored.

*Contact:* teachers should decide their contact with students including physical presence and approach to students that depending on the condition and the nature of the class.

## 3.2. Seating arrangement

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There are four types of seating arrangement proposed by Harmer (1998; 31-32): a orderly rows, circle and horseshoes, and separate tables.

*Orderly rows:* there are several obvious advantages when students sit in orderly rows. Teachers has not only clear view of students and students can see a teacher, but also teachers enable to keep eye contact with students as well as it makes lecturing easy. It helps students more discipline because teachers can identify who is missing in the row for a class. Orderly rows are best suited for large class ranging from 40 to 200 students at a time.

*Circle and Horseshoes:* this seating arrangement is well planned with smaller classes. Teacher role seems to less dominating for circle and horseshoes seating position. It creates equality among all students who sit in a circle, therefore they have the same opportunity to talk and share ideas among students. In addition, it makes teachers to be closer with students especially if teachers want to get to know their students comprehensively.

*Separate tables:* students who are seated in small group at individual tables help teachers to move around the class smoothly checking the students work and helping out if they are having difficulties-prompting the students at this table, or explaining something to the students at the table. Students seem to be more responsible on their own learning and are treated as adult language learning.

According to Alexandra Ramsden (1999), the best arrangement depends on the situation of the class and teacher. In his paper, he discussed five common types of seating position that can be used by teachers. He also pointed the positive and negatives sides of the arrangements. The types are below:

## Clusters

This seating arrangement consists of four or five desks pushed together so every desk is facing another one. The fifth desk, if needed, would be put on the end of the group of four. In this situation the teacher is free to walk around the room without bumping into students desk or chairs and can work with the groups. The groups of students need to be thought about before setting up. The students need to be able to work together. There will have to be different levels of students at each group so that they can help each other learn and grow. Clusters are very common in situations where there is a lot of group learning and work. The desks together make it easy for all students in the cluster to see each other and to discuss. In this situation the philosophy of the teacher is more collaborative learning. This lets the students have hands on activities and learn by practicing. The teacher shares and gives guidance and help to the students. This arrangement also, allows for students to do individual work at their desk.



Clusters model (photo from Ramsden's website)

Clusters are not very good during test or quizzes because students can easily cheat off each other. Clusters can be a disadvantage to the teacher when giving a direct instruction lesson because students may not be oriented toward them. Students may have their back to the teacher and not be focused to the front of the room. This arrangement is usually found in the younger elementary grades and universities because there is more cooperative learning and hands on activities. It seems as though the middle and high school in the United States do not use as much hands-on and cooperative learning because at this age in the students lives they are very social and worried about who is sitting with who and friends with whom. I think that teachers don't use this kind of instruction not because they don't value it but because the students would use most of their time not working but talking about life and all the social activities. The students would be wasting their instructional time and the teacher would be using their time making the children be quiet.

## Desk rows

This seating arrangement is a traditional classroom seating arrangement of several rows of desks facing the teacher. The students desks are not touching each other but are lines up in rows and columns. The teacher is usually only able to walk from the front to the back in this set up, not walk from side to side without making students move. Before assigning seats to children the teacher needs to do a sociogram. The teachers need to quickly map social interactions between and amongst students so they know where to place the children.



Desk rows type (photo from Ramsden's website)

Also, they need to decide which students can handle being in the back of the classroom. The students are in a perfect test taking arrangement if the teacher is monitoring the class. In this situation the teacher's philosophy is probably more adult-run and direct instruction. The students are all facing the teacher and can see the blackboard, overhead projector, screen and other instructional aids. It is easy for the teacher to monitor all the students.

The problem with this arrangement is some students are going to have to sit in the corners and in the back of the room. In these locations in the classroom students participate and interact less and more behavioral problems occur. This arrangement is also not good for group work or projects. Taking the time to have the students get into groups and move their desks is taking away important instructional time during the school day. Desk rows are very common in the older grades where numerous amounts of tests are given and direct instruction is prevalent.



## Table rows

This type of seating positions consists of long tables that are placed in rows that are perpendicular to the front and back of the room. The students sit next and across from each other. This set-up is typically found in science labs and writing workshops. It is a good arrangement for group work and large group projects. The philosophy of the teacher who would set up their classroom with table rows is probably collaborative learning. They motivate their students by letting them work together, and it helps students learn how to learn. During writing workshops it is easy for students to turn to a person and do a peer editing and to share their work. In science labs it is sensible to have a large table where everyone can see the item and participate.



Table Rows model (cited from: flickr.com)

The problem with this set-up is there are students that are at the end of the tables in the back of the room that will not be able to see during the direct instruction time. Also, it is hard for the teacher to see all the students and watch their faces and behavior. It allows the student for a lot of socializing and it is very bad in a test situation. None of the students are facing the front of the room when sitting at the table. It is hard to have class discussions because the students will not hear each other without moving and looking around to see who is talking. Table rows are good for situations where there is hardly any

direct instruction and students work together to figure out problems and activities. Usually this is found in the middle grades in science classes.

## Semi-circle

Semi-circle seating arrangement is when all the desks touch each other facing the front of the room in a semi-circle shape. The teacher can easily see each student and they can see him/ her and the instructional aids. The philosophies of the teacher using this arrangement can be direct instruction, child run or collaborative. Each philosophy could be implemented into this classroom setting. Because all the students can see each other they can have debates and discussions amongst themselves. The students can give ideas on how they want to do an activity and the seating arrangement could probably accommodate the activity. Also, because the students all have clear vision to the board, direct instruction from the teacher could be very common. The teacher would have full control over the students. The teacher could easily walk around the room and monitor everybody's work. The students would also be able to work together doing projects and activities.



### Semi-circle model (photo from Ramsden's website)

The semi-circle seating arrangement would be bad because the teacher would have a hard time meeting with the students one-on one. This is because the seats are very close to each other. Also, the semi-circle would take up almost the entire classroom so there isn't much room for activities or conferencing outside the desk area. Semi-circle desk arrangement can be used in all grade classrooms and for all educational philosophies. This is because the teacher can have classroom discussions and all the students can see and hear each other well. The teacher can take a passive role and listen to the students and let them run the class. Also, in this arrangement the teacher can run the class giving the student's step by step instructions. All the students are facing the front of the room and have their own space to work. The students can work easily together without much movement because they are sitting directly next to each other which makes hands on activities and collaborative learning possible.

## Pairs

Having the students sit in pairs seating arrangement is when the two students desks are together and spaced away from other pairs. This arrangement allows the teacher to walk around the classroom and monitor all the students. Previous the seating arrangement the teacher needs to decide which students can be paired together and not misbehave or lower their academic stamina. The teacher philosophy is probably a mix between adult run and collaborative learning. Pairs allow the students to work together and independently.



Pairs Seat Model (photo from Ramsden's website)

The students are all facing the teacher and front of the classroom. It is easy to have the students see the instructional aids that could be used. In this situation children can take tests and the teacher can easily monitor. They can do activities and learn cooperatively. The downfall of pair seating arrangements is again that there are students that will be in the back and the corners of the room. Also, this arrangement doesn't allow for much class discussion because the students are not facing each other and it is hard to hear and see who is talking. To allow the children to work together is necessary for the teacher to make sure the class as a whole can have a partner and work together. It is important that the teacher picks out the pairs so there isn't anyone left out. Pair seating arrangement is found more in fourth, fifth or sixth grades where students take more responsibility for their actions and behaviors.

### 3.3. Summary

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There are several important things that can be summarized for this chapter:

- Four principles of how teachers use their physical presence in class: proximity, appropriacy, movement and contact.
- There are at least eight model of seating arrangements: Orderly rows, Circle and Horseshoes, Separate tables, Clusters, Desk Rows , Table Rows , Semi-circle, and Pairs.
- Each of seating arrangement has advantages and disadvantages.

# 4. TEACHING APPROACHES FOR BEGINNING LEVEL

## 4.1. Useful approaches for teaching beginning level

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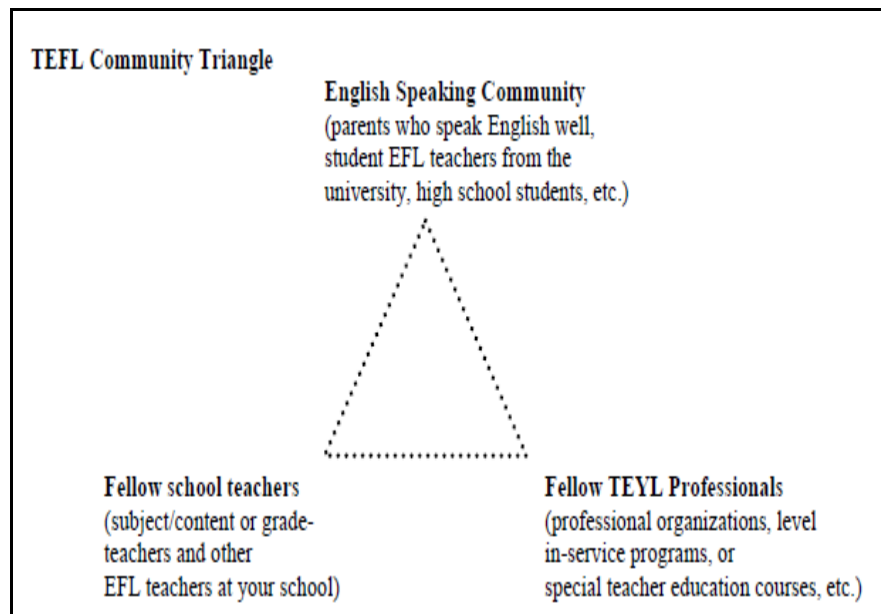
Joan Kang Shin (2006), in the English Teaching Forum (Vol. 44, No. 2) published by the U.S. Department of State's Office of English Language Programs. Teaching English to beginning level is a rapidly growing field around the world, and English education is increasingly found at the primary levels. However, starting earlier is not necessarily the solution for producing better English speakers. Therefore, the useful approaches for teaching beginning level are below.

