

Course Reading for Language Seminar

English Language Program

SEMINAR ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Compiled and Adopted by :
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STKIP NURUL HUDA SUKARAJA
OKU TIMUR



**YAYASAN PONDOK PESANTREN NURUL HUDA SEKOLAH TINGGI
ILMU KEGURUAN DAN PENDIDIKAN (STKIP)**

NURUL HUDA

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SYLLABUS

Subject : Seminar on ELT
Code : GIG 367
Credit Hours/ Semester : 3 (Three)/ VI (Six)
Study Program : English
Lecturer : 1. Hastuti Retno Kuspiyah, M.Pd.
2. Dwi Andriani, M.Pd.

A. Course Description

This course discusses how to pour ideas, ideas in the form of a scientific paper and present it in the form of seminars scientific forum. In addition, this course also discusses how to conduct language seminars locally, nationally and internationally.

B. Learning Objectives

At the end of this course, students are expected to present the result of their study ideas or research results in scientific forums, such as seminars, scientific discussion or other similar forums. These activities are carried out to train the students to prepare and present an academic problem in a clear, systematic and tested, as well as respond to and take advantage of responses obtained for improving their thinking and writing. in other word, this course is intended:

- To make students familiar with seminar presentation
- To make students familiar with various issues in language teaching and learning
- To facilitate students to understand the main ideas for each articles or chapter passage presented and discussed in the class
- To help students write a brief paper/ article in English relation to their skripsi literary review, and present in class

C. Teaching and Learning Schedule

Specific objectives for every topic and sub-topic will be outlined at the beginning of every meeting.

Schedule, Topics, and Sub topics

Meetings	Topics	Sub- topics
1	Explanation of Syllabus	
2	How to give a seminar	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Method• Tips
3	Guide line for conducting workshopsand seminars	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Popularity of workshop and seminar• Before the workshop begin• At the beginning of workshop• During the workshop• Closing the workshop
4	Teaching Young Learners	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Problems Teachers May encounter• What Methods work best
5	Successful speaking activity	Topic and task-based Oral activities
6	ESL games and activities for big classes	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Class management for large classes• ESL for large classes
7	Teaching teenagers	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Characteristics of the teenager learner• Effective teaching method for teenagers• Six resources a teacher should use when teaching teenagers
8	Mid- Semester Exam	
9	Using L1 in the English Classroom	
10	Real life problem solving: a collaborative learning strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• State the problem• Analyze the problem

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brainsotrm solutions, etc
11	Collaborative Strategic Reading and Reading Attitude toward Reading Comprehension Achievement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction • Theoretical framework • Methodology of research • Result and discussion • Practice
12	Ellipsis in the chronicles of Narnia film by Clive Staples Lewis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction • Theoretical framework • Methodology of research • Analysis and discussion
13	vocabulary practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Memory game • Word association • Miming • Guess the tool • Human sounds • Suggestion chain
14	Teaching conversation with trivia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trivia in the conversation classroom: a rationale • Trivia and communicative language teaching • Adaptations of TV quiz shows and boards games
15-16	Presentation of Proposal Design (Seminar Panel)	Proposal Design

D. Classroom Strategy

All students are required to write a summary on each of the topics scheduled and listed above. In every meeting, a student will be assigned to make a presentation on the topic or sub-topics selected on the basis of a lottery lucky draw at the beginning of a class meeting. The student who is assigned to make the presentation and make an effort to use visual aids, such as power point slides, to make his or her presentation clear and interesting. He/she has to be able to answer questions from the floor. The discussion will form the major classroom activities in every meeting. The presentation and discussion will be graded.

E. Written Assignment

Students are required to write a paper (proposal) (two spaced; on an A4 paper) size dealing with research practical and theoretical aspects of language teaching and learning. The paper (proposal) has to be submitted two weeks before the final exam date.

F. Evaluation

Task, quizzes, mid semester exam, and final task.

G. Course Requirements

The completion of this course requires every student to:

1. Attend at least 80 % of all the classes;
2. Take all the quizzes, presentation, paper writing, mid -semester and final task.
3. Participate, activity in small group or whole class discussions.

H. Teaching Learning Methods

The teaching learning activities are conducted in the form of:

1. Oral presentation by a student or a group of students
2. Group or whole class discussions

I. Grading System

The final grade for this course is determined on the basis of the scores obtained from:

Assignment & presence	→	Quizzes (20%)
Mid-Semester Exam	→	Test (20%)
Presentation	→	Class discussion (30%)
Final task	→	Test + (30%)

References:

Prof. Dr, V, Miharson and Drs. Mulyadi, MA. 2013. *Course reading for language seminar*. PGRI University. Palembang.

Jolles, R. L., (2005). *How to run seminars and workshops: presentation skills for consultants, trainers, and teachers*. New Jersey: John Wiley and Son, Inc

Thody, A. (2006). *Writing and presenting research*. London: Sage Publications.

Giving a seminar is a great opportunity to share your knowledge and experience with other people. Public speaking can be daunting, but practice and preparation can minimize many of these anxieties. To give your best seminar, start by understanding the organizer's expectations in terms of time and content. Organize your seminar as a series of talking points, intermixed with interesting visuals. Project your confidence as a speaker by maintaining eye contact, watching your body language, and speaking clearly.

The specifics of how to give a seminar vary depending upon the topic, but all seminars share a few basic steps. If you can master these basics, it'll be easier to give a seminar on just about anything.

Method 1**Making Your initial preparation****1. Understand the expected format.**

Seminars can come in a variety of forms. Talk with the organizer of the session and ask them about their expectations for your talk. They may want you to discuss a pre-circulated paper. Or, perhaps they would prefer that you give a speech with less audience interaction.

- You might ask, "Are you looking for a lecture format that is focused on research or a more interactive audience experience?"

2. Consider your audience.

Before you do anything, think about what kind of people you'll be presenting to. If you're giving an important business seminar, you may want to go as far as doing a full evaluation of demographics. Knowing your audience will guide you in your preparation.

Know who you will be speaking to and tailor your information to their interest and experience levels. If you are unfamiliar with the group, ask the seminar organizer to give you a bit of information about the possible backgrounds of audience members. If you have worked with this group before, then use the information that you know about them to tailor your talk to what will help them, and you, the most.

- For example, in a scientific talk before a group of specialists, you may not need to explain all of your jargon and can jump into in-depth topics more quickly.
- Depending on your audience, you may also choose to directly engage with controversial topics or shy away from them.
- You can even get to the venue a bit early and try to talk with some audience members to get a better feel for the room prior to directing your seminar. You might ask one of the attendees, "What made you want to attend this particular seminar?"

3. Find out what technology is provided and what you need to bring.

Make sure that you are comfortable using whatever technology is in the room. This may mean getting to know PowerPoint really well. Or, perhaps you need to practice how to switch slides using an automatic clicker or prompter. You may even want to give some thought to how you will set up the microphone, if you plan to use one. For example, if you are planning to use a slide presentation, then you'll want to make sure that the room is equipped with a good projection system.

4. Create audience-friendly slides and visual aids

These can be posters that you set on an easel, brochures you pass out, an interactive model, an overhead slide or slideshow presentation, pictures or anything that will help your audience visualize what you're saying. The goal is to get your message across clearly. The aids also help break up your seminar into chunks so you avoid monotony.

As you start to craft your presentation, think about whether or not your audience can actually interact with your visuals. For example, if you are using slides, then they need to be visible, clear, and easily readable. Use a large font and clear lettering. Stay away from too many extra graphics and include only minimal text.

- Be aware that it takes anywhere from 1-2 minutes for an audience member to read through a slide along with you. Therefore, don't overload your presentation with slides or you will never finish. Instead, go with pictures that can accompany the information that you are providing directly to your audience.

- You can also use other visual styles, such as models, posters, flyers, or brochures. Don't feel forced into sticking with slides and instead consider dipping into your creative side, if the seminar format supports this.

5. Circulate any materials in advance, if needed.

If your seminar will focus on a paper discussion, it is a good idea to work with the organizer to get a copy of the paper out to potential audience members at least a few days before the meeting. This will allow audience members to come prepared with advanced questions and comments. It will also let you dive into deeper material right away, as you can assume a certain level of common knowledge.

6. Practice giving your seminar using your outline.

Once you have an outline in place and your visual materials prepared, you will want to practice as often as possible. Ask your friends and family members to serve as mock audience members for a trial run. Videotape yourself and then play it back, so that you can identify areas of improvement. Practice until you feel totally comfortable with the material and process.

- After each practice session, make notes on the sections that are working well and those that still need some refining.

7. Arrive to the seminar location early.

It is a good idea to get to the seminar room a little early, so that you can see how the room is set up. You can also upload your presentation and pass out any handouts or brochures. This also gives you a last minute opportunity to meet with the seminar organizer to iron out any issues.

- If you arrive 15-30 minutes beforehand that is usually enough time to accomplish everything that you need to do prior to starting the session.

Method 2

Managing your content

1. Introduce yourself.

Start off your seminar by going to the podium, or just the front of the room, and providing a full introduction. Tell the audience a bit about your professional background. Briefly explain why you are interested in the project that you will be discussing today. This is intended to make the audience comfortable listening to you and to start building the speaker-audience trust.

- If someone else introduced you, then you might say a few quick words about your passion for this project and offer your thanks to the organizers for the opportunity to speak with your audience today.

2. Follow an outline of speaking points.

Your talk should move from one logical point to another. Even if you have the entire talk memorized, it might be useful to have a paper with talking points or notecards in front of you. This may also help with your pacing. A good rule of thumb when giving a seminar is to, "Tell them what you will tell them, tell them, tell them what you told them."

- For example, if you are giving a seminar focusing on a chronological topic, such as the development of the U.S. Civil War, make sure to give your audience plenty of warning before you jump time periods

3. Give content outside of your visual aids.

It can be very tempting to read directly from your slides, but resist that urge. Instead, gesture to your slides as support for the larger points that you are making. If you've practiced enough, your progress with the slides will also let you know if you are making good time.

- For example, if you have a slide with a photo of Lincoln, then you could build upon that by discussing his time in office or his personal background. This information doesn't need to be spelled out alongside the image.

4. Stick to the time allotted.

As soon as you agree to do the seminar, find out what your time restrictions will be and design your presentation around these. Aim for a presentation that falls at the exact time or a maximum of five minutes over. Do not go over time. If you find yourself at the time limit, then find a quick way to wrap up and offer to explain more during the question session.

- For example, you might say, "Well, I've reached the end of my time, but I would love to talk about any of these issues in response to any questions that you have."

5. Answer all questions as completely as possible.

Start by repeating the question to ensure that the entire audience can hear what is being discussed. Then, take a moment to compose your response before jumping in, if necessary. Try to link your answer back to your overall presentation whenever possible, perhaps adding information that you were unable to include due to time or format restrictions.

- Try to thank each person for their question after answering it. If a particular person tries to dominate the question session, you can offer to speak with them after.
- If you don't know the answer to a particular question, it is okay to say, "That is an excellent question, but I do not have that exact information"

Method 3

Projecting Confidence and Expertise

1. **Maintain steady and consistent eye contact.**

Look around the room as you are speaking and try to make eye contact with almost everyone in the room throughout your presentation. If you find yourself gazing at just one part of the room, force yourself to look in the other direction. Similarly, don't just focus on the back of the room, look at actual people so that you can gauge their responses to what you are saying.

2. **Speak clearly and with authority.**

From your video practice sessions, you will notice if your voice wavers or cannot carry far enough. Try to project your voice out, so that you can speak without a microphone, if necessary. Also, go slowly and carefully pronounce each word so that everyone can understand what you are saying.

- It might help to write, "Speak clearly," in the margins of your presentation notes. This will remind you to keep up your voice mid-presentation.

3. **Keep your calm after an error.**

If you make any mistakes while speaking, odds are your audience didn't even notice. But, if you are worried, then you can acknowledge your error very quickly before moving right back into your presentation outline. This is yet another opportunity to build trust with your audience.

- For example, you might say, "I just noticed that that figure in column 3 is not up to date as of today, so the more accurate number would be..."

4. **Control your body language.**

Keep your arms and hands under control and avoid fidgeting with a pen or other item. Watch your walking patterns and try to move a bit, but not enough to be distracting. As you are analyzing your body language, consider whether or not your actions will distract from your content and, if they do, try to minimize or eliminate them.

TIPS

1. If you're having trouble with the wording of your seminar during your practice sessions, try writing out a script to use. While you don't want to take this with you to the seminar, practicing from it can help you become more comfortable with what you are saying. During your final few practice runs, try not to use it and use only your speaking outline.
2. Add humor to your seminar if the topic and your audience allow for it. There are certain instances with serious subject matter where you would not want to use humor, but for most topics, it's probably okay to add a joke here and there.
3. If you'll be presenting your seminar during mealtime, find out if you can bring some light food and drink to the meeting space. For example, bagels, muffins and coffee might be good for an early morning seminar. Having cold bottled water on hand is always a plus, no matter the time of day.