<b>1. Supplement activities with visuals, realia, and movement.</b>	
Young learners tend to have short attention spans and a lot of physical energy. In addition, children are very much linked to their surroundings and are more interested in the physical and the tangible. As Scott and Ytreberg (1990) describe, "Their own understanding comes through hands and eyes and ears. The physical world is dominant at all times."	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▪ Use brightly colored visuals, toys, puppets or objects</li><li>▪ Community donations for toys and objects</li><li>▪ Create a "Visuals and Realia Bank"</li><li>▪ Use Total Physical Response (TPR) by James Asher (1977) See: Use TPR Storytelling by Blaine Ray <a href="http://www.blaineraytprs.com/">http://www.blaineraytprs.com/</a></li></ul>

<b>2. Involve students in making visuals and realia.</b>	
<p>Having children involved in creating the visuals that are related to the lesson helps engage students in the learning process by introducing them to the context as well as to relevant vocabulary items. Students are more likely to feel interested and invested in the lesson and will probably take better care of the materials (Moon 2000).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Students draw different characters for a story or make puppets, masks, play-do sculptures</li> <li>▪ Collaborate with the art teacher to make the visuals you need for you activities</li> <li>▪ Students contribute their own toys for the lesson (“Show and tell”)</li> </ul>
<b>3. Move from activity to activity.</b>	
<p>Young learners have short attention spans. For ages 5–7, Keep activities around 5 and 10 minutes long. For ages 8–10, keep activities 10 to 15 minutes long. Scott and Ytreberg (1990) suggest creating a balance between the activities in the column on the right side.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Quiet/noisy exercises</li> <li>▪ Different skills: listening/talking/reading/writing</li> <li>▪ Individual/ pairwork/ groupwork/ whole class activities</li> <li>▪ Teacher-pupil/ pupil-pupil activities</li> </ul>
<p><b>4. Teach in themes.</b> A thematic unit, a series of lessons on the same topic or subject, can create broader contexts in which to teach language, recycle language from lesson to lesson, and allow students to focus more</p>	<p>Common themes for YLs: animals, friends, family, environment, citizenship, shopping, or units revolving around a storybooks, websites, celebrities, or movies students like Themes based on curricula from students’ other subjects are also effective (Haas 2000)</p>

on content and communication than on language structure.	
<b>5. Use stories and contexts familiar to students.</b>	
Use of stories and contexts in home country or culture can help YLs connect English with their background knowledge, which is limited because of their young age and inexperience.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Take a favorite story in the L1 and translate it into English</li> <li>▪ Allow students a chance to personalize content every lesson</li> </ul>
<b>6. Establish classroom routines in English.</b>	
YLs function well within a structured environment and enjoy repetition of certain routines and activities. Having basic routines in the classroom can help to manage young learners.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Clap short rhythms for students to repeat.</li> <li>▪ Start the lesson with song or chant</li> <li>▪ Add classroom language to the routines as well</li> </ul>
<b>7. Use L1 as a resource when necessary.</b>	
Use L1 in the classroom as a resource for forwarding the learning process without becoming too reliant on it. Concentrate on building communicative skills. Save your time for the target language actually within students' reach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Quickly make a difficult expression comprehensible by translating into L1</li> <li>▪ Use L1 for complicated directions for activities</li> </ul>
<b>8. Bring in helpers from the community</b>	
<b>9. Collaborate with other teachers in your school.</b>	
<b>10. Communicate with other TEYL professionals.</b>	





## 4.2. Summary

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There several important things to be summarized in this chapter:

- Teaching children is very challenging. The challenge is how to make children enjoyable, supported, full of practice, meaningful, purposeful, and social interaction.
- The useful approaches for teaching language to children:
  - Supplement activities with visuals, realia, and movement.
  - Involve students in making visuals and realia.
  - Move from activity to activity
  - Teach in themes.
  - Use stories and contexts familiar to students.
  - Establish classroom routines in English.
  - Use L1 as a resource when necessary
  - Bring in helpers from the community
  - Collaborate with other teachers in your school.
  - Communicate with other TEYL professionals.

## 4.3. Further Discussion

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- What are the challenges of teaching young learners and very young learners?
- Are there differences of teaching YL and VYL in town and in remote areas? If yes, Explain!
- How important approaches to teaching English for YL?
- Have you ever experienced teaching with one of the approaches above? If no, will you use them?

# 5. TEACHING LISTENING TO BEGINNERS

## 5.1. Listening for beginners

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It is interesting to note that listening is the skill that children acquire first, particularly if they have not yet learnt to read. Scott and Ytreberg (2004) suggested several essential elements for teachers to take into account when teaching listening to children. First, since students learn foreign language by listening as the main source of the language, teachers should incorporate much of visual materials, facial expression, movements, mime and pictures. Second, it is worth remembering too that if a teacher mentions a word or a thing in a foreign language only once, then it may disappear easily. Therefore, it is important to say things clearly and to repeat them. For example when you are telling a story, you don't have to tell it from the beginning to end without breaks. You can always re-tell it again and again as you go along. "the story starts on a nice, sunny Sunday morning. Faiqa and Naila are...where are they? In the forest. Right. They are in the forest. And what are they doing? They are picking mangoes. So, it's a nice, sunny Sunday morning, and Faiqa and Nailah are in the forest picking mangoes. Third, children normally have very short attention span when they are learning foreign language. So, it is vital not overload children and not focus on one item for longer periods when you are working on listening tasks

## 5.2. Several strategies of teaching listening

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The new language is introduced with support from the teachers' gestures. Pinter (2012:50) suggested two different ways which help children grasp the meaning; first, children join in with the actions, and second, teachers point to the pictures. Most children would probably want to join the action and together point the pictures that have been said by teachers. In addition, the other strategy for teaching listening can grow out of Total Physical Responses (TPR). For example, there are so called 'listen and respond' activities such as 'listen and clap your hands', or 'Simon says'. In these activities children have to listen and understand messages, decide whether they are right or wrong, and act accordingly. Other activities such as 'Listen and draw the picture' or 'Listen and colour in clown's clothes' include drawing or colouring. Yet other exercises include simple ticking or circling or require some writing, such as true and false. Many of these are focused 'listen and do' exercises with an end product such as a picture, a colourful clown, or an animal mask to take home to show parents. Because of the focused nature of these tasks, it is easy for the teacher to monitor what children have understood from the listening text. These activities not only give excellent listening practice but also offer opportunities for incorporating into English class multiple intelligences through sticking, colouring, and making simple objects.

## 5.3. Aspect of difficulty in listening

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There are two difficulties encountered by very young learners and learners when they learn foreign language. The first difficulty is the type and length of the text the children listen to. The text and the length are too long and the contents sometimes are not familiar to

students. The second difficulty is the familiarity of the person whom they are listening to (Pinter, 2012). It is easier to listen to the teacher than to recordings because teachers can adjust the speed of their speech and modify their language. Teacher can also repeat messages and use gestures and facial expressions to help children to work out meaning. What also makes a difference is the response the children need to make before, while, or after they listen.

## 5.4. Activities for listening

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There are a number of suggested listening activities for very young learners and young learners.

### *Listen and do activities*

a. Moving activity

Children would love moving activities when they are learning foreign language. The examples of moving exercises are “close the door, open the door, count up to ten then walk to the board, etc”. It is important to modeling the activity first, then repeat for several times, and finally ask the students to do it. If the children do not understand at first, they can still watch others do then they can do similar things as others do. The language elements for these exercises include simple vocabulary relating to movement, counting, and spelling words.

b. Raising your hand up

There are a lot of different kinds of exercises that can be used for teaching children to put their hands up, for example by counting numbers, mentioning colours, and mentioning things' names. Children can put their hands up when they reach number 'five' as they exercise to count the numbers.

c. Miming

It is an interesting activity for every child because they can perform some simple vocabulary. In mime story, teachers and students do the actions, for example: a teacher is performing, “listen to music” for several times. Then the children should guess what the teacher is doing, by saying, what am I doing? Or if children do the activities, you can ask, what is he or she doing now?.

d. Drawing

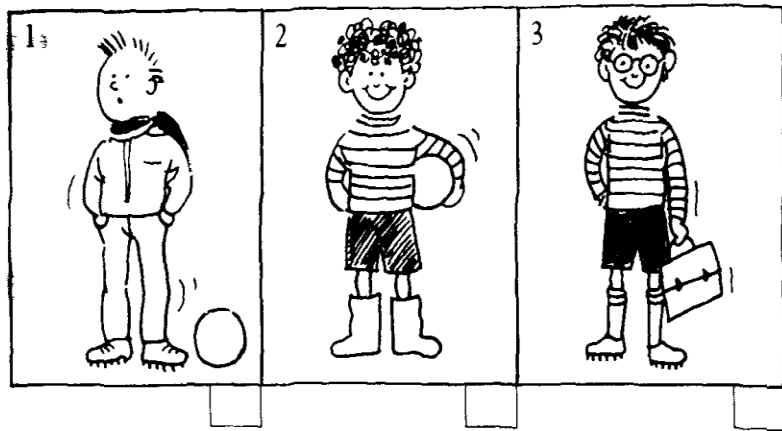
The most important thing to take into account for this activity is keeping this one simple because children like to draw some simple things. Some of the objects are surrounding schools, home and community. The procedures are teachers mention the words to students several times and the students draw it on board or in the books depending on the condition of the class.

***Listen for specific information***

a. Recognizing picture

Teachers will show explain the picture and then students will guess which picture is it. This activity as suggested by Scott and Ytreberg:

Has anyone seen this boy? He has dark hair and big ears. He is wearing rubber boots and carrying a football. He has strip shirt and short. Which one is that?



Adapted from Scott and Ytreberg's book.

b. Recognizing mistake

Teacher can use pictures and tell students about the picture, but some part of the story are not correct. So the students should correct the words mentioned by teachers based on the picture they have seen. Teachers will do this for several times.

c. Arranging things in order

Teacher can use the card below as the example to ask students put things in order from card "A" to card "TEN". Teachers may list a number of objects in the class and ask students to arrange them based on the functions or its shape.



d. Filling tables

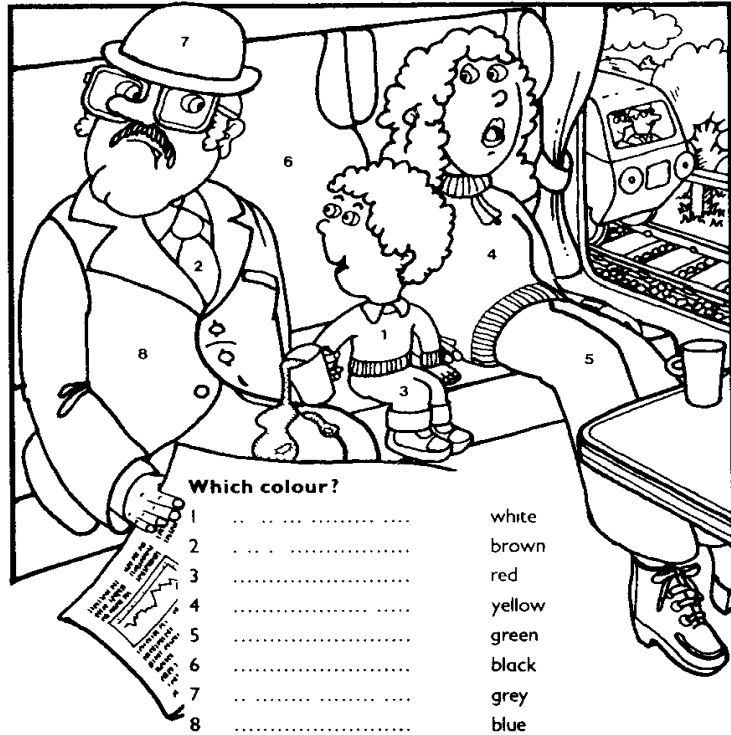
Teachers may use table or questionnaire to perform this activity. Teachers will read the story that is related to tables, while students are listening to teachers and filling the column with the words they hear from the teacher, as the example below:

Names of students	How many books do they have	How many bags do they have?
Nailah		
Faiqa		
Yuyun		
Irfan		

e. Colouring

Students will colour the picture based on the teacher's instruction. The instruction can also be written in the picture as sample below. Firstly, teacher will mention the colour what people are wearing. Second, students will colour the picture based on teachers' commands.





Adapted from Scott and Ytreberg's book

***Listen and repeat activities***

a. Rhymes

A rhyme means a word which has the same last sound as another word. Every child will love this activity because it is fun and enjoyable. For example : *Bat and 'cat' rhyme, 'Side' and 'hide' rhyme, 'Hit' and 'sit' rhyme, I love coffee-I love tea.* Then students will repeat what they have heard from their teachers.

b. Listening and creating songs

Songs are part of listen and repeat activities because students listen to the songs and then they repeat after that. The interesting part of the activity is that teacher may not depend on the available song, but they may create their own song based on the local surrounding or atmosphere. The example of songs below:

c. Listening to stories

The younger the students are, the shorter time they can focus on the lesson. Therefore, the story should not quite long and easy to remember for both teachers and students. Initially, teachers will write down setting of the story on board and then tell a story.

## 5.5. Summary

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- a. Listening for beginners: listening is the first language skill to be acquired by children
- b. Several strategies for teaching listening: involving children and TPR
- c. Aspect of difficulty in listening: familiarity and length and type of text
- d. Activities for listening: listen and do, listen for specific information, and listen and repeat activities.

# 6. TEACHING SPEAKING FOR BEGINNING LEVEL

## 6.1. Speaking for beginners

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Speaking skill is one of the challenging skills for every student when she or he learns a foreign language. However, the most essential thing is that every activity created for children should be fun, enjoyable, communicative, and motivated them to keen learning a foreign language. Fun means children feel happy with the activity created by teachers. Enjoyable means they are enthusiastic to participate at any speaking activity. Communicative means that every activity or game should involve students to get it through or to perform the activity. Motivated means students are eager to know what the next activity they want to do with others or with their teachers. It is also important to note that children like simple, involvement and repetitive activities in speaking.

Harmer (2003) describe into three terms: rehearsal, feedback, and engagement. Rehearsal refers to provide opportunity which allows children to repeat the language they have known outside classroom context or provide classroom activity where they can the language as it feels like real context. Feedback deals with every activity which is performed by students should have feedback at the end of it either from teachers or other students in order to show them the correct language. Engagement is that any speaking activity should engage them emotionally so that they can enjoy lesson well.

## 6.2. Several strategies for teaching speaking

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There are two important strategies in teaching speaking for very young learners and young learners. The first is through controlled speaking activity (guided speaking activity), and the second is free speaking activity. Controlled speaking activity is the exercise which is designed for students to get involved in speaking by providing all the necessary language required to complete the task. Free speaking activity is designed for students to get involved in a natural learning atmosphere without providing any necessary language required to complete the task. Both controlled and free speaking activities should include the criteria as suggested by Brown (2001) that is keep them short, keep them simple, keep them interactive, and keep them active.

## 6.3. Aspect of difficulty in speaking

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Scott and Ytreberg (2004) said that it is very difficult to ask young learners of English to speak if they don't have language input in advance. It is unavoidable for children to insert their native language when they are learning English especially if they can't find the word in English. The other difficulty is that finding the balance between providing language through controlled activities and at the same time letting them enjoy natural talk. Most of our students have little chance to practice speaking English outside the classroom and therefore it is highly needed to practice speaking a lot when they are in class.

## 6.4. Activities for speaking

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There are several suggested activities for speaking of very young learners and young learners of English

### **The Yes game**

Students get one point for each question they ask that you truthfully answer “Yes” to, e.g. “Are you British?” “Are you a teacher?” and “Are you sitting down?” They can then ask each other questions in the same way. You can also move onto getting points for each “No” answer, e.g. “Are you a dog?” You can also make this more intensive language practice by telling them they must get a particular short answer from you, e.g. “Yes, I am” or “Yes, I have”

### **Question chains**

This game is good for making a challenge out of tedious questions like “How old are you?” and “Where are you from?” Ask the student sitting at the end of the row a simple question such as “What is your name?” and pass them something to represent the question, e.g. a magnetic number 1 or a board pen. Gesture that they should ask the same question to you and pass the thing back to you. Answer the question, go to the other end of the class and ask the same question to the student sitting there, passing the same object. Then pass them another (different) object while asking another question, e.g. “How are you (today)?” After they have answered that question, demonstrate and explain that they should pass the same two objects in the same order to the person next to them, asking the same question each time. After they have done that, give them a third object and get them to make up their own question to ask the same person. When that person has answered, they should pass the same three objects while asking the same three questions, then add their own fourth

question. Continue, increasing the number of questions each time. The game can finish when you reach a nice round number (e.g. ten objects and numbers), goes all round the class, or reaches such a large number that they give up. You can also play the same game in groups.

An easier to play variation is for each student to repeat just the last person's question then add their own, so that each person is remembering one question and making one question. You can add an element of challenge by telling them that their new question can't be one that has been used before. An even simpler version is to get them to take turns asking questions, with anyone who repeats a question that has already been used losing a point.

### **Find someone who**

This is a well known language learning game where students mingle and ask each other questions to find which person the fact they have on their worksheet is true for. This activity is good for waking students up by getting them out of their chairs and is also good practice for "Nice to meet you" and introductions. In low level classes you can't do this with true information about the students as they will have told each other everything they can in the language they have available (e.g. names, jobs and ages) many times already. That being the case, you will need to give each person a roleplay cards with some personal information about their "new" self, plus one worksheet with the information they should be searching for. The Find Someone Who worksheets can be the same for each student or different for each person. They then stand up and go round the class asking questions until they find out that this person is Nailah, this person is 7 years old, this person is a seven year old film star etc, then sit down when they think they have found all the information. As you can see from these examples, it is possible to add a little humour by your choice of roleplay sentences. You can add more speaking to the game by

students passing on all the information they have found out so far to the person they speaking to.

### **Very simple roleplays**

This is another way of livening up revising the same old personal questions yet again. Ask students to give imaginary answers to all the questions that they have asked, giving them one or two prompts such as a name or job to get them started. While this on its own is fun, you may find that the person asking the question will have no real reason to listen to the answers. One way of taking away this problem is to ask the person who asked to questions to report back to the class, and then for everyone to find similarities between people's stories, e.g. how many answered "I am Spanish" when they were given the roleplay card saying "Your name is Esteban"

### **I don't know**

Students have to ask each other questions that they get the real response "I don't know" for, e.g. "What is this called in English" while pointing at a shoe lace or "When is his birthday?" with a classmate or a photo of a famous person. As all the questions are about things they aren't expected to know, this often helps students get over their embarrassment at not knowing the answers most of the time in class.

### **Guess who**

Prepare at least ten information cards about real or imaginary people on a worksheet, including data such as names, ages, nationalities, likes and jobs. Students ask Y/ N questions until they can guess which person on the worksheet you have chosen. The cards should be designed so that the people have lots of things in common, e.g. mainly from one country or only two jobs amongst the ten people.

If you are sure they will know all the information, you can play the same game with just a list of famous people's names.

### **Puzzles**

Draw up a worksheet similar to that described above, but with only between four and eight people on it. Make a blank version of that table for the students and a list of six to twelve hints by which they can fill in all the missing information, e.g. "Three people are British", "The person who isn't British isn't a dentist", "Two people are dentists and two people are doctors" etc.

### **Test each other on the text**

Another thing that you can't do with very low level students is have very interesting comprehension questions for reading texts. You can partly make up for this by having students test each other's memory on what was written in the text, e.g. names, times they do things, jobs etc. If they haven't studied third person s yet, you can do the same thing but with the person answering the questions taking on the role of the person in the text.

### **Test each other on each other**

You can do something similar to the activity above by students testing each other on what they know about their classmates. Again, if they don't know third person s yet they can take on the role of their classmate when they ask the questions and so answer them with "I..." and "My..."

### **Disappearing text**

Another fun memory game with short reading texts and dialogues is to delete the text one word at a time, with the student



whose turn it is reciting the whole thing from the words left on the board and memory and then choosing the next word to be deleted.

### **Shadow reading**

Another way of making dialogues more memorable and interesting is to have students read it out while the tape is playing, trying to match the rhythm and speed of the recording. When they've got the hang of this, turn down the volume half way through and see if they are still more or less in time when you turn it back up right at the end. Try this a few times and stop when they have made a big improvement or got close

### **Sentence hangman**

This is like the opposite of Disappearing Text above. Write the first letter of a dialogue that they haven't seen before (but that is made from language that they have studied before) or haven't seen for a while up on the board. All the students or just one team get one chance to guess the next letter. The teacher then writes that second letter up so that they can check if their guess was right, and this continues until the whole text is up on the board. You can make the challenge easier by always giving the first letter of the next new word after you finish the last one, so that they only have to guess from the second letter each time. If you want to score, you can give one point for each right guess or put a line into a hangman for each wrong guess-but note that for a long dialogue there will be many more mistakes than in a normal game of hangman so you'll need to give them more chances with a hangman that has fingers, eyebrows etc.

### **Say it happily etc**

Low level students can need quite a lot of drilling and reading out of dialogues, which can quickly get boring and anyway they might have a negative impression of due to having done it in their previous, unsuccessful attempts at language learning. One way to liven it up is to ask them to do the same dialogue with different feeling in their voices such as “bored” and “excited”. Their classmates can then guess which feeling they were trying to do and/ or compete to make the most extreme version

### **Dialogue substitution chains**

After students have read out a short dialogue together, ask them to read it out again but changing one piece of information (without writing it down) such as a name. The next person reads it out with the last person’s change and making one more change themselves, e.g. a time. This continues until students can’t remember the previous changes or can’t think of any new ones

### **Change the performance memory game**

This is similar to the idea above, but with the students listening with their books closed and trying to spot the information that has been changed from their memory of the dialogue. You can also ask students to make the dialogue wrong by taking out words, putting extra words in, changing words around, changing lines of the dialogue around, etc.

### **Match the questions and answers pairwork dictations**

Matching questions and answers (“How are you?” “I’m fine, thank you”) is a tedious but perhaps necessary exercise at this level, but one you can add some more interest and speaking to. Give one student a worksheet with all the questions, and the other student a worksheet with all the responses mixed up. Without showing their

sheets to each other, they have to match up the questions and answers by reading them out and agreeing which ones go together. You can add a puzzle element and therefore some fun to this by the letters that represent the responses making a word (e.g. (t)(a)(b)(l)(e)) when they are written in the same order as the questions.

### **Gapfill pairwork dictations**

This is another boring task that can be livened up by giving the gapped sentences to one student and the missing words mixed up to the other student and getting them to match them up as described above.

### **The clap clap clap game**

Students sit in a circle and all clap three times. The person whose turn it is should say a word that hasn't been said before in the category you are practising, e.g. months, jobs, countries or colours, on the fourth beat. This continues until someone says something that has been said before or pauses too long.

### **Tennis**

If you have taught students pairs of words like “she- her”, “England- English” or “act- actor”, you can get them practising them by one person “serving” one of the root words and the other trying to “return serve” by saying the matching word.

### **Spies**

To play this game you will need someone who has never been in the class such as another teacher, another member of the staff in the school, a student from another class, a student who is joining the class next week, or someone communicating by computer or telephone on

conference. Tell some of the students in the class that they should swap identity and some that they should keep their own identity, then let them practice answering questions as themselves or as their classmate. The unknown person then enters the class (or starts the form of distance communication you are using), asks questions and tries to work out (from body language, pauses etc) who is answering as themselves and who is answering as someone else. You can do the same thing by getting students to record each other answering the questions and getting someone to do the guessing after the class, reporting back to the students on how well they did in fooling that person.

### **What's My Line?**

This is the same as the game above, but with everyone in the class answering each question in the same person's role (saying "I am Juan Miguel" all around the class in answer to "What's your name?" etc), and then the person who asked the question has to work out which one person was telling the truth.

The above games are adapted from: [Edition.tefl.net/speaking\\_game-14 February 2012](http://Edition.tefl.net/speaking_game-14_February_2012).

### **Change word substitution**

Teacher : I have a book. a pen

Student : I have a pen

Teacher : Bag

Student : I have a bag

Teacher : want

Student : I want a bag

We should be creative to create the substitution words for attract students' attention and curiosity. The simple statement for the

first could give for students and then grade in to complete one.

### **Points the sentence**

Example:

I hate eat ice cream

Like to Play foot ball

Love Go to the cinema

Point one of statement and the student try to say it in a good sentence. For the note, increase the speed points in each parts. Modification is needed.