[http://www.academicpsychiatry.org/htdocs/Fidlerdocs/Education/Faculty_Development/teaching-skills/guidelines_for_conducting_workshops_\(2001\).htm](http://www.academicpsychiatry.org/htdocs/Fidlerdocs/Education/Faculty_Development/teaching-skills/guidelines_for_conducting_workshops_(2001).htm)

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These guidelines are aimed at helping workshop leaders or facilitators conduct workshops. Please bear in mind that conducting the workshop is only one of three components included in a systematic approach to workshops. Prior to the workshop event itself is a substantial planning phase and following the workshop is an evaluation.

Workshops are teaching and learning arrangements, usually in small groups, that are structured to produce active participation in learning. Traditionally, workshops provided participants with some opportunity to practice skills and receive feedback. However, current usage is so loose that any learning event that aspires to engage the learners actively may be called a workshop.

Seminars are small group teaching and learning arrangements that use group interaction as a means of engaging participants. Although seminars usually begin with a presentation or mini-lecture to provide the basis for discussion, the word “seminar” also includes rather formal group discussions led by the teacher and focused on the content rather than on issues arising from students (Jaques, 1991).

Popularity of Workshops and Seminars. Workshops and seminars are among the most popular training devices in higher education. Properly designed, they are a time and cost efficient method of producing active involvement of learners compared to individual training activities. Workshops demonstrate modern principles of teaching such as active engagement of the learners. They provide opportunity for the interaction that enables the teachers to connect the material to the context of the learners. And they provide an opportunity for group interaction, which is important for trainees who are becoming increasingly isolated in their work. (Eison & Stevens, 1995)

Phase I: Before the workshop begins

1. Specify the learning objectives of the workshop

Every decision that you make about the workshop will depend on your objectives for the learner and the success will be measured against its objectives. So make sure objectives are clearly stated for each activity. Objectives are clearest when they are expressed in specific behavioural terms. Statements of objectives should begin with the phrase “at the end of the workshop the learner will...” followed by a verb that demonstrates the learning. For example, if the learning objective is knowledge, the learner might list, describe, recall, debate, critique, or report. All of these activities demonstrate the knowledge that he or she has learned. If the learning objective is a skill the learner might solve, demonstrate, organize, or diagnose. And if the objective is an attitude the learner might approach, avoid, laugh, and manifest sadness, concern, or caring.

It is also useful to specify the performance levels and the conditions for each learning objective. In a brief workshop on small group teaching, for example, faculty cannot be expected to emerge with a complete mastery of the skills but they may gain an awareness of the skills, an appreciation of the skills, or a competence in one of the components of the skill. Brief workshops may provide opportunity for participants to share ideas, experiences, and understanding on a topic.

2. Pre-Circulated Materials, Requests

We can assume that, at this point, you have already chosen and sent materials that are to be pre-circulated and you have already sent any requests of the participants for certain kinds of preparation (such as developing a case to bring to the workshop). These activities really belong to the planning phase not the conducting phase. However, during the conducting phase you need to think about how these pre-circulated materials or tasks will be integrated into the activities of the workshop. You must use them. Otherwise participants will feel they have prepared in vain.

3. Selection of Strategies

Make sure that every strategy that you use is in service of a learning objective. And vary the strategies to keep the session lively and to accommodate different learning styles.

4. Check your media

Test out the slide or overhead projector. Make sure that they are focused and pointed in the right direction. Fumbling with equipment wastes time and gives the impression that you do not care about the learners' time. Check to ensure that there are pens for flip chart writing and tape if you want to hang some sheets.

5. Materials, handouts

They should be well organized, carefully written and targeted for the participants. Out-of-date material or material intended for another audience gives the impression of lack of attention to your participants. If you decide to hand out paper at the beginning, you might as well place it on the tables in front of each chair so that early arrivals can look over the materials and you won't waste time shuffling paper.

6. Timing

It is important to keep to your schedule but difficult to keep track of time when you are immersed in interaction. Consider appointing a timekeeper who agrees to signal you when it is time for a break. Eisen and Stevens (1995) remind us to estimate a generous amount of time for each activity once your objectives and activities have been chosen and then add ten to twenty percent more time. Real activities usually take longer than the planned ones.

7. Seating arrangement

Circular seating arrangements foster sharing of power and interaction between members. Long tables with the teacher at one end tend to concentrate control in the teacher and reduce the tendency for interaction among participants. It is generally a good idea to allow participants to choose their own chairs unless your teaching plan requires a certain seating arrangement.

If you are arranging a multi-group workshop you have to make the additional choice of how to seat participants at the various tables. Should tables be homogenous for specialties or disciplines or should they be heterogeneous? Your decision will depend entirely on the objectives. If, for example, the target behaviour is some kind of interviewing technique that is implemented differently across disciplines, then a homogeneous group might be best since the members could focus on aspects of the problem specific to their settings. On the other hand, if the target behaviour were team building across disciplines then mixing them would be best because it would allow participants to learn from one another's points of view.

8. Trouble Shooting

Trouble shoot the workshop before problems arise. Develop advanced contingency plans for likely problems that could occur (Eisen & Stevens, 1995). For example, you may wish to develop plans for the most likely kinds of disruptive behaviours like the dominant participant, reticence. (See Tiberius, 1990, for ideas)

9. Greeting participants

Some workshop coordinators avoid contact with participants before the workshop out of shyness or a sense that such interaction would reduce the drama of the presentation. Greeting participants probably does reduce dramatic tension just as it would in a theater if the cast of the play would chat up the audience. On the other hand what is lost in drama is gained in psychological comfort, essential if the workshop is to be interactive.

10. Establishing Rapport

In a brief workshop, rapport has to be established quickly. Enthusiasm for the subject is a good starting point as it is one of the primary factors associated with rapport. Rapport is also associated with knowing one another, presumably because background knowledge facilitates collaboration. Introductions are a good way to get participants and group leaders to know one another. But, beware of the often used technique that begins a workshop by taking a turn around the room, requiring everyone to answer the question, what is your background and what do you want from this workshop. First, if the number of people in the workshop is sizable it may take too long for everyone to speak. Second, it may not be helpful for everyone to hear that many people want something that you are not providing. As leader you have come to the workshop prepared for something. Your role is not infinitely flexible. It might be better to give participants a brief description of who you are and what you have prepared and then ask them some question that explores their connection to the topics as you have prepared them.

Phase II: At the Beginning of the Workshop

1. Introductions

Introductions provide information that enables group leaders to adapt their comments and examples to the interests and backgrounds of the participants. Perhaps even more importantly, introductions inform participants about one other. Participants are likely to be more understanding of a shift in the focus of the workshop if they understand that it is motivated by a response to the needs of the vast majority. Finally, Eisen & Stevens, (1990) remind us that introductions help members establish rapport.

Introductions should be quite brief if the session is brief. For a session of an hour or two, with, say, a dozen participants, introductions should not be more than a few sentences. Instructions are important. Here is an example:

“It would be helpful to know your interest in this material and your experience with it. I’d like to hear from each of you briefly, stating why you are here and what connection you already have with this topic.”

2. Preview the workshop

You can assume that your participants will have read the title of your workshop and have taken note of the time it occupies. But they need to know a lot more. Will there be a break? When? What will they be expected to do? If the workshop involves active participation, it is best to inform participants up front about this. What are they going to learn? Can they take a handout from the pile? Are we going to spend half of our time introducing one another or are we actually going to learn something? How long is s/he going to go on speaking? Can I ask my question? A typical introduction might look like this:

“The handouts placed around the table are for you. They contain background material (e.g. tables and figures) for our topic so you don’t have to write anything down. We really only have a little more than an hour so we won’t be taking a break but we will be breaking up the activities. I’d like to begin by inviting each of you to introduce yourself. Then I will briefly present some recent information. The rest of the time will be devoted to interaction and questions, basically making the information relevant to your concerns.”

3. The “educational contract”—Agreeing on the Objectives

Obviously as workshop leaders you have prepared for the workshop. You cannot be expected to drop everything to accommodate the idiosyncratic needs of a few participants. On the other hand, your objectives should be open to modification. It is important to connect new information to the previous experiences and knowledge of participants. The introductions can be a useful device for supplying both the group leader and the participants with information about their interests and experience. You should use the information to match the needs of the participants with the objectives and methods.

Brief workshops, of several hours’ duration instead of several days cannot afford a lengthy period for contracting. But to skip this step altogether would be a missed opportunity for engagement of participants. At minimum you should attempt to summarize the needs and experience of the participants, state how you might accommodate them, ask if there is any other way you might accommodate them, and admit clearly when you cannot accommodate due to lack of preparation or knowledge on your part. Following is an example of such a statement:

“I can see there are a lot of primary care practitioners here. I do have some examples from primary care settings, which I will use. And I will be asking those of you who are primary care physicians to help me generate some examples.”

Phase III: During the Workshop—Methods

The methods must suit your objectives. For example, if you want to help the participants learn a skill then you must provide an opportunity for them to practice that skill with feedback. If you do nothing but talk, no matter how captivating your speech, participants are unlikely to learn a skill. So you must begin by giving some thought to specifying your learning objectives. A simple classification that is widely used is to consider classifying your learning objectives as knowledge, attitudes, or skills. Further classification is useful too. For example, you may be interested in facilitating problem-solving skills, reflective thinking, critical thinking, awareness, appreciation, or understanding. In short, look for verbs that describe precisely what the learner is expected to learn.

It is important to specify the level of the performance as well. After a one-hour workshop participants may not be expected to carry out a skill in its complete form but they may be “able to recognize the type of problem” and “aware of the appropriate approach”.

Virtually any educational method can be, and is, used in a workshop setting but the most appropriate ones are those that actively engage the learners. Unfortunately there is no simple set of rules that match methods with objectives. Indeed, many methods are able to serve several objectives. Below is a list of various methods. Choose the ones that are most likely to help your students achieve their specific learning objectives.

1. When presenting information is useful in achieving your objectives

Presentations are often essential in workshops or seminars as a means of providing needed information. They are appropriate when the goals include acquiring knowledge. But keep them brief. Workshops and seminars should provide more opportunity for participants’ interaction than lectures. Here are a few suggestions:

- **Brief presentation followed by questions**, the old stand-by of scientific conferences, works well when participants know enough about the topic to generate stimulating questions. In a useful variation of this technique the presenter organizes the content of the workshop into chunks and makes a series of brief presentations followed by discussion and questions. The key to this format is to convince the participants that you do not have a pre-determined number of “points” to make. If they get the idea that you do, they will stifle their discussion and questions so that they don’t miss out on getting all of the material that was planned. Here is one way to avoid the creation of such an expectation:

“This is a very rich area. There is enough material to keep us going until next Tuesday. My plan is to raise what I think is one of the most important points in

the area and open it up for discussion. When the discussion fades, I'll introduce another one. We'll do this until the time runs out or until the points start to become boring."

- **Presentations with Designated respondents.** One method of ensuring reaction to the brief presentation, especially in larger sized small groups, is to assign specific tasks to various participants. In formal conferences respondents will prepare their speeches well in advance and will deliver mini lectures. But this method has been used effectively even in the relatively casual atmosphere of the workshop or seminar where the participants may not know very much about the topic. The key to success is to assign tasks that engage the learners. For example, by a show of hands participants may be identified as representing different disciplines, practices, or research areas. Then, each group can be given a "listening assignment", for example, to think of examples from their area illustrating the phenomenon being presented or to think of obstacles to carrying out the suggestions in their setting (presumably so that these could be addressed later).
- **A Panel Discussion** is an informal discussion among members of a selected group in front of an audience. The word "audience" here is important. Although panels can be much livelier than single person presentations, if not controlled, they may take up all the airtime among themselves. The audience is then left with a passive role except for vicarious involvement they might enjoy through observing the panelists' discussion. Panels are good choices for teaching large groups where there are too many people in the audience for audience interaction anyway. But they do not compare well with the opportunity for interaction in the small group.
The bottom line is that, if you have the services of expert resource persons and you would like to try a panel, make sure that you structure the session to leave plenty of time for audience questions and participation.
- **A Debate** is a highly engaging device for presenting material since the participants themselves take part. Learners are divided into sides, for and against some controversial issue. During a preparatory phase debaters can inform themselves and prepare their arguments with the help of relevant material that has been made available to them. Alternatively, if the workshop proceeds across several sessions, participants can be asked to research their own material to support arguments at a subsequent debate.
During the debate itself the various dimensions of the issue should be brought out in an open and friendly manner. It is important to encourage the debaters to focus on convincing one another of their arguments rather than on discrediting or attacking their opponents. A motivating addition to the debate is a brief opinion questionnaire before and after the debate to measure how opinions have changed.
- **Prepared Media** can also be used to deliver information. Again, keep it brief. Use it more to stimulate conversation than to replace it. A popular form of video taped presentation for use with small groups is the "trigger tape", a brief, dramatic presentation that triggers interaction among participants. The same goes for slides or even graphical information.

2. When **reading** is useful in achieving your objectives

Reading is a very useful method of providing information providing participants do it.

- **Reading prior to the workshop.** Usually readings are circulated prior to the workshop to provide background material for discussion. Moreover, most participants would rather read according to their own time schedule and in the privacy and quiet of their study than under the pressure of time and the gazes of others during a workshop. Unhappily the pressures of modern life are such that participants frequently arrive without having read the material.

Workshop coordinators attempt to overcome this problem in several ways:

- **Requiring an assignment.** Participants may be asked to take a position based on the readings or to develop a case or example from their own practices illustrating an issue that is raised in the readings.
- **Brief position papers.** Students can be required to write a brief position paper or statement (a few paragraphs or one page) stating their position or response to an article that they have read. This task not only ensures that they do the reading it also increases the depth of their thinking. The position papers serve another objective if they are submitted to the teacher prior to the class. They provide the teacher with an understanding of the students' thinking, strengths, and weaknesses that need to be addressed in class. This is an excellent device for finding out about students so that you can direct the class time toward responding to student learning difficulties or make the class relevant to student concerns.

In typical adult education settings such as the ones in which we teach, students have difficulty getting the papers to us prior to class because they are often not on campus between classes. Here is where the courseware can be extremely helpful. Our experience with on-line courses is that students have little difficulty submitting their response papers prior to the class electronically.

- **Responses to the position papers.** If students are submitting papers electronically, there is another strategy, suggested by John Walker of the University of

Minnesota that not only motivates students to read carefully but also engages other students in critical thinking. A quarter of the class, for example, writes position papers in response to reading an article. They post these position papers on a bulletin board on the course website. Another quarter of the class is required to respond to these position papers. The percentages of students doing each task and the tasks themselves can be rotated around the class so that everyone does the same number of tasks during the year. By this method the teacher gets to view, not only the position papers, but responses to them. Often students make the major points of the session and they clarify serious misconceptions so that the teacher can address them effectively.

- **Reading during the workshop and the Jigsaw Technique** An increasingly popular method involves participants reading brief assignments during the workshop, which are then either discussed or reported to the larger group. A more complex method that has been particularly effective at encouraging reading during a workshop, is the “jigsaw” technique. It involves requiring participants to read different things. Each selected reading is designed to bring out a separate component of the matter at hand. The participants in the team then combine their knowledge to generate a complete picture of the phenomenon. According to this technique, originally described by Aronson et. al. (1978) assignment is divided into parts and each part is parceled out to a different team, called the “expert” teams. The first task of these teams is to make themselves “expert” at their particular part of the assignment by reading about it. But they must also discuss how each of them will teach what they know because, in the next phase of the process, the expert teams regroup into “home” teams consisting of one member from every expert team. The task of the home groups is to put together the entire issue or solve the entire problem by combining the components. Obviously, the groups must cooperate. Each member of the home group is valued for his or her ability to teach the group his or her part of the problem.

3. When **Demonstrations and Dramatic Enactments** are useful in achieving your objectives

Demonstrations are useful as a component in skill learning to model either proper or incorrect procedures. By themselves they cannot teach skills unless they are followed by actual practice by the participants, with constructive feedback. On the other hand demonstrations can encourage learners by convincing them of the effectiveness of a procedure.

4. When **Practice with Feedback** is useful in achieving your objectives

Practice with feedback is the standard method of skills learning, even complex cognitive skills like problem solving and critical thinking. The generic form of the method is a brief practice session followed by feedback. Others in the group observe, learning vicariously from the performer’s mistakes and the corrections of the coach.

Thinking Skills, such as problem solving and critical thinking, are difficult to teach because they are largely invisible. The *results* of a poor problem-solving performance are visible but not the process itself. It is essential, then, in organizing a practice session directed at thinking skills, to include a procedure for disclosure of the mental content of the performer and even of the coach. For example, medical trainees might be asked what they were thinking when they asked the patient a particular diagnostic question.

- **Helping Trios.**

One variation on the theme that is popular in interpersonal skills training, teaching and medical interviewing is called “helping trios”. It increases the active engagement of participants to 100%. The group divides into teams of three. One member of the team performs a procedure, say giving feedback to the other, while the third observes. A checklist often aids observers. After the performance all three give feedback to one another. Each player appreciates aspects of the performance that are invisible to the others. After one iteration performers switch roles and play it again. After three turns, when everyone has taken each role, all of the triads join a general discussion of the problems and issues involved in the targeted performance.

- **Paired Interviewing.**

Kagan (cited in Millis, 1995) developed a method that takes advantage of the old truism that you learn best by teaching. The method consists of a pair of learners who interview one another. Learners who think that they understand something after reading about it find that the task of being able to explain their understanding to someone else in answer to a question requires a much deeper level of understanding and integration of the material. The interviewer who is confused by the answer to her or his question is providing indirect feedback to the questioner about the clarity of the answer. Subsequently, after two pairs engage in this interviewing process they can join one another to discuss problems of understanding the material. Strictly speaking, the goal of this procedure is integration of knowledge, not the learning of skills.

- **Testing One Another.**

Just as teaching is a way of learning, taking tests could also be an effective way of learning. The problem is that taking tests is usually not fun. One method (Sherman,

1991, cited in Millis, 1995) that takes the pain out of learning from testing can be adapted to the workshop setting. Prior to the workshop each participant prepares a question and a thorough answer. During the workshop participants are organized into pairs. After the pairs exchange questions each participant works independently for 20 minutes or so answering the partner's question. The two then compare their prepared answers with those that were generated in the workshop. In addition to providing feedback to those answering during the workshop the task requires critical thinking since they must isolate and compare the strengths and weakness of each answer. The goal of this procedure, like the previous one, is the integration of knowledge not the learning of skills.

- **Videotape feedback**

is a useful aid in practice sessions, particularly when the target behaviour is visible on video like some physical performance such as the use of body language. When the focus of the training is cognitive the teacher or members of the group must stop the tape at critical points to allow for a discussion of the thinking behind the performance skills.

- **Concentric Circles or the “Fish Bowl” technique**

consists of a small circle of group members within a larger circle. It extends the method of practice with feedback to situations in which the behaviour in question is a group phenomenon. Members of the inner circle “practice” by interacting in some way (problem solving, discussing, teaching) while the outer circle observes them and provides feedback.

- **Separating the Idea Generating Phase from the Critical Phase.**

One of the impediments to creative problem solving is premature criticism, which tends to stifle creative ideas. To overcome the tendency toward premature criticism the problem-solver should attempt to separate the idea-generating phase from the critical phase. This workshop structure provides an opportunity for participants to experience the value of separating the two phases. It also provides an opportunity for participants to practice judgment, that is, evaluating the contributions offered by others. In contrast, most of the techniques described above are structured to provide opportunities to practice generating ideas or solutions. The group is broken into smaller groups, each of which addresses a problem, question or an issue of some kind. They are encouraged to generate as many solutions as possible but not to be critical of any of them. Each group passes its solutions on to another whose task is to critically examine the solutions offered for feasibility, cost effectiveness and to suggest ways that the various solutions might be tested.

5. **When Eliciting Audience Reactions and Responses is useful in achieving your objectives**

Brainstorming

is a creative thinking technique in which group members storm a problem with their brains. The leader explains the procedure to the group members: “No critical judgments until later. Don't be concerned about the quality of ideas, quantity is all that counts. Wild ideas are encouraged. Improvements on someone else's idea are legitimate.” A recorder lists the ideas while the leader keeps vigilant to remind contributors when the rules are violated. Although this method was originally used to generate new ideas and to overcome blocks in thinking, it is now frequently used in combination with other methods, to engage the learners, to warm up the group, and to inform the teacher about the learners. Beware of two pitfalls in using this method, failure to make any use of the list after it is generated and taking too much time to generate it.

The best example I have ever seen in the use of this method is was during a workshop on managing conflict. The workshop leader asked us to shout out all the words that are associated with conflict. She wrote them down rapidly and continuously, filling an entire overhead in a little over a minute. At later points in the workshop she quickly dropped our list on the overhead projector to make a point. At the beginning of a workshop on child abuse, a workshop leader asked her group to list all of the definitions of abuse. Another asked his group to list all of the causes of jaundice. In less than ten minutes these brainstorming sessions accomplished several objectives for these teachers. The list of ideas informed the teachers about the starting point of knowledge of their group so that they could modify their examples and level to fit. And the process of listing the examples helped learners to connect the material to their own knowledge and get them talking.

- **A Buzz Group** is a technique highly effective for getting participation from everyone in the group. The leader divides the group into small clusters of three to six and then provides each cluster with a question or two. A recorder in each group reports to the larger group. A discussion usually follows.

In contrast to brainstorming sessions, in which only one participant can speak at a time, in buzz groups a participant can be speaking in every cluster. Like brainstorming, buzz groups can be used to inform the teacher about the learners' connection with the topic and to engage the learners.

- **Think-Pair-Share.** The think-pair-share procedure developed by Frank Lyman, (Cited in Millis, 1995), like buzz groups, allows more than one person to speak at the same time. Indeed, during the first phase all of the participants are engaged in “thinking” about a problem or question that the teacher presents. After a few minutes participants are invited

to form “pairs” and share the problem with their partners. During the third phase learners can share their thoughts with larger groups or the entire workshop. This procedure not only provides a lot of floor time for everyone; it provides an easy route into sharing for shy or more pensive members. It gives them time to formulate their thoughts and then try them out in pairs before going public.

- **Voting with your Feet/ Stand up and be counted/ Value Lines.** Several versions of this method appear to have been developed independently. These procedures add a physical dimension to the engagement of the learner. One version, developed by Ivan Silver (1992) for use in a medical education context, is called “Stand Up and Be Counted.” The facilitator gives participants two minutes to write down whether they agree or disagree with the way that a particular case or problem was handled. They must give reasons also. Then participants are asked to share their thoughts with the participant next to them just as they do at the beginning of a think-pair-share exercise. However, the third phase of the procedure does not constitute sharing ideas with the large group. Instead participants are asked to get up from their chairs and stand at the point in a line that corresponds to their opinion on the issue. The facilitator has drawn a huge Likert-type scale on the wall of the class marked at five points by the words “Strongly agree”, “disagree”, “don’t know”, “agree” and “strongly agree”. If the class is too large for the size of the wall available, the facilitator asks for half or a quarter of the class at one time. The facilitator then interviews participants asking them why they chose their particular position in the line. For about 10 or 15 minutes the facilitator encourages a debate, beginning with those at opposite ends of the line. Gradually the facilitator widens the debate to include others at various places in the line and those who are still seated. Finally, after asking everyone to sit down the facilitator summarizes the discussion. For variation the process can be repeated with a different scenario for the next portion of the class.

Another version, called “Value Lines” is described by Barbara Millis in the Teaching at UNL newsletter, (1994). Large wall graphics are not necessary in her version because only two anchors, one at each end, such as “Strong disagreement” and “strong agreement”, describe the line. Each end student could be asked to hold up a card with one of these phrases on it. Barbara follows with many helpful exercises, as anyone knows who has been a participant in one of her workshops. For example, persons who are selected from different points on the line might be invited to share their ideas. Persons at the end of the line can be asked to share their ideas with middle persons, or persons at opposite ends may be invited to pair up.

- **Card-Sorting.** A card-sorting game called "Do You Have Any Fives?" developed by Ivan Silver and Nathan Herrmann (1996) provides an opportunity for all participants to test their knowledge by placing cards in the appropriate categories and by teaching one another. At the start of the game each participant has in front of him or her, a pile of twenty to thirty cards that he or she must sort into four to six categories. Each card has a characteristic written on it that more accurately describes one of the categories than the others. For example, one participant who picks up a card saying "crushing pain in the center of my chest" might place it in the category "Myocardial infarction." She would then explain to others why she chose that category for this particular card. Thus, participants have an opportunity not only to associate diagnoses with categories but to learn from one another and to teach one another. After participants have sorted all the cards into categories, the facilitator will review all the cards in the categories, and making necessary corrections by providing additional information and explanations. The categories are defined by signs anchored in little stands or by folded upside-down-V shaped paper with the category name written on them. Dr. Silver has used from 4 to 6 categories successfully at each table. To accommodate larger numbers of participants he simply duplicates the number of tables.

One of the exciting outcomes of this method is the confirming realization among participants that collectively they know a great deal about the subject. Even people without medical training, Dr. Silver has found, can get a very high score on medical sorting tasks when they pool their knowledge in this way.