### **Give the number for students**

I hate to Ice cream. Play foot ball, 3

Students had number 3 must be respond it. I hate to play foot ball

Then continue with other word, and change it for every students , might be better.

Writes a dialogue and Rubs out some of the words

For the first, give the students many sentences and ask them read completely. At the mid of sentences the teacher can rubs out some of word such as a, the, in, of, it, or etc. Next , the students try to guess it by memorize it, till they familiar about the sentence completely.

Try example below:

My mother cook Nasi Goreng (fried rice) every Sunday morning, but some times we can taste other menus like fried noodle and so on.

The teacher can rubs out the words of cook, but or like and then students complete it.

(<http://syafnihanifah.wordpress.com/2011/04/28/creative-design-for-teaching-speaking-beginner-level/>, 13 february 2012).

## 6.5. Summary

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- a. Speaking for beginners: simple, fun, motivated and enjoyable
- b. Several strategies for teaching speaking: controlled and free speaking activities
- c. Aspect of difficulty in speaking: balancing free and controlled speaking activities and lack of vocabulary input.
- d. Activities for speaking: different ranges of games such as yes game, gap filling, puzzles, etc.

# 7. TEACHING READING

## 7.1. Reading for beginners

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Oral work has become the first resource for children to acquire foreign language. Then the second main source of children learning English is through written materials. As soon as they get matured and old enough, they start to familiarize themselves with the printed materials such as reading and writing. Reading should become enjoyable exercise for children through short meaningful reading passages and related to children's world.

Harmer (2001) believed that reading at early stages of children is useful exposure to English writing such as the way to construct sentences, and is useful for language acquisition such as vocabulary, grammar, and punctuation. Reading is also good exercise to build the culture of reading among children in order to become their hobbies or their interests.

## 7.2. Several Strategies for teaching listening

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Many young children between five to ten years of age are in the process of learning to read in their mother tongue (Scott & Ytreberg, 2004). There is a question for this age whether or not children have mastered their native language alphabet will strongly influence them in initial stages of teaching reading in English. Scott and Ytreberg research found that the children of German and Japan at the age of nine will already be familiar with most of the technique of reading-with word divisions, sentence links, paragraphs, how letters relate to sounds, how the illustrations help children understand what

is going on. I do believe as well many of Indonesian children whose age of nine will have been familiarized with some of reading clues like conjunctions, prepositions, and picture illustrations.

There several approach for teaching reading of English to children. First is scanning which aims to provide skills to children to search detail information in text such as date, month, year or specific events. The application of scanning to children is through reading words and phrases, such as today is February 14 2012 (today is, February 14, 2012). Second is skimming which deals with getting general information or idea of what the text is about. The application of skimming to children is through reading whole sentence not looking separated words and phrases, such as my full name are Faiqa Khaira Lubna.

### 7.3. Aspect of difficulty in reading

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It is quite challenging for children whose mother tongue's alphabet is not roman script. So it takes more steps for them go through when they are learning to read in English (Scott and Ytreberg, 2004). The other difficulty is that students of young ages who haven't mastered how to read in their native language will find themselves hard to read the short English passages. In addition, if reading passage is not equipped with picture illustration, it may not attract young learners to read the text. Finally, reading will only become passive activity for children if it doesn't involve moving activities such as they have to write down on board the word children find in the passage.

### 7.4. Activities for reading

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There are several suggested activities for reading:



### ***Reading from a story book***

Teacher will read a story from a book which may come from folklore or traditional story and may take from up to date story of what is going on around us today. Scott and Ytreberg (2004: 54) provide sample story for children:

That's a bird. It's green.  
That's a butterfly. It's red  
That's a fish. It's blue  
That's a crab. It's yellow  
That's a cat. It's white  
I'm an elephant. I am grey  
That's an elephant. It's super  
I am an elephant and I am super

The above story can be done repeatedly to students until they can perform and read it correctly. The story reading can be done in group of three or in pairs.

### ***Creating and reading story***

This is an interesting exercise for teacher and children when they are in class or outside classroom. The procedures are:

- a. Teacher provides sample of how to create story
- b. Teacher models the story for several times
- c. Teacher provides vocabulary relating to the story that he or she wants to create.
- d. Teacher asks one student to be sample to create sentence from the words provided on board

- e. Both teacher and student read the story and this exercise is done repeatedly.

The example of creating story is below:

Teacher: That's...

Student: a book

Teacher: It's...

Student: Pink

Teacher: Yes, That's a book. It's pink

### ***Reading from picture***

Teacher can always find an interesting picture which is taken from local or surrounding environment. It is a nice activity if it is an authentic material. The picture can also be taken from the student's drawing class. We can use it as the main source of reading from the picture. The example of student's drawing is below:



Adapted from Scott and Ytreberg (2004: 55)

From the picture, a teacher may ask several questions for example, what can you see in the picture? If students lack of vocabulary, a teacher may prompt it such as it's a....a horse, etc.

### ***Reading a loud***

It is an exciting exercise if a teacher can build daily reading habits for whole class by reading a loud a story together. This can be a motivating activity for students and can be a good start of building a reader's holic (a person who loves reading) as early as possible. The text of reading a loud can be taken from folklore or modern story of what is happening around us today.

*Matching topics and picture*

The pictures for the activity can be also taken from around the school or local publication. The example is below:

<p>What is in the picture?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>a. Modern port</li><li>b. Poatere port of Makassar</li><li>c. Hasanudin airport</li><li>d. Daya bus terminal</li></ul>	 <p><a href="http://berizikbanget.blogspot.com">berizikbanget.blogspot.com</a></p>
<p>What building is it?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>a. A tall building from Jakarta</li><li>b. A phinisi tower of UNM</li><li>c. A graham pena Makassar</li><li>d. A bosowa tower</li></ul>	 <p><a href="http://fsdunm.wordpress.com">fsdunm.wordpress.com</a></p>

<p>What house is it?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Traditional house from Papua</li> <li>Traditional house from Minang</li> <li>Tongkonan , a traditional house from Toraja</li> <li>Traditional house from Bima</li> </ol>	 <p style="text-align: center;">kinko.wordpress.com</p>
--	---

The above pictures are the example of local authentic materials that can be found around us. Teacher doesn't have to use some pictures which may unfamiliar for them. These pictures attach emotionally to children because they are around them. This activity can be done in group with the procedures as follow:

- Teacher puts students in several groups
- Each group will compete each other to choose the best topic of the picture.
- Teacher will show the picture on board or through LCD projector and students have to guess what it is
- A group who achieve more points will be the leading group.

### ***Reading a song***

There are many children songs for education. Teachers may also use local songs if they can translate them into English. The procedures of this activity:

- a. Teacher provide songs and the copy it to every child
- b. Teacher models how to read the song
- c. Then students follow the teachers
- d. After reading it, a teacher and students will sing together

The example of song for children as follow:

Thank you

By **Jaycie Voorhees**

When someone does something nice I tell them Thank You  
When someone does something nice I tell them Thank You  
Thank you thank you thank you thank you  
When someone does something nice I tell them thank you

When Mommy gives me food to eat, I tell her thank you...  
When someone shares a toy with me, I tell them thank  
you...

When teacher helps me tie my shoe, I tell her thank you...

(taken from

<http://www.songsforteaching.com/store/music-in-my-mouth-pr-8511.html>. This song is available on CD

### *Silent reading activities*

Teacher may ask students to perform silent reading activities in some stages of teaching reading. This silent reading activity will help to establish students' confidence. Teachers may use local authentic materials or international topics which teachers may find around them. This activity aims to the exposure of the reading habits and aims to build the culture of good reader.

### *Reading from cards*

Teacher may provide a collection of cards containing story which can folklore or modern story. The card is stored in the class and then it can be taken whenever children want to read or a classroom group reading activity. The card contains a series of story or a summary of local story as the example below:

#### La Upe Story

##### *Buginese Folklore*

La Upe was a motherless buginese boy who lived in traditional kampong. He's tortured by his step mothers when whe was young. He fell in love with princess, however at first he was refused by king. After the princess got stuck in the door, La Upe released her with his magic. Finally, La Upe got married with princess and lived happily.

A summary of story from: [ceritarakyatnusantara.com](http://ceritarakyatnusantara.com)

## 7.5. Summary

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- a. Reading for beginners: reading is the second source of learning foreign language
- b. Several strategies for teaching reading: scanning and skimming
- c. Aspect of difficulty in reading: children is unable to read English
- d. Activities for reading: reading story, creating story, reading from picture, reading from songs.



# 8. TEACHING WRITING

## 8.1. Writing for beginners

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Writing activity may only be successful if children can already write in their native language or in the process of developing writing ability (Scott & Ytreberg, 2004). Writing is a skill which required the language inputs including vocabulary, grammar, and punctuations have been introduced or embedded in children. Some children may find this activity become enjoyable especially when they have mastered their native language and have been exposure with English. According to Harmer (2001), before setting the writing task for elementary level students, teachers should make it sure that students have enough language competency to complete the task. Therefore, it is important for teachers to introduce the kinds of language elements to be used for writing task.

## 8.2. Several strategies for teaching writing

---

There are two essential strategies for teachers to be used in children writing. First is controlled writing which refers to the writing activity based on the picture, map, physical environment around classroom or school that has been provided by teachers. While the second is free writing activity where students are trying to create a sentence or several sentences based on children's imagination, experiences, and ideas. The topics are also based on children's interests.

The stages of writing for beginning follow Barbara Allman et al (2000) suggestions: prewriting, drafting, revising, and publishing.

Prewriting—activities to generate ideas for writing. Motivate students to write by means of discussions, questions, games, illustrations, brainstorming activities, etc. At this stage of the writing process, ask your students to take these steps:

- Think about the topic or theme of writing.
- Form ideas, gather information, brainstorm, read, and observe.
- Think about words or phrases you want to say.

Drafting—The first writing. As they begin to write, tell your students to keep in mind to focus on writing theme or topic. Offer your students support and encouragement, answer questions, and confer with them. During the drafting stage of the writing process, instruct your students to take these steps:

- Organize your thoughts by using mind-mapping.
- Choose ideas and develop them.
- Sequence your ideas.
- Write your first draft.
- Get feedback from others.

Revising—Reevaluation and editing for students writing. Teach your students to consider the suggestions of their peers, rearrange ideas, and make changes to make their writing more clear.

Publishing—Sharing writing with other students. Publishing the writing may take any number of forms, such as displaying it around the class, reading it aloud, binding it into a portfolio, or talking about it with others.

## 8.3. Aspect of difficulty in writing

---

Writing is quite challenging skill for young children to master. It is different from the oral skill. The complexity of writing skill deals with the aspects where any children have to have enough language input in advance including the mechanical writing elements such as neatness, punctuations etc, let alone not to mention the idea to get the writing is starting. Another thing is that writing is not easy thing to do since many children take longer time to master this skill.

## 8.4 Activities for writing

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### *Straight copying writing activities*

Teachers may provide a collection of beautiful writing to use for teaching writing in classroom. It can be from local story or modern story or any related interesting issues that may attract students' attention and motivation to write. It is a little bit easier for students that familiar with writing, but it's quite challenging for students who are yet to learn to write. Teachers need to help those children by prompting them words or sentences they would like to write. Straight copying can only be done at early stages of writing especially for those who have just learned how to write.

### *Read- erase-reproduce*

This activity helps students to activate their cognitive aspect because this activity involves memory to learn by heart the sentence, erase, and reproduce the sentence again. The procedures of this game:

- a. Teacher write a short and simple sentence on board
- b. Teacher allows students to memorize the sentence for few seconds

- c. Teacher erase the sentence on board
- d. Teacher allows children to re-write the sentence they have memorized in advance.

### *Writing from picture*

Every child likes visual things such as pictures, imaginations, and illustration. This can be very enjoyable and fun for young learner of English. The procedures are:

- a. Teacher provides picture or image
- b. Teacher puts students in several groups
- c. Teacher delivers picture to each group
- d. Teacher set the time for each group to construct the sentences
- e. Teachers allows students to work and discuss in group
- f. If students can't make a sentence, teacher should prompt students by pointing what are the things in picture.
- g. Below are the samples of picture that can be used for writing.

The prompt for students:

*It is .....  
Sultan  
Hasanuddin  
Airport  
Makassar  
It is the Sultan  
Hasanuddin  
Aiport Makassar*



rotyyu.wordpress.com

The other type of prompt for students:

What is it?  
What can you see?  
Where is it?



[darimakassar.com](http://darimakassar.com)

Write anything you see from the picture!



[semuahanyamasalalu.blogspot.com](http://semuahanyamasalalu.blogspot.com)

### ***Dictation- writing activities***

This activity can very guided and controlled by teachers because teachers will dictate any sentences and the students will write

down what they have heard from the dictation. Scott and Ytreberg (2004) provide criteria of dictation for children as follow:

- a. Be short
- b. Be made of sentences that can be said
- c. Have purposes and be connected to work before or comes after
- d. Be read or said at normal speed.

The procedures are:

- a. Teacher provides sentences which based on the above criteria
- b. Teacher allows students to prepare things to write
- c. Teacher dictates the sentences and students write it down
- d. Teacher will say that in a normal speed.

For example:

Faiqa has a new bag.  
She is very happy with it.  
She will bring it to class tomorrow.

The dictation can also be used filling the table as follows:

- a. Dewi has a nice car, but she doesn't have motorbike
- b. Amirah has three necklaces, but she doesn't have ring
- c. Lubna has large houses, but she doesn't have bicycle

The students will write down what they have heard from the teacher's dictation on the grid of the table below.

Name	have	Have not
Dewi		

Amirah		
Lubna		

### ***Writing letter or invitation letter***

This exercise is the other guided writing activity that helps students to write a letter to their friend in classroom or their friend outside classroom. The example of writing is below:

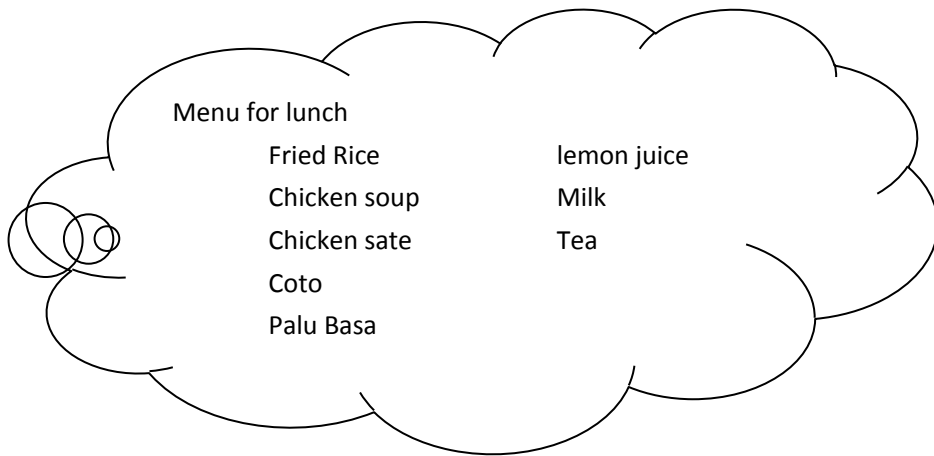
Dear...  
 Please come to my birthday at..... on .....  
 love  
 Nailah

### **Reply letter**

Dear...  
 Thank you I will come at..... on .....  
 love  
 Faiqa

### ***Writing simple menus***

The students will love this writing activity because they are grouped in several pairs and then they may act as chef. The menu can come from what they have eaten everyday or the best food they like to eat most.



### ***Writing short messages***





Many of children nowadays are familiar with the use of mobile phone. It is important to use the mobile as an asset for teaching writing in English. The language for this is quite simple, short and meaningful. It is also a good practice for students to use English as way of communicating with other friends. The activity may use real mobile for students who own it or they may write it down in a piece of paper which then write it on board. So every child can see and provide input to the result of writing.

### ***Writing with certain name of things***

This activity aims to introduce students with some certain grammatical aspects of English. The word 'can' is displayed in the picture as shown below:



**can**

<p>1.  open</p>	<p>2.  closed</p>
<p>3.  empty</p>	<p>4.  full</p>

1. The can is \_\_\_\_\_.

2. The can \_\_\_\_\_.

3. The \_\_\_\_\_.

4. \_\_\_\_\_.





Finish the sentences using the word boxes.

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<http://www.abcteach.com/directory/basics/writing/>

The other example of writing with certain name of things as follow:

**duck**

<p>1.  young</p>	<p>2.  old</p>
<p>3.  swimming</p>	<p>4.  flying</p>

1. The duck is \_\_\_\_\_.

2. The duck \_\_\_\_\_.

3. The \_\_\_\_\_.

4. \_\_\_\_\_.





Complete the sentences using the word boxes.

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<http://www.abcteach.com/directory/basics/writing/>

Another one is using the name of 'hat' as follows:

**hat**

1.  new	2.  old
3.  big	4.  little

1. The hat is \_\_\_\_\_.

2. The hat \_\_\_\_\_.

3. The \_\_\_\_\_.

4. \_\_\_\_\_.

Finish the sentences using the word boxes.

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<http://www.abcteach.com/directory/basics/writing/>

## 8.5. Summary

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- a. Writing for beginners: children have to have enough language input before starting to write
- b. Several strategies for teaching writing: pre-writing, drafting, revising, and publishing
- c. Aspect of difficulty in writing: it requires understanding of writing mechanics
- d. Activities for writing: straight copying, read-erase-reproduce, writing from picture, dictation, letter, and writing menus.

# 9. ASSESSMENT OF BEGINNING LEVEL OF ENGLISH

## 9.1. Defining assessment, evaluation, and testing

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It is clearer and more convenient in English to keep the terms ‘assessment, evaluation and testing distinct, although in other languages their equivalents are sometimes used interchangeably. It is sometimes difficult to differentiate the term of and ‘evaluation, ‘assessment’ and testing:

**Evaluation** is the process of gathering information in order to determine the extent to which a language programme meets its goal. Relevant information can be teachers’ and parents’ opinions, textbook quality, exam results, and children’s attitudes. Some of the tools of evaluation process are tests, questionnaires, textbook analysis and observations

**Assessment** is any systematic way of finding out about **people’s** levels of knowledge or skills, understanding, attitudes, and motivation. Assessment can be carried out through a number of instruments (for example: tests, portfolio) and can be formal or informal. In our case the people are Young Language Learners.

**Testing** is one of the procedures that can be used to assess a child’s performance. A test has a certain objective, for

example, to see to what extent a child has achieved this objective. Testing uses tasks or exercises and assigns marks or grades based on quantifiable result (Georgiou & Pavlou, 2003:4; Rixon, 2005)

Therefore, the differences of assessment, evaluation, and testing are below:

<b>Dimension of Difference</b>	<b>Assessment</b>	<b>Evaluation</b>	<b>Testing</b>
<b>Content:</b> timing, primary purpose	<i>Formative:</i> ongoing, to improve learning	<i>Summative:</i> final, to gauge quality	<i>Instruments for assessment and evaluation</i>
<b>Orientation:</b> focus of measurement	<i>Process- oriented:</i> how learning is going	<i>Product- oriented:</i> what's been learned	<i>Instruments for assessment and evaluation</i>
<b>Findings:</b> uses thereof	<i>Diagnostic:</i> identify areas for improvement	<i>Judgmental:</i> arrive at an overall grade/score	<i>Instruments for assessment and evaluation</i>

## 9.2. Purposes of assessment

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Some children may motivate to learn English because they want to know the improvement of their English ability. However, some children may feel threaten and scared of hearing the word assessment. In English language teaching, assessment is necessary for several purposes as identified by Georgiou & Pavlou (2003):

- To have a record for children progress
- To provide children's with what language elements and skills they have achieved and what language elements and skills they need to improve.
- To see how effective and successful teaching methods and materials used for teaching
- To provide information for parents, colleagues and school authorities.

### 9.3. Assessment processes

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The assessment of language learning of children requires three stages of process: pre-assessment, during assessment, and post assessment processes.

#### Pre-assessment

- Teachers prepare all the required documents for assessment
- Teachers notify students in advance the type and scheme marking assessment
- Teachers inform student the date, the length and the name of students to be assessed.

#### During assessment

- Teachers should conduct assessment on the date that have been informed
- Teachers should explain clearly the task for the assessment: how to do it well
- Teachers should explain clearly the criteria for the assessment
- Teachers should explain how long the tasks need to be completed
- Teachers should explain clearly the rules and regulations during assessment.

- Teachers should tell students the purposes of assessment

#### Post-assessment

- Teachers should provide feedback of the assessment results to students
- Teachers should communicate the result of assessment with parents if necessary
- Teachers should make a good record of the assessment result.

## 9.4. Focus of assessment

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There are two important things to be assessed in children learning: language skill and attitudes (Georgiou & Pavlou, 2003). The skills that teachers are assessing are listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Listening consists of sub-skills which have been taught (see previous chapter 5). The sub-skills are listening specific information, listening for general information, and listening from songs. Speaking also consists of a number of elements such as fluency, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Assessing speaking ability of children will normally focus on communicative ability of a child on asking questions, answering questions and describing simple objects or picture. Reading includes various sub-skills such as reading for specific information (scanning), reading for general information (skimming) and whole understanding of a short story. Finally, writing is considered as the hardest skill for children who involve many elements such as spelling, grammar, punctuations, ideas, and vocabulary.

The assessment of students' attitudes includes the students feelings and motivation (positive and negatives) toward learning

English. This can be done through observation, short questionnaire and a short individual conversation with children.

## 9.5. Forms of assessment

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There are several suggested the forms of foreign language assessment when you are teaching very young learners and young learners: portfolio assessment, learners' projects, self assessment, peer assessment, tests, take-home tasks, and observation (Georgiou & Pavlou, 2003: 12).

### **Language portfolio assessment**

A language portfolio is a collection of samples of work produced by the child over a period of time (Georgiou & Pavlou, 2003: 12). The collection of works involves written work, drawings, projects, a record of book read, recordings, test results, self-assessment records, teacher and parent comments. Portfolio provides a record of what activities or tasks that students have been able to do during a certain period of time.

There are several steps in the portfolio assessment process: first, the teacher and the student need to clearly identify the portfolio contents, which are samples of student work, reflections, teacher observations, and conference records. Second, the teacher should develop evaluation procedures for keeping track of the portfolio contents and for grading the portfolio. Third, the teacher needs a plan for holding portfolio conferences, which are formal and informal meetings in which students review their work and discuss their progress. Because they encourage reflective teaching and learning, these conference are an essential part of the portfolio assessment process (Venn, 2000, p. 540).