Writing. Another method of eliciting responses from the learners and ensuring their engagement in the task is the use of a “**reaction sheet**”. Sheets of paper with instructions to answer a few questions are distributed to the group at an appropriate moment. Typically they ask questions designed to elicit useful feedback from the participants about their learning: Write down ideas that are new to you; Ideas that you question; Ideas that really “hit home” for whatever reason.

- **Group Leader Skills—Active Listening.** This guide focuses on exercises that can be conducted in class. It does not include the many skills that group leaders can employ to facilitate sharing of audience reactions, responses and feelings. See Phase III in this guide for some sources. However, a skilled group leader can make a huge difference to the willingness of participants to share their thoughts and feelings. One particularly potent group of such skills is bundled under the concept of “active listening.” We urge seminar and workshop leaders to seek training in active listening at your institution. One of the early exercises, that has been a model for training in active listening for faculty, is

Steven Phillips' Exercise Number Eight, in Bergquist and Phillips' Handbook for Faculty Development (1977).

6. When **Problem-solving or Case Based Learning** is useful in achieving your objectives

Problem-solving or case based learning is especially engaging of learners. There are many variations on the problem or case learning theme, not all suited for use in workshops.

Structured case or problem scenario. One of the most flexible and useful methods is perhaps the case or problem scenario presented to the whole group or, if the group is large, to subgroups of three or four. After the groups discuss the problem for 5 or 10 minutes the teacher goes around the room listening to their solutions, approaches, conclusions. Shortcomings and strengths of the various contributions can then be discussed.

Variation 1.: Random Reporting

One weakness of this procedure is that the more assertive learners nearly always become the reporters for the group. Another weakness is that some learners who do not fully understand the solutions or conclusions offered by their group might not catch up. A modification of this method, described by Barbara Millis (1995) overcomes the problem: once the group has discussed the question or solved the problem they are required to make certain that every group member can summarize the group's conclusions. The teacher goes from one subgroup to another calling on one of its members at random and asking her or him to report to the entire workshop. Those chosen to report are less inhibited because they are reporting the group consensus rather than their own views.

Variation 2.: The Jigsaw Technique

is another variation of the problem-solving procedure that encourages broader involvement. According to this technique, originally described by Aronson et. al. (1978), the problem, question or assignment is divided into parts and each part is parceled out to a different team, called the "expert" teams. The first task of these teams is to make themselves "expert" at their particular part of the problem. But they must also discuss how each of them will teach what they know because, in the next phase of the process, the expert teams regroup into "home" teams consisting of one member of every expert team. The task of the home groups is to put together the entire issue or solve the entire problem by combining the components. Obviously, the groups must cooperate. Each member of the home group is valued for his or her ability to teach the group his or her part of the problem.

Dramatic enactment. A particularly compelling and efficient technique for presenting the problem is to enact it. A brief dramatic presentation reveals not only the problem but its context as well. This method can be used spontaneously to act out a situation or "test" a solution proposed by the group. When it is used in this way it is usually called role-play. For a description of a workshop using role-play in this way to train residents in teaching medical students see Tiberius, Silver, Fleming, Hoffman & Cappe (1990)

Problem-based-learning, as practiced in most medical schools, is too time-consuming for the typical workshop. In the course of tackling the problem participants identify gaps in their knowledge or understanding which they then fill by individual study and by sharing information with their peers. Workshops and seminars can use this method but the materials must be prepared and available for the group participants.

Case-Based Learning as it was developed in the Harvard School of Business is carried out in relatively large classes, sixty or so. But it can be adapted easily to a workshop format. First, a number of sub groups read a rather detailed case and discuss it. Their task is to develop a response to questions posed by the case. Then all of the sub groups come together for a kind of debate about what is the best course of action. The teacher points to individuals and asks each of them, "What would you do in this situation?" The large group sessions can become highly confrontive as individuals are intentionally pitted against one another by a skillful teacher. In the workshop situation it would be better to pit subgroups against one another than individuals. Letting groups rather than individuals argue about the best course of action produces a safer interpersonal climate.

7. When **Unplanned Strategies** are useful in achieving your objectives

Even though you have carefully planned the entire session, opportunities may arise for spontaneous interventions. For example, you may notice an example of the phenomenon that you are trying to teach within the learning group itself. Pointing out such parallels is a powerful strategy for connecting the lesson to the real context of the learners.

Phase III (cont.) During the Workshop— Group Dynamics

So far this outline has focused on procedures for arranging workshops and seminars that achieve certain learning needs. Usually the workshop leader is more than a planner of the structure of the workshop; he or she also functions as the group facilitator. It would be useful, therefore, for prospective workshop coordinators to learn something about small group dynamics. Unfortunately this is a vast topic, beyond the scope of this brief survey of methods. (See Jaques, 1991; Tiberius, 1994). One thing worth learning is the distinction between task directed, maintenance behaviours and self-directed behaviours.

Phase IV: Closing the Workshop

1. Summarize and Reconnect with Objectives

What was it you set out to do? What has been accomplished and what has not? If something was left out did something else arise that was more important? Participants need a few

minutes of reflection to gain perspective on what they have just been through. For example, they may have forgotten that the goals of the workshops were to clarify certain problems not to attempt to solve them. If they are not reminded of the more modest goal of the workshop they may leave disappointed. Worse yet, they may take it out on the evaluation form.

2. Evaluation (Levels taken from Dixon, 1978)

Level I: Opinions and Satisfaction.

The most common means of evaluating workshops are attendance plus a measure of customer satisfaction, a questionnaire composed of rating scale items asking participants whether they got what they expected, what they learned and whether they think it will be useful in the real setting. Qualitative methods, including focus groups or individual interviews, can provide the opportunity for participants to raise unanticipated issues.

Attendance and satisfaction are usually accepted as evidence by administrators and workshop planners of the successfulness of a workshop. But sometimes the customer does not know best. Participants can be overly optimistic about the value of new learning while still feeling the high of an exciting workshop. A delayed measure may provide a more accurate reflection of the workshop participants' satisfaction. Questionnaires sent to participants several weeks or months after the workshop may provide a more accurate measure of the impact of the workshop.

Level II: Competence Measures.

Quantitative measures of competence include measures of knowledge, skills and attitudes using instruments such as multiple choice exams and OSCE stations. Qualitative measures include attitude assessing questionnaires and interviews.

Level III: Performance.

In the health professions performance might be measured by such quantitative indices as prescribing data and x-ray utilization or qualitative indices such as explorations of barriers to change and chart stimulated recall.

Level IV: Outcome Measures.

Evaluation of the behaviour that is the target of the workshop under conditions as similar as possible to those in the real setting. The actual impact of the learned behaviour in the real setting may be the gold standard but it is difficult to measure because of the problems of isolating the impact of the workshop from all of the other variables that effect the real environment. Moreover, the workshop may be successful in the sense that participants learn the skills but still they may not transfer to the workplace because of adverse conditions there. Quantitative measures might include infection rates, pain scales, mobility and mortality. Qualitative measures might include quality of life interviews.

Phase V: Enhancing the Impact of the Workshop through Follow up

Follow-up activities can enhance the impact of the workshop in the real setting. For example, providing workshop participants with additional reading material or annotated bibliographies, or sending such materials to them later can reinforce the lessons of the workshop, particularly if the materials are tailored to the specific interests of individual participants. Electronic bulletin boards are another strategy for continuing the involvement of participants after the workshop. (Eisen & Stevens, 1995). Finally, bringing participants back together for a second workshop can enhance impact especially if the subsequent session includes testimonials on the success of the learned behaviours.

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Teaching English to young learners means teaching children between ages 3 and 11. Find out what problems may arise and what methods work best for them.

By: Louanne Piccolo (on April 8, 2010)

TEYL – teaching English to young learners is not the same as teaching English to adults or even teenagers. That's the mistake a lot of teachers make when faced with a daunting class of 3 to 5.

Problems Teachers May Encounter

According to Shelley Vernon's website, *Teaching English Game*, here are some problems that many teachers have when teaching English to children:

1. Children have short attention spans
2. Children forget things quickly.
3. Very small children may not speak their own language correctly yet
4. Children can be shy and hesitant to participate in activities
5. Children develop at different rates so there may be mixed ability levels in one class even though all the children are of the same age
6. Children learn through repetition which can be boring.

Using games in teaching young learners

Since children naturally want to play, games can be very motivating. In pedagogical discussion of motivation for foreign language learning in general, emphasis is often put on sometimes conflicting forces of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. "For the young learner, motivation deriving from factors outside the classroom, such as parental and social attitudes, is likely to be weaker than that created by events in the classroom itself. Children need to be involved and even excited in order to learn effectively" (Khan 144).

"It is a commonplace that young children learn better through play or at least can be induced to go along with teaching that is tempered by 'fun' activities" (Rixon 33). The activities that involve play and enjoyment are, for example, singing, chanting rhymes, solving puzzles, drawing, colouring and model-making. Essential are also word, board and other types of games. Fun activities operate at the most humble level of endeavour and help children "gain command of 'pre-fabricated' chunks of language" (Rixon 35). Even though many language practice games may be drill-like, they still have an element of fun and competition (Rixon 35).

Scott and Ytreberg point out that, "Playing games in the classroom develops the ability to cooperate, to compete without being aggressive, and to be a 'good loser'" (85). Muijs and Reynolds say that, "Play is important, and can help develop children's receptive and expressive language, as well as their skills at joint planning, negotiation, problem-solving, and goal seeking" (179).

Halliwell advocates the use of games because they set up real tasks for children. Worthwhile and interesting things to do provide young learners with occasions for real language use and let their subconscious mind work on the processing of language while their conscious mind is focused on the task of playing the game. In this way, games represent a very effective opportunity for indirect learning (6).

Khan says that, "It is a principle of communicative approaches to ELT that task-based activities enhance learning. In language learning, task-based activities are those which stimulate effective use of language but involve no conscious analysis of language" (144). Games may be seen as tasks. "If they successfully engage the learners' attention as a proper children's game should, then learning will be supported" (Khan 145).

It would be wrong to think that games are only important because they are fun. Apart from motivational factor, that was already mentioned, they are useful "partly because the fun element creates a desire to communicate and partly because games can create unpredictability" (Halliwell 5). The language that is demanded by game-like activities is usually unpredictable and encourages children to construct language actively for themselves. Since children's desire to talk is huge, teachers should let them use the

language creatively to encourage acquisition, which leads to spontaneous and therefore more fluent use (Halliwell 5-8).

Scott and Ytreberg mention the children's ability to absorb the language through play and other enjoyable activities as well. They claim that how good pupils are in a foreign language does not depend on whether they have learnt the grammar rules or not. Very few young learners are able to cope with grammar as such, even at the age of ten or eleven. "They may be very aware and clear about the foreign language, but they are not usually mature enough to talk about it" (Scott and Ytreberg 6). That is why teaching of young learners should include only the barest minimum of grammar that is taught as grammar (6).

To conclude, in young learners, absorbing game-like activities should become a solid part of teaching. These activities help internalize and acquire a new language. However, many dimensions need to be taken into consideration for selecting and organizing games. Games, that should form an important part of a teacher's repertoire, need to be used considerately and their focus should match particular syllabuses and curricula. Moreover, it is important to remember that teachers need to provide learners with both fluency and accuracy. That is why in primary practice, teachers should carefully balance the conscious focus on grammar with game-based procedures aimed at indirect learning.

What a TEYL Teacher Can Do for Children Learning English

Teachers can positively affect the lives of the children they teach by associating fun and encouragement to learning a language. A TEYL language teacher can give a child the skills to speak a language that will open doors and create opportunities for the rest of the child's life. With the proper training, TEYL teachers can give children a healthy view of learning that will last them a lifetime.

<http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/teaching-large-classes>

Successful ESL speaking activities are highly motivating, have a real purpose to prompt communication and can use almost any type of language.

Language is a tool to communication. Effective ESL speaking activities are an essential part of a language course as they enable students to practice oral communication in real- life situation. Some students may hesitate to speak in front of others or may be intimidated by dominant students but an ESL class and how to set up successful speaking class.

Two types of speaking activities (Piccolo, 2010):

1. *Task-Based Activities:*

These are activities that ask students to accomplish a specific task by following simple instructions. These types of activities are generally preferred by students as they have a clear understanding of when they have accomplished what was asked of them. Tasks such as “reach an agreement,” “Find someone who,” “Describe the media” are common ways of presenting such tasks. These tasks are also an excellent way to activate language that has been presented in class, providing focused situations in which students will be forced to use the target language in order to continue. It is extremely important that students understand exactly what is being asked of them, otherwise it can be difficult for them to focus on the task at hand, and it’s possible that some students will end up doing something entirely different.

How does this help students in real life? – This helps students practice more practical skills that people might use every day. Tasks such as finding directions, navigating a city, finding people with which you have something in common, asking for help etc.