The portfolio assessment has advantages and disadvantages. The advantages are:

- Promoting student self-evaluation, reflection, and critical thinking.
- Measuring performance based on genuine samples of student work.
- Providing flexibility in measuring how students accomplish their learning goals.
- Enabling teachers and students to share the responsibility for setting learning goals and for evaluating progress toward meeting those goals.
- Giving students the opportunity to have extensive input into the learning process.
- Facilitating cooperative learning activities, including peer evaluation and tutoring, cooperative learning groups, and peer conferencing.
- Providing a process for structuring learning in stages.
- Providing opportunities for students and teachers to discuss learning goals and the progress toward those goals in structured and unstructured conferences.
- Enabling measurement of multiple dimensions of student progress by including different types of data and materials. (Venn, 2000, p. 538)

While the disadvantages of portfolio assessment are:

- Requiring extra time to plan an assessment system and conduct the assessment.
- Gathering all of the necessary data and work samples can make portfolios bulky and difficult to manage.
- Developing a systematic and deliberate management system is difficult, but this step is necessary in order to make portfolios more than a random collection of student work.



- Scoring portfolios involves the extensive use of subjective evaluation procedures such as rating scales and professional judgment, and this limits reliability.
- Scheduling individual portfolio conferences is difficult and the length of each conference may interfere with other instructional activities. (Venn, 2000, p. 538)

### Learners' project

Language project assessment is usually in group work. The activity includes drawing projects, observing projects, organizing things in order, and environmental projects. The advantage of project is that you are able to assess mixed ability of group, while the disadvantage is that it is difficult to assess at the same time both group work and the contribution of every child to the group's work.

### Self assessment

Self assessment is a type of assessment that is conducted by students themselves. The sheet form of self assessment is provided by teachers which can include questionnaires, journal, or a portfolio. Below is the example of self questionnaire assessment (Adapted from Georgiou & Pavlou, (2003: 179). *Assessment Young Learners*:

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Class: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

No	Items	Yes	No
	Attitude to learning English		
1	I like learning English		
2	I like working with friends		
3	I like listening to teacher		
4	I like to do all my homework		
	Listening		
1	I recognized colours		






2	I can recognize numbers		
3	I can understand short dialogue		
4	I recognize simple things		
	Speaking		
1	I can introduce myself		
2	I can ask someone's name		
3	I can count numbers		
4	I can count from 1-10		
	Reading		
1	I can read short sentences		
2	I can recognize things used at school		
3	I can recognize number		
4	I can read short conversation		
	Writing		
1	I can copy words		
2	I can write her/his name		
3	I can write numbers		
4	I can write colours		

### Peer assessment

This teacher introduces an activity in which children will assess each other's progress in learning recently taught language and grammatical concepts. They will use a clear and simple assessment sheet. Working in pairs children will decide whether their partner can or cannot do the things on the sheet. They will also indicate ways in which their partner can improve. The sample of peer assessment through rubric below:

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Instruction: Color the smiley if you completed each direction.

	Items
	You can count the number from 1 -10
	You can recognize things around the class
	You can recognize and mention colours
	You can introduce your name
	You can introduce other's name

## Testing

This is traditional type of assessment which can include multiple choice questions, true-false statements, and cloze-tests. The advantage of this type assessment is that it is objective, it is easy to mark, and it is easy to prepare. However, the disadvantage of this type of test is that it is intimidating and stressful for children (Georgiou & Pavlou, 2003: 11). This type of test should be in complementary with other types of assessment.

## Take home assignment

Take-home task is the out-of-class activities that the teachers assign to students. These activities are an extension to schoolwork.

Homework can include practice assignments that emphasize newly acquired skills. It can be in the form of preparation assignments to make students ready for class activities. Projects that have to be worked on in parallel with schoolwork also form a part of homework. This project work may continue throughout the term or the entire academic year. In these activities students apply their academic skills to create a piece of work through research.

The advantages of homework can build up an initiative for autonomous learning, discipline students, set deadline, decide how much time they need to get through and ensure the completion of the task (Georgiou & Pavlou, 2003: 12). While the drawback is that the take home task should accompanied with parents involvement and guidance, and students should pay attention on what has been assigned by teachers at school, otherwise they may lose the point of what they want to do at home.

## **Observation**

Teachers' observations of children help them to assess the progress which children are making. Observations help teachers to decide where children are in their learning and development and to plan what to do. This is an essential part of daily practice in any setting, regardless of the age of the baby or child. Looking, listening and noting is important because it helps you to:

- Get to know a child better and develop positive relationships with children and their parents
- Plan appropriate play and learning experiences based on the children's interests and needs, and identify any concerns about a child's development
- Further develop your understanding of a child's development

- Develop a systematic and routine approach to using observations
- Use assessment to plan the next steps in a child's developmental progress and regularly review the approach (Hodgman, 2006).

To record observations, teachers can make short notes soon after the lesson, keep them on file, use checklists as the example below. The observation can very subjective and should be in combination with other assessment method ((Georgiou & Pavlou, 2003: 12).

The checklist of observation on children learning

Name:

Class:

Date:

No	Items	Yes	No	To some extent
	<b>Attitudes</b>			
1	Shows interest in learning English			
2	Pays attention in class			
3	Does homework			
4	Shows willingness to help classmates			
5	Show respects to others			
	<b>Listening</b>			
1	Understand teacher's instruction			
2	Understand idea in spoken text			
	<b>Speaking</b>			

1	Speaks at with acceptable pronunciaton			
2	Initiates talks with teachers and others			
	<b>Reading</b>			
1	Reads at acceptable pace			
2	Understands main idea of text			
	<b>Writing</b>			
1	Writes at acceptable pace			
2	Writes clearly			

Modified from Georgiou. S. L & Pavlou, P. (2003: 180). *Assessing Young Learners*. Oxford University Press

## 9.6. Marking schemes of assessment

Marking schemes are a way of indicating the level to which a learner has achieved the aims of the assessment task. The followings are the marking schemes for reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

Sample of assessing recognition of animal names (reading)

9-10	Very good	You can read the names of all animals we learnt
6-8	Good	You can read most of the names of animals well
3-5	Fair	You can read some of the animals well
0-2	Try harder	You try harder to learn to read the names of animal

Adapted from Georgiou. S. L & Pavlou, P. (2003: 180). *Assessing Young Learners*. Oxford University Press

Sample of assessing copying skills (writing)

9-10	Very good	You can copy all words very well
6-8	Good	You can copy most of the words well
3-5	Fair	You can copy some of the words well
0-2	Try harder	You try harder to learn to copy the words

Adapted from Georgiou, S. L & Pavlou, P. (2003: 180). *Assessing Young Learners*. Oxford University Press

Sample of assessing understanding spoken language (listening)

9-10	Very good	You can understand all words very well
6-8	Good	You can understand most of the words well
3-5	Fair	You can understand some of the words well
0-2	Try harder	You try harder to understand the words

Sample of assessing numbers 1-10 (speaking)

9-10	Very good	You can mention all numbers very well
6-8	Good	You can mention most of the numbers well
3-5	Fair	You can mention some of the numbers well
0-2	Try harder	You try harder to mention the numbers

## 9.7. Summary

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- a. Defining assessment, evaluation, and testing: assessment is for formative purposes, evaluation is for summative purposes, and testing is instruments for both of them.
- b. Purposes of assessment: to record all students' progress and achievements.
- c. Assessment process: three stages of it-pre assessment, during assessment, and post assessment.
- d. Focus of assessment: all four skills-listening, reading, speaking, and writing.
- e. Forms of assessment: portfolio, projects, self assessment, peer assessment, testing, take-home tasks, and observation.
- f. Marking scheme of assessment: the marking scheme are very good, good, fair, and try harder.



# 10. CURRICULUM, SYLLABUS AND LESSON PLANNING

## 10.1. Defining Curriculum & Syllabus

Very broadly, curriculum is everything the child experiences in the context of schooling that is intended to foster learning. But ‘everything’ is a very tall order and clearly there is a wealth of knowledge in the world that would be impossible to transmit to every child everywhere. The curriculum here refers to English subject curriculum which is the intended curriculum to ensure children acquired to think and to know things that influences experiences in everyday world.

Schools also have a ‘hidden curriculum’ which centres around those aspects that children and teachers cultivate within their more informal relationships but which contribute to the general ethos of the school and through which incidental learning often occurs; for example children learning games from each other in the playground (Bishop and Curtis, 2001).

Curriculum is the complete set of taught material in a school system. It is prescriptive (as opposed to the ‘descriptive’ syllabus, which is the outline of topics covered. If the curriculum prescribes the objectives of the system, the syllabus describes the means to achieve them.

Over the years, ‘curriculum’ has meant different things to different educationists. Some simply equate curriculum to the

syllabus that is to be transmitted in the class. “A syllabus gives a more focused outline for particular subjects. It can’t be equated, because a curriculum is for a course but a syllabus is for a subject,” says Dr. Yasmin Jayathritha. The curriculum is the superset and syllabus is the subset of curriculum.

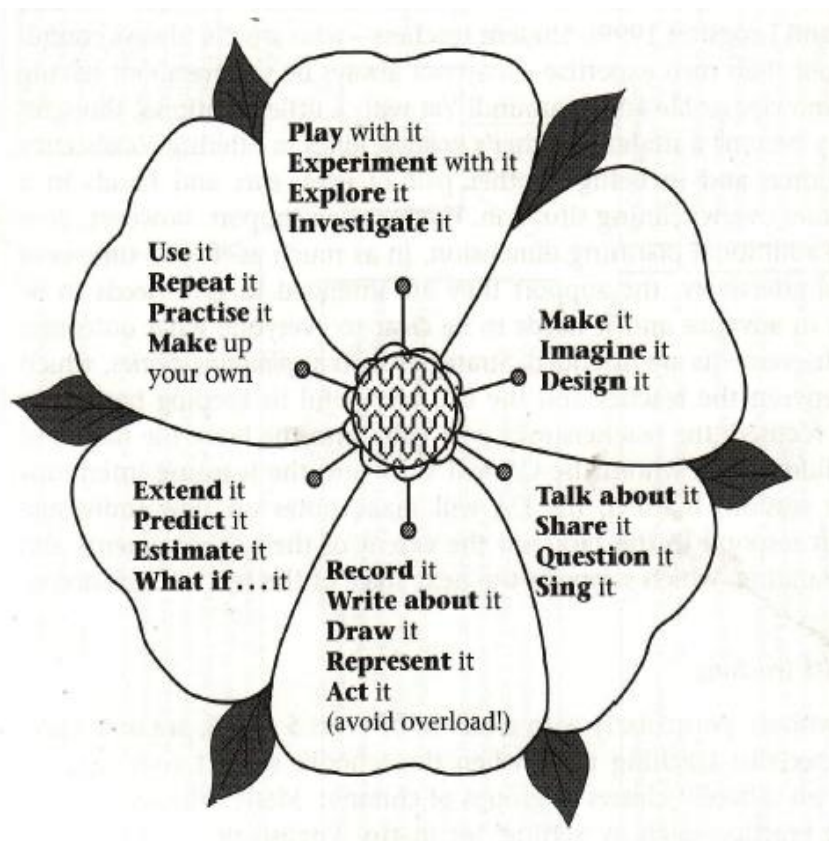
A syllabus will not generally indicate the relative importance of its topics or the order in which they are to be studied. In some cases as Curzon (1985) points out, those who compile a syllabus tend to follow the traditional textbook approach of an 'order of contents', or a pattern prescribed by a 'logical' approach to the subject, or - consciously or unconsciously - a the shape of a university course in which they may have participated. Thus, an approach to curriculum theory and practice which focuses on syllabus is only really concerned with content. Curriculum is a body of knowledge-content and/or subjects. Education in this sense, is the process by which these are transmitted or 'delivered' to students by the most effective methods that can be devised (Blenkin et al 1992: 23).

Therefore, The syllabus is the content, the list of topics/concepts to be taught, whereas the curriculum is a consideration of the objectives, the content, methods chosen to achieve those objectives. It could/should contain a consideration of the kind of assessment one will use to check progress.