2. *Topic-Based Activities:*

These are activities that allow the students more freedom. By choosing topics that your students will identify with, they are given a chance to express their thoughts and opinions in a more natural way. Activities such as Discussions or Debates are common examples of these types of activities. These tasks let students experiment with the language that has been presented to them in class over a longer period of time. It is a great way to see what students have retained from the lessons, as they must construct sentences by themselves. One must be very careful when choosing the topics to present in class. They must be age appropriate, appropriate for the cultural and religious beliefs of the students, but also thought-provoking and interesting. Remember that what your students find interesting can be very different from what you find interesting.

How does this help students in real life? – This helps students practice interaction on a deeper level. This can help them prepare for interviews, making friends, talking to colleagues or classmates in a different country. This also gives students the freedom to experiment with language from previous lessons.

To figure out which type of activity to use, we need to identify which sub-skill we want to activate.

How can we practice more natural speaking in class, and why is this important?

Helping our learners to respond to formal invitations and survive in an interview is important, but we can’t forget to teach them how to use English for regular, every-day purposes. Drilling pre-canned phrases doesn’t quite cut it when preparing them to go and live in an English-Speaking country or to work in an international company.

Those of us who were educated in Commonwealth countries probably learned French at school. And most of us were probably taught the following phrase: “les chat est sur la table” (the cat is on the table). I have almost never needed this phrase in my L1, let alone in a foreign language!

We need to create realistic scenarios and situations in our classes. We can’t just teach our students a bunch of phrases and then hope that they’re not required to do anything else. This becomes an issue for non-native teachers, mainly because they themselves have limited practice with using the language in real life, outside of the classroom (if living and teaching in a non-English Speaking country). This is not to say that non-native teachers cannot teach speaking, only that certain aspects might be a little more difficult for them.

First, let’s look at a few things which can hinder students from sounding natural:

- Direct translation from L1
 - Issues with appropriacy, as many students use formal language in informal situations and vice-versa
 - Issues with understanding relevant length. Some students seem to go on forever when a short answer would suffice, and others don’t seem to ever elaborate enough.
 - Fluency issues, especially when students speak too slowly or leave unnaturally long pauses between words
 - Excess of fillers and false-starts
-

To go through each of these things individually will take forever, but as a piece of general advice, I recommend putting as much natural language in the class as possible. A really easy way to do this would be through video, podcasts and music. Our students need exposure to natural-sounding language, and the coursebooks don’t always deliver on that front.

Teachers should also try to sound as natural as possible in the class. Of course we must maintain control, and in some cases discipline, but our class should have a relaxed atmosphere. We should talk to learners like equals, not like inferiors. This is beneficial for a whole number of reasons, and definitely gives students a good model of what natural language sounds like.

We also need to include activities in class that simulate ordinary situations, like telling a friend about a holiday or inviting people to places. Our students need to actually DO this, not just see it being done. A great way to do this is through roleplay and drama activities. I like to use drama activities so that students can immerse themselves in a different personality and try to communicate as that person would. Longer drama activities are perfect for that, but even short drama activities (for learners of ALL ages!) can help students sound more natural, and feel more comfortable while speaking the language.

What types of activities can you recommend?

1. "Find-Someone-Who" activities (Task-based)
2. Roleplay activities (Task-based or Topic-based depending on the roleplay)
3. Discussions (Topic-based)
4. Debates (Topic-based)
5. Describe the picture (Task-based)
6. Retelling stories (Task-based)
7. Brainstorming (Topic-based)
8. Circle-Story-Completion (I would say this is a combination of Task and Topic)
9. Find-The-Difference (Task-based)

This article suggests ways to help discipline, to use group work and to cope with limited resources.

- a. What are the challenges of teaching a large class?
- b. How can you use group work to help learning in a large class?
- c. How can group work help in a large class when resources are lacking?
- d. How can you develop good discipline in a large class?
- e. The advantages of a large class

What are the challenges of teaching a large class?

- a. It's difficult to keep good discipline going in a large class.
- b. You have to provide for more children of different ages and different abilities, wanting to learn different things at different speeds and in different ways.
- c. You can't easily give each child the individual attention they need.
- d. You may not have enough books or teaching and learning aids.

How can you use group work to help learning in a large class?

In a large class children in pairs and groups can help each other and learn from each other. They don't get bored listening to teacher talk. Try these strategies:

1. Organise the groups to suit the children's abilities
Teachers of large classes have tried different strategies:
 - mixed-ability groups: The more able learners in the group can help the others to master the work so that the teacher need not teach some parts.
 - same-ability groups: The teacher can leave the groups of faster learners to get on with the work on their own. S/he can give extra help to individual learners in the slower groups.
 - using group leaders/monitors: Some teachers appoint faster, more able learners as group leaders or monitors who can help slower learners.
 - Monitor the groups yourself
The teacher needs to move around the classroom to see what progress learners are making and what problems are coming up. S/he can give advice, encouragement and extra individual help where it is needed.

How can you develop good discipline in a large class?

1. Establish a code of behaviour that is created by teacher and learners together. It should state clear basic rules of conduct that learners understand, such as:
 - They have to work quietly;
 - They may talk, but not loudly;
 - Children who have finished the lesson tasks can read a book to keep them busy.
2. Use the environment outside the classroom. It offers a new, different space when children get noisy or bored, and helps to reduce overcrowding. Remember that:
 - You can work with some groups inside the classroom while the other groups are working outside (use different tasks or the same task)
 - You need to set up outdoor activities clearly and carefully and monitor them.
3. Appoint responsible group leaders who can help maintain discipline. They can also give out and take in work for the groups, and explain what groups must do.

1. BACKGROUND

Today's teenagers, just like previous generations, are a varied and fascinating group of individuals. They are changing physically, sometimes at astonishing speed, and are often preoccupied with their appearance. They are coping with new and strange emotions and at the same time they are learning to think in a more abstract way, which allows them to discuss issues and ideas. Through this whirlwind of change, teenagers are trying to establish their identity and learn who they are.

Unlike previous generations, today's teenagers are surrounded by technology, which they can generally use with ease and efficiency. They live in a world where sounds, images, words, and ideas come at them in a constant stream from many different sources. They usually think nothing of surfing the Internet, texting, listening to music, and watching TV at the same time.

New technology also gives teenagers increased contact with their peer group – often the most influential group of people in a teenager's life. The need to appear cool and be accepted by this group can often be the strongest motivating force in a teenager's life. These peer group pressures, coupled with rapid mental and physical changes, may from time to time lead to conflict with family, friends, and authority.

Another pressure on today's students is the increasing need for qualifications that demonstrate their skills in foreign languages, especially English. Given all of the influences mentioned, teenage students of English need teaching materials that reflect their world and that broaden their skills to facilitate their goal of gaining qualifications.

In addition to helping students attain competence in the English language, classroom materials should help students explore and establish their own moral and ethical values. What is right and wrong can be a challenging area for teenagers and it is important that they have the chance to hear the opinions of others, voice their own, and judge for themselves.

2. DEFINITION OF TEENAGER LEARNER

According to G. Lewis most experts further divide this age range into three distinct subgroups:

- young teenagers, aged 12-14
- middle teenagers, aged 14-17
- late teenagers, aged 17-19

Young teenagers represent a learner group with special characteristics. J. Lewis mentions that children enter adolescence between sixth and eighth school grade. These teenagers are undergoing physical and social changes, which are more prominent and evident than in middle and late teenagers. Moreover, early adolescence is the most difficult phase in the life of an individual ("Early Adolescents").

Teenagers usually understand this role as a necessity that is of no avail. School performance often loses its original significance, because teenagers perceive it as a value important for adults. They do not want to learn and become more knowledgeable. Primarily, they only do not want to get into troubles. Concerning school, teenagers tend to avoid hard work, unless it is really necessary. The curriculum at upper-primary school becomes more difficult and incomprehensible. Teenagers deprecate it, because it strengthens their personal insecurity (Vágnerová 233-237).

Teaching teenagers is a daunting challenge for most teacher. Find out about teenagers' learning potential and how to motivate them to participate. Teenagers have a greater learning potential than of young children but they are considerably more difficult to motivate and manage. It also takes longer to build up a trusting relationship with a teenager but once a teacher finds the correct balance of respect and authority, teaching teenagers can be a rewarding and fun-filled experience.

Teenagers go through a development stage which can be difficult between the ages of 13 and 19 and, even though they would not admit it, authority and stability in the classroom is often reassuring for them. They have a highly developed sense of what is right and what is not and the general expectation amongst teenagers is that they are treated with respect and fairness by their teacher even though they are unsure of their own personal value with regards to their capacity and intelligence.

a. CHARACTERISTIC OF THE TEENAGER LEARNER

A teenager, or teen, is a young person whose age falls within the range from 13–19. They are called teenagers because their age number ends with "teen". Usage by ordinary people varies, and also varies in different societies. Most societies traditionally had a formal ceremony to mark the change from childhood to adulthood. During puberty, rapid mental and physical development occurs. Adolescence is the name for this transition period from childhood to adulthood.

In the United States, teenagers from the ages 13-14 go to middle school while teenagers from the ages of 14-18 typically go to high school. In the United Kingdom (UK); teenagers and non-teens are mixed in secondary school. Teenagers attending secondary school (high school in the US) generally graduate at the age of 17 or 18.

Teenagers respond to the "humanistic" learning environment. They are very idealistic and emotions seem to dominate their character. "Loving at one moment, monsters at the next", as one teacher put it. Waqui (2000, p.3) suggests that the success of a language teacher is partly in being a good, empathetic role model. Learners will respond to a teacher that cares, especially

teenage learners who carry a romantic spirit and crave authenticity, personality and presence over content.

The affective filter can also be reduced by giving students an emotional attachment to language and words (Harmer 2006, p. 58). Language is best retained when it has personal relevance and teachers can foster this. Further, as the preeminent psychologist Carl Rogers noted, “learners need to feel what they are learning is personally relevant to them, that they have to experience learning (not being taught) and that their self image needs to be enhanced”.

Taking care of the affective side of the teaching equation can be a huge task. Further, it should not be done at the expense of attention to the cognitive and intellectual development of the equation. Still, it can be accomplished through a teacher that shares their life with the students and also encourages language learning through personal growth and sharing. Anything creative is a proven classroom winner for the teenager “romantic” learner.

b. THE EFFECTIVE TEACHING METHODS FOR TEENAGERS

Rogers (1957) outlined 3 attitudinal qualities that a teacher, or in his words, a facilitator, should have to assist the learning process. They are empathy (seeing things from the students' viewpoint), authenticity (being yourself) and acceptance (of students' ideas and opinions). Most teenagers are quite self-centred.

They love to talk about themselves what they think, what they don't like are quite emotional. It is widely agreed that motivation has a great effect on a student's capacity to learn. Motivation can be broken down into extrinsic and intrinsic forms.

Intrinsic motivation comes from within the learner, who wants to learn for the sake of learning. Although not impossible to find an intrinsically motivated teenage student, five years of experience working with young learners in Spain leads to believe that they are few and far between. It is much more likely that our teenage students will be extrinsically motivated, meaning that their motivation comes from external sources such as wanting to pass an exam or please their parents. The good news for teachers of teenagers is that there are many things we can do in the classroom to increase the levels of extrinsic motivation.

Ways to improve motivation:

1. Journals

Journal writing can create wonderful opportunities to find out more about your students' lives. When introducing the idea of writing journals it is important to make the aims and general rules clear to students. Students should each have their own notebook to use as their journal. These should be kept by the teacher and it should be made clear that the teacher will not read anyone's writing out in the class. It will be strictly a two-way 'conversation' between the individual student and the teacher give the students their journals to keep.

It should be made clear that the idea is to communicate effectively in English and not to worry too much about mistakes. The teacher will not correct mistakes and will focus solely on the meaning. Teacher keeps a list of common mistakes that are made in the journals and deal with them as and when it is appropriate as an integrative part of the course. Teacher would never use a sentence lifted directly from a journal to focus on an error.

Class time should be set aside for journal writing. At the start of a course, teacher ask students to begin their journals by telling me about themselves and their reasons for studying English. The teacher collects all the journals in and replies individually to each one and asks a question or two, which will be the prompts for the next class's journal writing.

Although replying to the writing in the journals can be time consuming it really does help the teacher to empathise with the students. Discovering, for example, that the reason one of students didn't like to sing in class was because his voice was breaking, or that one of the students was having problems with a group of friends at school really helps to remind of what it is like to be a teenager, these students would not have seen it as appropriate to come and talk to me about these issues but they did feel comfortable to write about them. Many students have really enjoyed the process of journal writing and have felt motivated to write in English on a regular basis.

2. Using Photos – Authenticity

Teenage students can be very curious and inquisitive. Given half the chance they want to know more about their teacher. Carl Rogers claimed that learning would be much more effective when the facilitator does not hide behind a facade.

Using photos can really help to spark genuine interest and generate a lot of language. Topics that lend themselves to the use of photos are describing people, family, holidays or describing places. How much more interesting to describe a photo of the teacher's friend or sister than to describe a photo of a random unknown man in a book. How much more engaging to see holiday photos from the teacher's summer break rather than the typical desert island shots used in course books. Grammar lessons can also be supported with photos. To give a simple example, teaching 'used to' becomes much more memorable when sentences with a visual image can be formed. Eg. "my teacher used to have long hair and a moustache".

Of course there can be drawbacks with letting the students into your personal life, and teacher should think carefully about who to 'introduce' class to teenagers have excellent memories, so questions about the people in the photos will last for the whole course, sometimes the relationships may not last quite as long.

3. Music – Acceptance

Teenagers love listening to music. Due to the fact that so much popular music is in English it can be a source for highly motivating activities. Although it can be tempting to only use music in the class, teenagers really appreciate it if teacher make the effort to find out what they like listening to. To get this information students can write surveys to do with the class to find out the top five favourite bands. Most teachers have a variety of activities to use with songs. Lyrics can be easily found on the internet and there are many opportunities to exploit language in songs. Students themselves can be involved in creating activities to use with their favourite songs.

Having music on in the background can really change the atmosphere of a classroom. A class vote decides what we listen to when we work. By accepting their music tastes and 'tuning in' to them, the motivation levels of a class can be improved. Teenagers know a lot about music and will be willing to tell all about it.

4. Group And Project Work

Teenagers are more independent and readily engage in group work. However, it needs to be monitored closely because young teenagers often regress into more childlike behaviour and fool around which is natural part of showing off to their classmates (G. Lewis 8). Piccolo thinks that even though some teenagers may be quite self-conscious, they need relationships and peer interaction.

It was mentioned before that teenagers are discovering and building up relationships with others. Anderson advocates group work since it "allows individuals to interact with different classmates in a less stressful, collaborative atmosphere." I agree that group work contributes to group dynamics and is very beneficial. However, teachers need to be careful about dividing students into groups. It was discussed already that young teenagers still tend to join same-sex groups. Teachers should bear this in mind and be sensitive when planning a group work.

5. Role-Playing

This is great way for teenager to let themselves go and express themselves freely. Role-playing allows them to vent their feelings in safe way as it can be perceived as just a "role" that a student is playing and not their true selves.

Despite the fact that some teenagers might be shy for acting out in the classroom, authors agree that role-playing and acting activities represent teaching methods suitable for teenagers. Piccolo says that role-plays offer teenagers possibility to express themselves freely. "Role-playing allows them to vent their feelings in a safe way as it can be perceived as just a „role“ that a student is playing and not their true selves" (Piccolo). Anderson supports this statement by saying that role-play activities allow teenagers to express different feelings behind non-threatening, face-saving masks. Anderson further mentions the importance of movement during lessons. Lindstromberg agrees and states that, "Periodic opportunity to move about, or at least stand and move, is highly beneficial to students in this age range and can contribute to keeping interest up".

6. Class Knowledge

Teenagers know a lot about various topics and teacher should tap into their interest and passions for class content. "Teenagers know a lot about various topics and a teacher should tap into their interests and passions for class content" (Piccolo). Anderson agrees that some teenagers have almost encyclopaedic knowledge of a particular field. He suggests that teachers should "let individual students bring their outside interests and knowledge into the classroom through cross-curricular work" (Anderson).

G. Lewis states that it has been only recently that EFL teachers began to recognize the benefits of using subject-area content in their foreign language classrooms. The goal is to learn English through content and the priority still remains language development. G. Lewis adds that teachers should, "encourage students to become precise critical thinkers and to link their language study to other areas of their education".

7. Game

Generally speaking, teenagers are rather competitive, they like to win and show off. Therefore, experts in methodology advise to include games into teaching. Lindstromberg agrees that activities with game-like elements are usually very good for provoking interest. Such elements are for example a degree of competition and a goal which concerns something other than getting the language right. An example of this type of goal is spotting as many differences between two pictures as possible within a time limit, or solving a brainteaser (Lindstromberg 7). Anderson summarizes, "Games can provide not only purposeful contexts in which to use language but they also stimulate interaction, provide competition and are fun – as long as rules are clear and clearly followed by all participants."

8. Discussing And Debating Activities

Teenage students frequently say "they want to discuss or debate issues that are of genuine interest to them. This must partly be so because the idea of discussing and debating issues of consequence is in tune with teenage idealism" (Lindstromberg 191). Teenagers also desire to experiment with adult-like ways of relating to others. Discussion and debate are very adult in its nature.

Furthermore, Lindstromberg emphasises that learning to debate reinforces personal development in teenagers (192). Discussion is a valuable means for social integration, since teenagers learn to be able to work both independently and as part of a team. For successful

discussing and debating, they need to listen to others well, follow rules and show respect for other participants. “Debaters are obliged to learn how to maintain self-control and be courteous in any discussion” (Lindstromberg 192).

Discussing activities also develop intellectual and study skills in teenagers. Debaters must be able to generalize, understand an assertion as a whole, recognise key terms and know how to construct and state arguments. Moreover, discussions improve verbal-self-expression. Through discussion and debate teenagers learn to speak fluently and confidently, stick to a topic and generally be relevant. They must be able to deliver their ideas effectively and challenge or defend positions (Lindstromberg 192-193).

However, teachers should remember that losing their temper or shouting at a student will simply make them weaker. In the class a teacher would lose authority in front of the students. Talking to a student in one-to-one situation after the lesson usually puts teacher in control again. Teachers lose credibility and respect if they do not follow what they have promised. It is therefore important not to issue empty threats about disciplinary actions.

CONCLUSION

English language teachers and methodology experts agree that teenagers are a difficult age group to teach. Teaching them often signifies a daunting challenge for most of teachers. However, teenagers may well be the most exciting students of all.

In addition to choosing activities with potential to be interesting and useful, teachers should make their lessons success-oriented. Since nothing builds motivation like success, teachers should design or choose tasks which set everyone achievable aims.

Teenagers then need to feel good about themselves and prefer teachers who value them. A teenager gives quite self-explanatory conclusion when asked about what qualities make a good teacher. The good news for teachers of teenagers is that there are many things we can do in the classroom to increase the levels of extrinsic motivation.

Using L1 in the English Classroom

There have always been contradicting views about whether to use the mother tongue of the students in the foreign language classroom. The monolingual approach suggest that the target language ought to be the sole medium of communication. Implying the prohibition of the native language would maximize the effectiveness of learning the target language.

Background

A proponent of the monolingual approach, Krashen has argued that people learning foreign languages follow basically the same route as they acquire their mother tongue, hence the use of the mother tongue in the learning process should be minimized (1981).

Authors of some introductory books on teaching EFL, such as Haycraft (1978), Hubbard et al. (1983), and Harmer (1997), do not address this issue or pay very little attention to it. This suggests either the mother tongue does not play an important role in foreign language teaching or the issue of native language use does not exist in the classroom of these authors, since most of them are native speakers of English accustomed to working with multilingual groups of students (Dornyer, personal communication).

During the past 15 years, however, monolingual orthodoxy has lost its appeal. Medgyes considers this orthodoxy "untenable on any grounds, be they psychological, linguistic or pedagogical" (1994:66). It has been argued that exclusion of the mother tongue is a criticism of the mother tongue and renders it a second-class language. This degradation of the mother tongue has harmful psychological effects on learners (Nation 1990).

Professionals in second language acquisition have become increasingly aware of the role the mother tongue plays in the ESL classroom. Nunan and Lamb (1996), for example, contend that EFL teachers working with monolingual students at lower levels of English proficiency find prohibition of the mother tongue to be practically impossible. Dornyei and Kormos (1998) find that the L1 is used by L2 learners as a communication strategy to compensate for deficiencies in the target language. Auerbach (1993) not only acknowledges the positive role of the mother tongue in the classroom, but also identifies the following uses for it: classroom management, language analysis, presenting rules that govern grammar, discussing cross-cultural issues, giving instructions or prompts, explaining errors, and checking for comprehension.

My personal experience as a learner and teacher of English as a foreign language has shown me that moderate and judicious use of the mother tongue can aid and facilitate the learning and teaching of the target language, a view shared by many colleagues of mine. However, the value of using the mother tongue is a neglected topic in the TEFL methodology literature. This omission, together with the widely advocated principle that the native language should not be used in the foreign language classroom, makes most teachers, experienced or not, feel uneasy about using L1 or permitting its use in the classroom, even when there is a need to do so.

Should the students' L1 be used in the EFL classroom? Though its use has been defended by some language teaching specialists, little empirical research has been done to find out if it is an effective teaching and learning tool.

How do students and teachers look at this issue? Schweers (1999) conducted a study with EFL students and their teachers in a Spanish context to investigate their attitudes toward using L1 in the L2 classroom. His results indicate that the majority of students and teacher agreed that Spanish should be used in the ESL classroom (Schweers 1999).

Inspired by his research and driven by my own interest, I decided to carry out a similar study on the use of the native language in the Chinese context. However, differences exist between Schweer's study and mine. Firstly, in Schweer's study English was the official second language of his participants, while in mine English was a foreign language to the participants. Secondly, the participants in my research were all first-year English major students and the classes observed were first-year reading classes. Thirdly, I used a variety of research methods, including classroom observation, interviews, and a questionnaire.

Research design

Questions

This study aimed to answer the following questions: (1) Is Chinese as the L1 used in tertiary-level English classrooms in China? If so how frequently is it used and for what purposes? (2) what are the attitudes of the students and teachers toward using Chinese in the EFL classroom?.

Participant:

The participants of this study were 100 first-year English major students attending a university in Beijing. Their English was at the intermediate level. The 20 teacher participants were all faculty members at the same university. White their teaching experience ranging from one year to 30 years.

Methods and Procedures

Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used, including classroom observations, interviews, and questionnaires.

Classroom Observations

There randomly-selected first-year reading classes (of about 50 minutes in length) conducted by three teachers were observed and recorded to find out how frequently and on what occasions Chinese was used. To obtain more authentic classroom data, the teachers and students were not informed of the observation purpose beforehand.

Interviews

The three teachers whose classes were observed and recorded were interviewed and asked why they sometimes preferred using Chinese to English in their classes. The interviews were recorded and summarized.

Questionnaires

A questionnaire (see Appendix 1) was distributed to 100 students, and another questionnaire (see Appendix 2) to 20 teachers to discover their attitudes toward using Chinese in the English classroom. The questionnaire items focused on the subjects' opinions toward the use of L1, the various occasions when they think L1 can be used, and the perceived effectiveness of L1 in their EFL classroom.

Results

Classroom observations

Table 1 shows the number of times and occasions that Chinese was used in the three 50-minute reading classes. The table shows that Chinese was used by the three teachers in the tertiary-level English reading classes to give instructions and to explain the meaning of words, complex ideas, and complex grammar points. The greatest use of Chinese, 13 times, was to explain the meaning of words. Teacher 1 used Chinese to explain the words *steep*, *strain*, *scatter*, *fine*, *spout*, *terrain*, *melt*, and *beneficiary* after her English explanations, which proved to be quite effective judging from the students' responses. Teacher 2 used Chinese to explain the meaning of the words *surge*, *high*, and *spell* following her English explanations. In explaining the word *high* in the phrase *a search for a 'high' that normal life does not supply*, she came up with an appropriate and culturally-specific Chinese translation, and the students seemed to understand it quickly. One could conclude that the teachers use Chinese only when they explain abstract or culturally-specific words. All three teachers first attempted to explain the words, grammar points, and meanings of complex ideas in English, but resorted to Chinese when they thought the students did not or could not understand their English explanations.

Teacher 3 used Chinese most frequently to give instructions. In the first five instances, the teacher used Chinese only after first giving instructions in English, apparently to ensure that every student was clear about what was said. Because it was quite noisy outside the classroom at the time, the teacher used Chinese instructions alone on four occasions to hold the students' attention and make them follow him.

These three classroom observations indicate that Chinese is used on occasions when English explanations fail to work, hence the L1 plays a supportive and facilitating role in the classroom.

Interviews

After the classroom observations, the three teachers whose classes had been observed were interviewed about their occasional use of Chinese in the classroom and how they viewed the common criticism that using Chinese reduces the students' exposure to English. Their answers are summarized as follows:

* Teacher 1: firstly, I think using some Chinese is more effective and less time-consuming. Occasionally, when you spend quite some time or use several English sentences to explain one word or idea, and the students still look confused, using one simple Chinese word or idiom might solve the problem. Class time is limited; if using Chinese is helpful, why not do it? Secondly, criticizing the use of Chinese on the grounds that the students' exposure to English will be reduced does not reflect the fact that students read the English text and still communicate in English with the teacher and other students in the classroom. The use of some Chinese in the class actually provides more time for students to practice their English and get exposure to English. Lastly, the amount of English used depends on the students' language proficiency level. If their English is at an advanced level, I feel no need to use Chinese. All in all, I think that using some Chinese in the classroom is necessary and the advantages of doing so outweigh any disadvantages.