## 10.2. Curriculum flower power

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The curriculum below reflects the notion of ‘doing and playing’ for children in learning the language.



## 10.3. Syllabus for beginning level

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Mohsenifar (2010) proposed several types of syllabus for ELT in primary schools: situational syllabus, task based syllabus, skill-based syllabus, structural based syllabus, content-based syllabus, and learner-based syllabus.

### a. Situational syllabus

With this type of syllabus, the essential component of organization is a non-linguistic category, i.e. the situation. The underlying premise is that language is related to the situational

contexts in which it occurs. The designer of a situational syllabus tries to predict those situations in which the learner will find him/herself, and applies these situations, for instance; seeing the dentist, going to the cinema and meeting a new student, as a basis for selecting and presenting language content. The content of language teaching is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. A situation usually includes several participants who are involved in some activity in a particular setting. The language used in the situation comprises a number of functions combined into a plausible part of available discourse. The main principle of a situational language teaching syllabus is to teach the language that occurs in the situations.

In this syllabus, situational needs are important rather than grammatical units. The major organizing feature is a list of situations which reflects the way language and behavior are used everyday outside the classroom. Thus, by connecting structural theory to situations the learner is able to induce the meaning from a relevant context. One advantage of the situational approach is that motivation will be heightened since it is "learner- rather than subject-centered" (Wilkins.1976: 16).

### **b. Skill-based syllabus**

Skills are abilities that people must be able to do to be competent enough in a language, rather independently of the situation or context in which the language use can occur. In this syllabus, the content of the language teaching involves a collection of particular skills that may play a role in using language. Although situational syllabuses combine functions together into specific settings of language use, skill-based syllabi merge linguistic competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse) together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, delivering

effective lectures, and so forth. The chief rationale behind skill-based instruction is to learn the specific language skill. Another less important objective might be to develop more general competence in the language, learning only incidentally any information that may be available while utilizing the language skills.

### **c. Structural or formal syllabus**

This is recognized as the traditional syllabus which is often organized along grammatical lines giving primacy to language form. The focus is on the outcomes or the product. It is, in fact, a grammatical syllabus in which the selection and grading of the content is on the basis of the complexity and simplicity of grammatical items. In other words, it specifies structural patterns as the basic units of learning and organizes these according to such criteria as structural complexity, difficulty, regularity, utility and frequency. The learner is expected to master each structural step and add it to his/her grammar collection. It makes ample use of highly controlled, tightly structured and sequenced pattern practice drills.

### **d. Task-based syllabus**

A task-based syllabus supports using tasks and activities to encourage learners to utilize the language communicatively so as to achieve a purpose. It indicates that speaking a language is a skill best perfected through interaction and practice. The most important point is that tasks must be relevant to the real world language needs of the learner. It should be a meaningful task so as to enhance learning. The content of the teaching is a series of multifaceted and focused tasks that the students want or need to perform with the aid of the language they are learning. Tasks combine language and other skills in specific contexts of language use.

Since language learning is considered subordinate to task performance and language teaching also occurs just as the need arises during the performance of a particular task, the tasks are best defined as activities with a purpose other than language learning so as to develop second language ability.

#### **e. Learner-based syllabuses**

Breen and Candlin (1984) were the first ones proposed the belief of basing an approach on how learners learn. The emphasis is upon the learner, who it is hoped will be engaged in the implementation of the syllabus design as far as that is practically possible. The learners' awareness of the course they are studying helps them increase their interest and motivation, attached with the positive effect of developing the skills required to learn.

A predetermined and prearranged syllabus provides support and guidance for the instructor and should not be so simply dismissed. The opponents of this view indicate that a learner-led syllabus seems far-reaching, radical and utopian in that it will be complicated to follow as the direction of the syllabus will be mostly the responsibility of the students. Moreover, without the support of a course book, a lack of aims may come about.

#### **f. Content-based syllabus**

This syllabus is intended to design a type of instruction in which the crucial goal is to teach specific information and content using the language that the learners are also learning. Although the subject matter is of primary and vital importance, language learning occurs concurrently with the content learning. The learners are at the same time language students and learners of whatever content and information is being taught. As compared with the task-based approach of language teaching that is connected with communicative

and cognitive processes, content-based language teaching deals with information. This syllabus can be exemplified by assuming a chemistry class in which chemistry is taught in the language the learners need or want to learn, possibly with linguistic adjustment to make the chemistry more understandable.

## 10.4. Syllabus content for beginning level

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Below is the example of syllabus for beginning level (early young learners) which is modified from Pearson English (2009).

### Language Content

#### a. Areas of Language Use

- + Introduce and greet other people
- + Identify people by name
- + Ask someone their name
- + Respond to simple instructions
- + Identify key classroom, household and other objects
- + Ask/answer about colour and position of objects
- + Ask/tell someone their/your age
- + Ask/talk about families
- + Request things
- + Express simple likes
- + Suggest simple activities
- + Describe people's appearance in terms of age, height and features
- + Express numbers from 1 to 20

#### b. Main Structures

- + Has / Have got

*I've got a dog. Has he got a dog? He hasn't got a cat.*

- ✚ There is / are  
*How many dogs are there?*
- ✚ The imperative and negative imperative  
*Get up. Sit down. Be quiet. Don't touch.*
- ✚ The verb 'to be' in the present tense  
*He's John. Are you Mary? I'm not tired.*
- ✚ The Present Continuous (affirmative only)  
*Mr Brown is watching television.*
- ✚ 'Can' for ability and requests  
*Mrs Brown can swim.*
- ✚ 'Let's' for simple suggestions  
*Let's go to the cinema.*
- ✚ Basic question words  
*What? Where? What colour? Who? How many? How much? Which?*
- ✚ Demonstratives - pronouns and adjectives  
*This is... That's... Is this/that...? This book is good.*
- ✚ Possessive 's'  
*Ben's book.*
- ✚ Personal and possessive pronouns and adjectives  
*I, mine, my etc*
- ✚ Plural of nouns  
*books, cats, classes, houses, children, men, women*
- ✚ Prepositions of place  
*The book is on/under/by the chair.*
- ✚ Simple conjunctions  
*and, but*

### **c. Topics**

- ✚ Families
- ✚ Pets and Animals
- ✚ School
- ✚ The Body and People's Appearance



✚ Toys

✚ Houses

#### **d. Vocabulary**

✚ Simple colours

*Red, blue, green, yellow*

✚ Nouns for family members

*Mother, father, mum, dad, brother, sister, aunt, uncle, grandmother*

✚ Numbers from 1 to 20

✚ The house

*Kitchen, bathroom, bedroom, garden*

✚ Parts of the body

*Arm, leg, head, back*

✚ Children's clothes

*T-shirt, shorts, sweatshirt, baseball cap, trainers*

✚ Basic adjectives for feelings

*Happy, sad, tired, hungry*

✚ Common pets and zoo animals

*Dog, cat, tortoise, rabbit, snake, monkey, lion, tiger*

✚ Common toys/playthings

*Bicycle, computer games, doll*

✚ Verbs often used for classroom instruction

*Sit down, stand up, open your books, write, fill in*

✚ Classroom objects

*Book, pencil, pen, ruler, school bag*

## 10.5. Lesson Planning

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Lesson planning is an art of mixing techniques, activities & materials in such a way that ideal balance is created for the class (Harmer, 2001). Therefore lesson planning should provide learning

activities, realistic, suit the learners level and interest, well-planned design, have certain objectives and provide flexibility for teachers.

## Lesson Planning

### Procedure:

#### Warm-up: T ⇔ Ss

- ◆ T greets the students and takes attendance
- ◆ T asks if Ss could do the assignment

#### Presentation T ⇔ Ss

##### 1) contextualization and vocabulary presentation

- ◆ T takes a fruit Ss know well (e.g. a watermelon)
- ◆ T elicits name 'watermelon' and writes as heading on board
- ◆ T asks the following series of questions building up information on the board under the heading (see Board Plan)
  - a) What colour is it?                      Elicit - Green  
    Cut melon open
  - b) What colour is it inside? Elicit - Red
  - c) How big is it?                          Elicit - (very) big
  - d) What shape is it?                      Elicit - Round  
    and teach 'egg-shape' if necessary
  - e) Is it sweet or sour? (mime 'sour')  
  Elicit - Sweet
  - f) Is it juicy or not? (show 'juicy')  
  Elicit - (very) Juicy
- ◆ Write sub-heading 'seeds' on board. Show seeds and ask:

- g) How many seeds are there? Elicit - A lot
- h) How big are they? Elicit - Small
- I) What colour are they? Elicit - Black

## 2) Presentation of structure form and meaning T ⇔ ss

- ◆ T writes on board, under information from step 1, ‘What is a watermelon like?’
- ◆ T builds up by guided elicitation the following description  
‘A watermelon is green outside and red inside  
It is big and round (very big and egg-shaped).

## 3). Practice T ⇔ Ss

T asks: What is (an orange) like?

Students describe one or two fruits orally

(Better students describe new fruits, weaker students copy)

# 10.6. Summary

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- a. Defining curriculum and syllabus: curriculum is much more general than syllabus
- b. Curriculum flower power: a list of strategies and content in general
- c. Types of syllabus: situational syllabus, skilled-based syllabus, structural syllabus, task-based syllabus, learner-based syllabus, and content based syllabus.
- d. Syllabus content: language content and use
- e. Lesson planning: sample of present, practice, produce lesson planning.



# 11. MENTORING AND INDUCTION PROGRAMS FOR BEGINNING TEACHERS

## 11.1. Context of mentoring

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A number of researchers have noted that there is no formal mentoring and teacher induction for beginning teachers in Indonesian high schools (Stephens and Moskowitz, 1997; Research Triangle International, 2004). Sadly, I also experienced this similar circumstance when I started teaching in 2000 at one of the public high schools in South Sulawesi province, Indonesia. My reflection of being a new teacher in the profession is that:

I'll not forget my first experience as a beginning teacher in the profession because it was a landmark day in my life. I was very happy of being a teacher. Soon after, I faced problems, such as managing students' behavior and deciding what teaching method should I used. I did not know what to do; there was no mentoring or induction at all. I was pretty sad.

In addition, most beginning teachers across Indonesia work, as Hargreaves (1994) characterized as isolated educators from their colleagues. This condition is potentially damaging for aspect of teaching psychologically and workplace condition (ibid.). Williams (2001) argued that working isolated and individually can bring about the difficulty for teachers' development especially the new induction teachers.

The teaching practicum of university students in Indonesian high school context is, to date, still far from the hope. Practicum students are brought to schools just to transform their knowledge and skills gained from the universities (Groundwater-Smith, Ewing, & Cornu, 2003), rather than to understand the roles and duties of teachers and the complexity of school culture (Ewing & Smith, 2002). The practicum experience of student teacher is also probably done for the purpose of the fulfillment of university curriculum requirement. The situation is similar to Australian context, where student teachers “have less commitment to schools, limited time to reflections, and poor the assessment, insufficient time and status” (Commonwealth Department of Education, Science, and Training, 2002, p. 105). These indicate that there is a demand to introduce, as Ewing (2001, p.30) describes, as “a sustained, systematic approach to addressing the needs of beginning teachers”. The systematic program (Bolton, 2004; Hatton & Laws, 1993), such as mentoring and induction program, provides the practical advice for those who are new at the schools.

This paper, therefore, aims to examine the literatures related to the potential constraints and suggested strategies of developing mentoring and induction program for beginning teachers in Indonesian secondary education. The discussion is begun with the overview of mentoring and teacher induction concept.

## 11.2. Mentoring and induction program

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### *What is mentoring and induction?*

Bolton (2004, p. 2) makes a clear distinction between mentoring and induction: “*mentoring program* aims to match a beginning or inexperienced teacher with an experienced colleague,

usually from a different subject area, who offer advice, assistance, support on issues which primarily classroom focused, whereas, *the induction days* are practical, hands-on workshops to acquaint the new teacher with people, places and things which they need to know in organization”.

However, theorists identified that mentoring has been used during the induction period of the new teachers (Hoffman, Edwards, O’Neal, Barnes, & Paulissen, 1986; Thies-Sprinthall, 1986, cited in Carter & Francis, 2000). Mentoring is also an attempt to develop staff capabilities (Brounstein, 2000) in order to recognize the school environments. Mentoring has been well explained (Carter and Francis, 2000, p. 2) as “a process that mitigates teacher isolation, promotes the concept of an educative workplace and leads to the creation or understanding of consensual norms in a school, faculty, or grade team.”

The word ‘mentoring’ and ‘induction’ are interchangeably used in the discussion, because mentoring is a part of induction program or vice versa, which both emphasize on professional learning and development of teachers during the transition period (NSW Department of Education and Training, 1998).

Therefore, the literatures suggested that mentoring is a dynamic process to develop beginning teachers’ skills and knowledge and to understand the school culture and teacher obligations, which is done during the induction period in schools.

### ***Models of mentoring***

There are three models of mentoring program (Robinson & Parbery, 2004), as follows: (1) apprentice model, where the mentor is a skilled ‘craftsperson’. This kind of mentoring will include several areas of teaching challenges for beginning teachers, such as,

understanding school and its culture, classroom management, preparing lessons and assessment (Ewing, 2001; Groundwater-Smith, Ewing, & Cornu, 2003; Hatton & Laws, 1993; Marsh, 1996). Robinson & Parbery (2004, p. 8) argued that this model is very ‘prescribed model of mentoring that has been well arranged by the organization or schools’; (2) the competence-based model, which is a bit similar to the apprentice model; however, this model emphasizes on the need of mentors to demonstrate the skill and knowledge demanded by the beginning teachers; (3) reflective practitioner tradition, which emphasizes on how new teachers reflect on their actions and how mentors reflect on their coaching roles.

Commonwealth Department of Education, Science, and Training (2002) proposed school-based induction and mentoring model. This model is based on ‘the ethic of care’ through the partnership between systems, districts, and schools. The seven steps of the school-based induction programmes are:

- a. Develop policy
- b. Assign responsibility
- c. Design delivery model
- d. Allocate resources
- e. Plan for accountability
- f. Implement the model
- g. Evaluation. (Commonwealth Department of Education, Science, and Training, 2002; pp. 115-117)

### ***The benefits of mentoring and induction programs***

A number of researchers have identified that mentoring benefits for the beginning teachers in the profession (Huling & Resta, 2001; Carter & Francis, 2000; Ewing 2001). In addition, Huling & Resta, (2001) note that mentoring and induction programs assist new



teacher in terms of professional development, reflective practice, psychological benefits, collaboration, and contribution to leadership

### ***Professional competency development***

Competency is described as what teacher can actually do at work and what the principals actually expect to you (Hughes & Jowitt, 1996). This competency can be developed through mentoring. Huling & Resta, (2001) argued that mentoring assists the professional competencies both mentors and mentees. Mentoring is also really helpful to develop professional identity (Ewing, 2001), because it enables beginning teachers to exchange their perceptions, feelings, and to solve any challenges they encountered.

### ***Reflective practice***

Mentoring can be an instrument for both mentors and mentees to reflect their own belief of teaching, learning process, and careers (Huling & Resta, 2001). In addition, beginning teachers (Ewing, 2001) can ‘challenge experienced staff to think about teaching and learning practices they have taken for granted. For example, the assistant principal states: “*Nadia has changed the dynamics of our staff with her freshness enthusiasm. She works so hard – She is there at dawn and is often the last to leave*” (Ewing, 2001, p. 31). This indicates that mentoring not only benefits beginning teachers, but also encourages experienced staff/teachers to reflect their teaching practices that they have been using so far.

### ***Psychological benefits***

The advantage of mentoring program is to help beginning teachers develop self esteem (Ewing, 2001;Groundwater-Smith, Ewing, & Cornu, 2003; Wollman-Bonilla, 1997 cited in Huling & Resta, 2001). For experienced teachers (Scott, cited in Huling &

Resta, 2001), mentoring is empowerment instrument and contributes the significance for the world.

### ***Collaboration***

A number of researchers have noted that mentoring and induction programs help teachers to understand others, and to work collaboratively (Carter & Francis, 2000; Bolton, 2004; Huling & Resta, 2001; Kalantzis & Harvey, 2002). Jarzabkowski (1999, p. 13) pointed out that ‘working collaboratively saves teachers time, inspires better teaching, and improves the quality of teaching practice by creating better ideas for and about teaching’. Brady and Kennedy (2003) have identified that collaborative work can promote opportunities to learn, foster continues school development and create professional confidence. Hargreaves (1994) stated that collaborative work can improve teachers’ professionalism and create inclusive school environment.

### ***Contribution to teacher leadership***

Huling & Resta (2001) affirmed that through mentoring experiences, mentors can “build their capacity for leadership through structured professional development including training and experience in classroom observation and coaching skills”. Freiberg (cited in Huling & Resta, 2001) revealed that at the end of their experience of being mentors, “100 % of the mentors in were offered unsolicited positions as a result of their experience in the mentoring program”. On the other hand, beginning teachers will start (Ewing, 2001) to contribute and to improve their initial experiences in teaching and learning.

## 11.3. Developing mentoring and teachers induction program

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### *Purposes of developing mentoring program*

Researchers have recognized several purposes of induction and mentoring programs (Ewing, 2001; Ewing & Smith, 2002; Hatton & Laws, 1993; NSW Department of Education and Training, 1998; Commonwealth Department of Education, Science, and Training, 2002). Therefore, the aims of induction and mentoring programmes for beginning teachers in Indonesian context are to:

- Assist beginning teachers to understand the classroom, school system and community contexts.
- Build beginning teachers' commitment to their profession.
- Help beginning teachers to understand their roles and responsibilities as professional educators.
- Establish beginning teachers' confidence in their profession.
- Assist the beginning teachers to develop teaching preparation, and classroom management.
- Establish relationship between beginning teachers and senior staff in schools.

### *Constraints in developing mentoring program*

#### **Technical perspective**

It is interesting to note that changing teachers' attitudes to accept and to support the development of a new program in schools is a bit challenging (Hargreaves, et al., 2001). This is probably due to most teachers in Indonesia have settled with the traditional ways of teaching. New teachers in the provision are seen and treated as the experience teachers (Stephens and Moskowitz, 1997). This perception

and attitudes, therefore, are very confronting in introducing mentoring and teachers induction program.

In addition, it is unlikely that some senior and experienced teachers to think and to examine critically if there is an introduction of new idea, because they are probably very busy with their teaching duties. The situation might look similar to what Barth (2001, p.7) states: “a new teachers must not speak until they have experienced, for at least two or three years. If a new comer had an idea to say something, others will say, “what does he or she think he is? I have been doing that job for twenty years”. Therefore, this is the most difficult challenge in the development of mentoring in Indonesia.

### **Cultural Perspective**

Developing teacher-mentoring programs, inevitably, challenges the educators’ emotion, belief, and experience (Hargreaves, et al. 2001). Fullan (1991) describes that changing teachers’ belief is changing their practices that could be very emotionally, intellectually, and culturally challenging.

The conservative cultures of most Indonesian high school are, as Fullan (1993) characterized, as the way that teachers are trained, the way that school is organized and the way that educational hierarchy operates. The school cultures in terms of leadership (Bottery, 1992) are hierarchical, class-based, and bureaucratic heritage. Therefore, the new program has to fit in and around existing components in the organization (Barth, 2001). Perhaps this conservatism affects the development of new programs.

### **Political Perspective**

Gaining support from Department of Education, school supervisors, education council and teachers’ association to develop

professional mentoring program is politically difficult (Hargreaves, et.al. 2001). The formal introduction of new program in schools has to be approved by the parliament in order to provide budget allocation. Funding is inevitably important (Ewing, 2001) to facilitate program for new teachers.

## 11.4. Strategies for developing mentoring in Indonesia

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Mentoring and induction programs have been widely used in the United State of America (Huling & Resta, 2001; Hunt Jr, et al, 2003; Johnson et al, 2004) and Australia (Ewing, 2001; Ewing & Smith, 2002; Carter & Francis, 2000) to address the problems of beginning teachers. The following strategies for developing mentoring program for Indonesian high school context are: establishment of national plan, promoting the urgency of mentoring, and establishing partnership framework.

### **Establishment of national plan**

National plan of mentoring and induction programs is significantly important to address the problems of beginning teachers in Indonesian secondary schools. The example of national plan of mentoring and induction program of beginning teachers is in Australia (Commonwealth Department of Education, Science, and Training, 2002). Perhaps the cultural and political constraints can be overcome. If the mentoring program has been established nationally, it is unlikely the districts and the schools to reject it, because there will be funding allocation from the central government to implement this program in schools.

## **Promoting the urgency of mentoring**

There are lot strategies to promote the urgency of mentoring and induction programs such as, workshop, case studies and project piloting. Workshops can be done at national, districts and school levels. This is to involve all related stakeholders as done in Australia by Commonwealth Department of Education, Science, and Training (2002). Case studies can be done through learning the cases from the other countries such as, Australia and the United States of America where mentoring and induction programs for beginning teachers have been implemented well. Project piloting in several schools can be an example of how mentoring and induction programs help new teachers.

### ***Establishing partnership framework (policy level, districts, and schools)***

In Australia, the Commonwealth government has established national framework of mentoring and in induction programs (Commonwealth Department of Education, Science, and Training, 2002). The national framework can be a model for national policy level. In addition, the example of states and districts roles in implementing mentoring for beginning teachers is implemented by the New South Whale Department of Education and Training (1998). Mentoring and induction program in school can be seen from Quakers Hill High School, NSW (Robinson & Parbery, 2004). Perhaps this framework can be a good model for developing mentoring program for Indonesian high school beginning teachers.

## **11.5. Summary and recommendations**

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The literature strongly indicates that developing mentoring is very important to the induction experience of beginning teachers in

secondary education. This literature confirms that mentoring is significantly beneficial for beginning teachers. Mentoring helps not only for new teachers to establish their confidences, self-esteem, and professional experiences, but also for senior teachers to learn and to reflect on their teaching and learning practice, and to build up their leadership skills.

There are challenges faced in developing mentoring and induction programs. Changing people's opinion to accept the change, bureaucratic and hierarchical systems, and gaining political to fund the program are the constraints for introducing mentoring in Indonesia. The alternative strategies are promoting the urgency of mentoring and induction programs, developing national plan, and establishing partnership framework among policy levels, districts, and schools.

There are several recommendations for the Department of National Education of Indonesia, as follows:

- a. The Department of National Education should consider establishing a national plan to address the problems of beginning teachers and to keep them in the profession.
- b. The Department of National Education should take into account to fund further investigations of the importance of developing mentoring.
- c. The Department of National Education should consider funding for a range of pilot projects of mentoring and induction in some secondary schools across Indonesia.
- d. The Department of National Education should take into account to run workshops at national level, district levels, and school levels.
- e. The Department of National Education should consider building team to study and learn the cases of mentoring and induction from Australia and the United States of America.

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