* Teacher 2: the main reason I use Chinese in the classroom is that sometimes students because of their low proficiency level in English fail to follow me when I only use English to explain the meaning of the text or to give instructions. Also, when I happen to know a very vivid and appropriate Chinese translation of an English sentence, I will give it to students so they can immediately comprehend the meaning of the English sentence. This also helps them compare the word choices in the two languages.

* Teacher 3: I use Chinese to discuss the meaning of some difficult, abstract words and to explain the grammar and ideas expressed in long and complicated sentences. Sometimes when students look puzzled after my English explanation of certain points, I will use Chinese to reinterpret them. Furthermore, when the classroom is noisy, using Chinese to keep order is more effective than using English.

Questionnaires

As noted earlier, questionnaires were distributed to students and teachers. Of the 100 given to students, 98 were returned. Of the 20 given to teachers, 18 were returned. The findings are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 shows that a high percentage of the students (70 percent) and the teachers (72 percent) who participated in the study think that Chinese should be used in the classroom. The vast majority of students (97 percent) like it when their teachers use some Chinese. According to students, Chinese was most necessary to explain complex grammar points (72 percent) and to help define some new vocabulary items (69 percent). For teachers, Chinese was most necessary to practice the use of some phrases and expressions (56 percent) and to explain difficult concepts or ideas (44 percent). Only two teachers indicated that Chinese could be used to give suggestions on how to learn more effectively. In *choosing* the open-ended "Other" option about when it is necessary to use Chinese in the EFL classroom, a few students indicated that the L1 could be used to translate well-written paragraphs and to compare the two languages.

In explaining why they think the use of Chinese is necessary in EFL classes, the majority of student participants (69 percent) indicate that it helps them to understand difficult concepts better. Fewer than half of the students (42 percent) answered that Chinese was necessary to understand new vocabulary items better. Only six percent of the students responded that they felt less lost. This figure is significantly smaller than the corresponding student response in Schweer's study, in which 68.3 percent of the students preferred the use of the L1 in order to feel less lost (1999:8). A possible explanation for this difference is that the students' English language proficiency level in my study was higher than in Schweer's.

The few students who chose the open-ended "Other" option for why it is necessary to use the L1 indicated that Chinese could be used to understand jargon and to improve their translation ability. Concerning why the use of Chinese was necessary, teachers answered because "it is more effective" (44 percent) and "it aids comprehension greatly" (39 percent). One teacher suggested that use of L1 helps students become more aware of the differences and similarities between different cultures. More than half of the students (60 percent) think Chinese should be used in the classroom "sometimes". Concerning how much time Chinese should be used in the English class, 63 percent of the students answered the amount of Chinese used should range from 5 to 10 percent of class time, and 30 percent of the students answered it should be from 20 to 30 percent of class time.

The questionnaire results show that in the reading classes of first-year English majors, the use of Chinese is justified. It is especially useful for language tasks such as defining vocabulary items, practicing the use of phrases and expressions, and explaining grammar rules and some important ideas. This is in agreement with the classroom observation results (see Table 1). Students prefer the use of Chinese because it enhances their comprehension of new concepts and new vocabulary items; teachers think using Chinese is more effective and can aid comprehension.

Discussion

The results of the present study on the use of the mother tongue in a Chinese EFL context bear many similarities to Schweer's study in a Spanish context. Both studies indicate that the mother tongue was used by the majority of teachers investigated, and both students and teachers responded positively toward its use. Minor discrepancies exist concerning the occasions when the L1 should be used. Some of these differences can be accounted for by the participants' different levels of L2 language proficiency. The teachers participating in this study indicated that the translation of some word, complex ideas, or even whole passages is a good way to learn a foreign language. My observation of the three classes suggests that without translation, learners would be likely to make unguided and often incorrect translations.

This study also reveals that in the EFL classes observed Chinese plays only a supportive and facilitating role. The chief medium of communication in the class is still English. As with any other classroom technique, the use of the mother tongue is only a means to the end of improving foreign language proficiency. I agree with the majority of student participants (about 63 percent combined) that no more than 10 percent of class time should be spent using Chinese. In my experience, this percentage decreases as the students' English proficiency increases. Of course, a translation course would be an exception.

Unlike Schweer's student participants, the students in the present study are highly motivated to learn English. As English majors in the university, their English language proficiency is regarded as a symbol of their identity and a route to future academic and employment opportunities. Few of them feel that English is imposed on them or regard the use of English as a threat to their identity. Instead, they generally prefer greater or exclusive use of English in the classroom. In their view, Chinese should be used only when necessary to help them learn English better.

Conclusion

The research seems to show that limited and judicious use of the mother tongue in the English classroom does not reduce students' exposure to English, but rather can assist in the teaching and learning processes. This is not to overstate the role of the L1 or advocate greater use of L1 in the EFL classroom, but rather to clarify some misconceptions that have troubled foreign language teachers for years, such as whether they should use the mother tongue when there is a need for it and whether the often-mentioned principle of no native language in the classroom is justifiable. It is hoped that these findings will help make more people acknowledge the role of the native language in the foreign language classroom and stimulate further study in this area.

Background

Collaborative learning is very important in achieving critical thinking. According to Gukhalr (1995) individuals are able to achieve higher levels of learning and retain more information when they work in a group rather than individually. This applies to both the facilitators of knowledge, the instructors, and the receivers of knowledge, the students. For example: Indigenous communities of America's illustrate that collaborative learning occurs because individual participation in learning occurs on a horizontal plane when children and adult are equal.

DISCUSSION

1. What is collaborative learning?

Collaborative learning is based on the view that knowledge is a social construct. Collaborative activities are most often based on four principles:

- The learner or student is the primary focus of instruction.
- Interaction and "doing" are of primary importance
- Working in groups is an important mode of learning.
- Structured approaches to developing solutions to real-world problems should be incorporated into learning.

Collaborative learning can occur peer-to-peer or in larger groups. Peer learning, or peer instruction, is a type of collaborative learning that involves students working in pairs or small groups to discuss concepts, or find solutions to problems. This often occurs in a class session after students are introduced to course material through readings or videos before class, and/or through instructor lectures. Similar to the idea that two or three heads are better than one, many instructors have found that through peer instruction, students teach each other by addressing misunderstandings and clarifying misconceptions.

2. What is the impact of collaborative learning or group work?

Research shows that educational experiences that are active, social, contextual, engaging, and student-owned lead to deeper learning. The benefits of collaborative learning include:

- Development of higher-level thinking, oral communication, self-management, and leadership skills.
- Promotion of student-faculty interaction.
- Increase in student retention, self-esteem, and responsibility.
- Exposure to and an increase in understanding of diverse perspectives.
- Preparation for real life social and employment situations.

3. Real Life Problem Solving:a collaborative learning activity

classroom activities that emphasize interaction help students to rise language. the give-and-take of message enable them to retrieve and interrelate a great deal of what they have encountered in the target language (rivers 1987). interaction allows students to practice being effective speakers by developing two needed sets of skills (Bygate 1987). the first is managing an interaction, including sub-skills such as knowing when and how to take the floor, how to invite someone else to speak, and how to keep a conversation going. the second set of skills is negotiating meaning, that is making sure that the person you are speaking to has understood you correctly and that you have understood the other person.

interaction involves not just expressing one's own idea, but comprehending those of others. using communicative tasks in the classroom is preferred because they involve the learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while attention is principally focused on meaning rather than from (nunan 1989). as a teacher of EFL, I have sought activities that put interactive tasks in the forefront.

as a teacher committed to teaching adults because of world knowledge they bring to the classroom, I think of myself as a pedagogical activist. like freire (1970), I reject the so called "banking" concept of education in which knowledge is viewed as a gift bestowed by those who are

considered ignorant, and education become an act of “ depositing “ in which the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor. rather, I am a proponent of a collaborative pedagogy that embrace the notion of interaction among students.

as defined by Reagan, fox and bleich (1994), collaboration is an underlying social orientation in which the participants share a general sense of purpose and orientation, and a discernible set of roles. under this definition, a class of adults, such as the ones I teach, becomes a community of people who bring vast experience to the classroom in order to interact about things that really matter. in the words of Tompkins (1990:650) I wanted to “ forge a connection between whatever we were talking about in class and what went on in the lives of the individual members “.

interaction and collaboration among students complement the affective factors in foreign language learning. self-esteem, empathy, reduced anxiety, and the improve attitude and motivation are all fostered when students are engaged in genuine interaction (shumlin 1997). also real life communication in the classroom is intrinsically interesting and useful to the students. they talk in order to get information they want, reach a decision, or solve a problem.

not surprisingly, interactive and collaborative activities require the teacher to step out of the limelight and to cede to each student a full role in developing and completing activities, accepting all kinds of opinions and being tolerant of errors students make while attempting to communicate (rivers 1987). a classroom activity that integrates these high demands is a joy to teach. for this reason, I would like to share the activity I’ve called “real live problem solving.

4. Real Life Problem Solving

The first time I do a real life problem solving activity with a class, I put a list of stages and time limits on the board. Then I divide the students into groups of four to six. Five seem to be ideal, but I aim for a consistant number of group members. The activity is not explained in detail to the students at the beginning because to do so would overwhelm them with excessive detail instead, after I ring a small bell to end each stage,I explain what they are to do in the next one. I point out that this activity has strict time limits, with seven stages totaling 27 minutes, and that I will use the bell (or anything that can be heard above the myriad conversations going on at the moment) to signal the end of each stage. The stages are:

State the problems and choose one	5 minutes
Analyze the problem	5 minutes
Brainstorm solutions	5 minutes
Choose two solutions	2 minutes
Think the solutions through	5 minutes
Identify a report-back date	1 minutes
Follow up on the report-back date	4 minutes

❖ *State the problems and choose one*

Each student in the group talks about a real problem he or she is having. It could concern anything,for example :school, home or work, but it should be a recurring problem rather than an isolated incident. My students have discussed problems as varied as a neighbour who repeatedly blocked the driveway, a woman who suspected her husband was having an affair, a woman who hated her mother in-law smoking in the house, and a student who feared an entrance exam looming in his future. It should be a problem that concerns the student, not a friend of the student, and not a broad societal problem unless it touches the student directly. After each member of the group states a problem, tthe group chooses one to focus on.

❖ *analyze the problem*

There is more than one approach to analyzing the problem. of the four approaches outlined below, one is chosen. the group members ask the relevant questions and the person with the problems answers as honestly as possible. I have written the following four approach on index cards for the groups to use during the activity.

1. find the pattern behind the problem. does it happen with certain people? does t happen to other people as well? is it institutional?
2. analyze the motives and the goals of the participants. what do/did you want? what do/did the other person(s) want? were your desires in conflict? if so, why? what are the advantages and disadvantages to the other people if they change their behavior?
3. get more information. how have you tried to solve the problem? did the solution work or not work?

4. use a metaphor. if this were a game, what would you name it and how would you score? what are the roles? if this were a war, which countries would be involved? how would the winner be determined? if this were a movie, which roles would you and the others play? what would be the turning point in the plot? how would it end?

❖ *BRAINSTORM SOLUTION*

The person with the problem is silent and takes notes. the group members brainstorm as many solution as possible, whoever wild and innovative. not every idea has to be a new one, elaboration and variation are encouraged.

❖ *CHOOSE TWO SOLUTION*

the person with the problem reviews the notes taken during the brainstorming session and identifies two that are worth exploring. generally, solutions that foster prevention rather than punishment are preferred. the student tells the group which two solution were chosen.

❖ *THINK THE SOLUTIONS THROUGH*

with the help of the group, the student anticipates how the chosen solution would actually be implemented. for example, what steps are necessary and what people are involved? what additional help may be needed? it is helpful to have a group member, but not the student with the problem, take notes during this stage. the two possible solution should be detailed.

❖ *IDENTIFY A REPORT-BACK DATE*

The student with the problem sets a date when she or he will report back to the group what happened. this commitment to the group seems to make the difference between a classroom activity and a real life event. at this point, I make a chart of groups and their report-back dates and post it for future reference. I give students an opportunity to discuss the nature of their problems and chosen solution with the whole class if they wish. they are not required to do this. some choose to discuss it, others don't.

❖ *FOLLOW UP ON THE REPORT-BACK DATE*

On a particular group's report-back date, four minutes of class time is given for them to meet while the rest of the students do the regular class activity. I usually have them leave the room and sit together in the hallway or break area, and the student with the problem reports on what occurred. if no action was taken, they discuss what the obstacles were, then they brainstorm new solutions and think through two new ones, then set a new report-back date.

CONCLUSION

The joy of this activity is the student response. I've heard, "oh, this is real," "I can really use this information," and "I've really learned a lot from my classmate about how to my situation." Such feedback makes the effort put into the activity worthwhile. Invariably, when we move through the activity, the outcome is consistently positive.

A caution: there may be resistance or delay during the first stage when student must state the problem and choose one. Groups often take up to 15 minutes the first time they do the activity. This situation requires guidance from the teacher to direct the students' attention away from the general and toward the specific. For example, students ruminated on drug use in society today and needed to be redirected toward thinking about the issue's impact on their lives. This led one student to talk about how she dreaded the return of her uncle to the household after he dropped out of another drug rehabilitation program.

This problem-solving activity can be integrated into various syllabus designs. For content-based instruction, learner's lives become the focus. For a functional syllabus, practice in brainstorming, supporting, advising, clarifying, agreeing and disagreeing is the focus. For a structural syllabus, students get practice in using conditionals, modals and past, present and future tense. After the first implementation of the activity, the teacher becomes simply a time-keeper, allowing interaction to *titik2* among the group members.

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THE INFLUENCE OF COLLABORATIVE STRATEGIC READING (CSR) AND READING ATTITUDE TOWARD READING COMPREHENSION ACHIEVEMENT TO THE TENTH GRADE STUDENTS OF SMA NEGERI 1 BUAY MADANG OKU TIMUR

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Abstract

This study aimed at finding out whether or not Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) and students' reading attitude influence the students' reading comprehension and there was or no a significant interaction effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) and students' reading attitude toward the tenth grade students' reading comprehension of SMA Negeri 1 Buay Madang OKU Timur. The population of this study was 131 students of SMA Negeri 1 Buay Madang OKU Timur. From the population, there were 40 students taken as sample of experimental group and 40 students were as control group. The sample was taken using stratified random sampling. In carrying out the research, the writer used a factorial group design. Finally the calculation using a two-way ANOVA was used to measure an interaction between Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) and students reading attitude on their reading comprehension. Test of Between-Subjects Effects analyses, the significant value of the techniques (CSR and traditional) and the students' reading attitude were 0.130, the probability sig. of technique was 0.175, and the interaction between positive and negative attitude was 0.245 which higher than the significant level of p-value 0.05, it meant that there was no a significant interactions between students' interest and techniques. So, the research hypothesis that stated "there is no an interaction between CSR and reading attitude toward students' reading comprehension" was accepted and the null hypothesis was not rejected based on the data finding.

Keywords: *Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR), Reading Attitude, and Reading Comprehension Achievement.*

INTRODUCTION

Reading is very important because by reading people can understand the information sent or read from the printed pages. Reading offers a productive approach to improve vocabulary and word power. Reading helps in mental development and it is an activity that involves greater levels of concentration and adds to the conversational skills of the readers. "Reading provides detailed information on reading, home reading, reading comprehension and more. Grabe and Stoller (2002:9) define reading as the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately. Meanwhile, Harris (2007) said that the easiest way to educate any problem is to teach the skill of reading.

Without comprehension, reading is nothing more than tracking symbols on a page with your eyes and sounding them out. To develop the students' reading comprehension achievements in the classroom process, an understanding of the theories behind reading comprehension are really required. Three important theories on reading comprehension are necessarily noticed. There are the schema theory, mental models theory, and the propositional theory (Suhaimi, 2009). Reading comprehension is essential to life. Sugiarto (2004:1) asserts that teaching students how to use reading strategies will promote life-long learning and enable them to explore any world they choose and give them a chance to reach their lives goal'. Later he says that there are many factors that are able to affect students' success in reading that is teachers, students, and condition of environment, reading materials and reading methods that are used to learn reading materials.

To improve the quality of teaching and learning reading comprehension one of the available strategies suggested and being discussed here is used the Collaborative Strategic Reading (Klingner, 2000). The importance of reading strategy is elaborated by Killen (1998:3) as follows: Reading strategies play important role in understanding the reading materials". They facilitate the comprehension of the students who want to read effectively. A student who has determined what he or she expects to gain from his or her reading should select a reading strategy which a particular purpose. If he or she is reading a novel or magazine for pleasure, he or she would obviously not use the same kind of reading strategy to use in studying science books, linguistics, mathematics and other subjects. Moreover, to increase the skill in reading comprehension, either in reading for pleasure or for scientific lesson, the students should get enough training both in the classroom and outside. They should also study English language thinking. To study reading, especially reading comprehension the students should enrich themselves with vocabulary which consists of the knowledge of meaning as grammar and the idea stated in the text. So, ideally vocabulary should be part of reading course because one needs the mastery of vocabulary to comprehend the reading passage. "The reader's vocabulary mastery is one of the important factors in the development of reading skills. The growth of reading habit is the continuous growth of words knowledge (Nation, 2003).

In local context a study has done by Dien (2010) showed that the reading attitudes, reading habits, and reading comprehension achievement of the students of Senior High School (SMA) in South Sumatra are still low. This study was intended to see whether or not students' attitudes towards reading and habits of reading comprehension achievement are characterized by library visits. The factors of school libraries (total) are significantly correlated with students' library visits (43%) and with the reading comprehension achievement (23,1%). However, the problem is that in South Sumatra itself, only 30% of

high school libraries satisfy the national standard (Alwi et al., 2008). Naturally this makes the students' reading habits not promising.

Related to some factors above, reading strategies are believed to play important role in teaching and learning in which the teacher should select appropriate reading strategies for students' particular purpose. The selection of the strategies should primarily meet the students' need. Due to the fact that there is no specific strategy that is best to apply to the students, so the teacher of English in this case must be wise and knowledgeable concerning with this different strategy application.

Based on the statement above the writer believes that reading activity is not solely the activity to read but it need students' comprehension to make reading more meaningful. This situation motivated the writer to conduct a research a title "The Influence of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) and Reading Attitude toward Reading Comprehension Achievement of the Tenth Students of SMA Negeri 1 Buay Madang OKU Timur".

Based on the background above, the problems of the study are formulated as follows:

1. Is there any significant influence of CSR on students' reading comprehension achievement?
2. Is there any significant influence of students' reading attitude on their reading comprehension achievement?
3. Is there any significant interaction effect of CSR and reading attitude on students' reading comprehension?

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The Concept of Reading

People may define reading differently based on their purposes and reasons in reading. Therefore, there are various definitions that have been stated by language experts. Reading is a complex, dynamic process that involves the bringing of meaning to and the getting of meaning from the printed page (Rubin, 1993:5). In other word, Bromley (1992:202) states that reading is an active cognitive process of interacting with print and monitoring comprehension to establish meaning.

According to Pederick, Johnstone & King (2006:2), reading is decoding and understanding written text. Cline explains, decoding requires translating the symbols of writing systems (including Braille) into the spoken words they represent. Understanding is determined by the purposes for reading, the context, the nature of the text, and the readers' strategies and knowledge.

Reading is one important skill in learning a language. It is also a means of recreation and enjoyment. At the same time it enlarges knowledge and improves the technological achievement. In order to develop reading skill it is necessary to read many kinds of reading materials. Students should not only develop their reading skill through formal education and assignment in various school textbook, but they also should read fiction, free reading books, newspapers and magazine.

Grabe & Stoller (2002:9) define reading as the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately. Cohen states that reading has been described as the perception of current text in the perspective of previous text already read. He further states that the reading depends on how alert they are, how motivated they are to read the particular text, how good the fit is between what they are reading at the current moment and what they already read, their familiarity with the topic, and the complexity of the material.

Reading is used as an opportunity to teach pronunciation, encourage fluent and expressive speaking, but also offers a productive approach to increase vocabulary and word power. There are five advantages to reading English based on Beatric & Linda (1998:3): (1) reading in English help you learn to think in English, (2) reading in English help you build your English vocabulary, (3) reading in English makes you more comfortable with writing in English. You can write better in English if you feel comfortable with the language, (4) reading in English may be the only way for you to use English if you live in a non-English-speaking country, (5) reading in English can help if you plan to study in an English-speaking country.

From the above definitions, it can be concluded that reading is a process which involves identifying, interpreting, and evaluating because it is appropriate with the reading steps. For example, in reading text, a reader usually starts from identifying the objective of reading, the types of text and reading strategies such as: speed reading, extensive reading, etc). Those steps have included automatically as a process of reading.

The Concept of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR)

Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) was found and developed by Klinger & Vaughn (1987). CSR is the comprehension strategy which combine modification of reciprocal teaching (Palincsar & Brown, (1984) and cooperative learning strategy (Johnson & Johnson, (1987:2).

The concept of this strategy is engaging students to work in small cooperative groups (3-5) and apply four reading strategies: *Preview, Click & Clunk, Get the Gist and Wrap Up*. Preview allows students to generate interest and activate background knowledge in order to predict what they will learn.

Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) is an approach designed to assist students who struggle with reading comprehension. There are some goals of Collaborative Strategic Reading; (1) To improve reading comprehension and increase conceptual learning in ways that maximize students' involvement. (2) Developed to enhance reading comprehension skills for students with learning disabilities and students at risk for reading difficulties. (3) Collaborative Strategic Reading has also yielded positive outcomes for average and high average achieving students (Klingner & Vaughn, 1996).

Furthermore, Klingner & Vaughn, (1999) state that Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) was designed to facilitate reading comprehension for students with reading difficulties. It can assume that Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) is very enthusiastic as an instructional approach for multilevel classroom and have been implementing it for a year or more. It can be a good design in stages to make teaching reading more effective and efficient to encourage students' interest fun and at the same time beneficial by cooperative study between co-learners has knowledge. It could help students get the most of their English.

Based on the theories above, it can be concluded that cooperative Strategic Reading (CSR) is a type of collaborative learning strategy that enable each student of to work in small cooperative and students interest and activate background knowledge in order to predict what they will learn.

Concept of Reading Attitude

The students' attitude toward reading is a central factor affecting reading performance. Positive attitudes can compensate for relatively weak skills and negative attitudes can prevent a student from applying existing knowledge or from acquiring new information (Paris, Olson & Stevenson: 1993). Researchers have argued more recently that attitude is distinct from motivation, since students frequently report doing well on academic tasks (including reading) at the same time that they report disliking the activity (Mckenna, Kear & Ellsworth: 1995).

The result of a study by Lazarus & Callahan (2000) & Polychroni and Anagnostu (2006) show that students diagnosed with learning disability in reading have negative attitude towards reading. Attitudes can also consist of one's affinity for a particular activity. The importance of the effective characteristics of learning disability students has long been noted, and these children are often attributed with negative affective characteristics. Despite this somewhat general acceptance in the field (Roger & Saklofske, 1985), it has been definitely ascertained whether the negative affective variables cause the learning disability, are a consequence of it, are related in origin to the actual disability, or are simply behaviors which happen to occur concurrently with the difficulty in learning.

METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH

Method of Research

The design of the experimental method in this research used factorial design. There were two groups, the first was experimental and the second was control group. Where the experimental group got Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) technique treatment and control group was treated with traditional method. The design could be seen as follow.

Experimental group	R	O ₁	X ₁	Y ₁	O ₂
Control group	R	O ₁	X ₂	Y ₁	O ₂
Experimental group	R	O ₁	X ₁	Y ₂	O ₂
Control group	R	O ₁	X ₂	Y ₂	O ₂

(Fraenkle & Wallen, 1993)

The application of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) technique and students' reading attitude in factorial design is illustrated in Table 1.

TABLE 1
FACTORIAL DESIGN OF RESEARCH

Attitude	Strategy	
	Collaborative Strategic Reading (X1)	Traditional Method (X2)
Positive (Y1)	X1Y1	X2Y1
Negative (Y2)	X1Y2	X2Y2

From this factorial design, the writer could assess not only the separate effect of each independent variable but also their joint effect. In other words, the writer could see how one of the variables moderates the other (moderator variables).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To know there is significant influence of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) and reading attitude toward reading comprehension achievement at the tenth grade students of SMA Negeri 1 Buay Madang OKU Timur, the writer used Independent t-test by the assistance of SPSS17. Based on the analysis result, the writer found that the p-output (0.00) was lower than alpha (0.05). It means that there is significant influence of CSR and reading attitude toward reading comprehension achievement.

Independent t test was commonly used to know the difference between two groups. In this investigation, it is found that the mean of the students were taught using Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) in group statistic table was 81.15, while those who were taught using traditional method got 49.18, it mean the two group are significantly different. Then, the Levene Test 0.614 was higher than 0.05, or in other word, the variance of the two groups were approximately equal. Furthermore, the output sig value was 0.00 was lower than 0.05, it could be predicted that the strategy (Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR)) was applied to increase students' reading comprehension was effective.

In analyzing the significant interaction between CSR and reading attitude toward reading comprehension achievement, the writer used ANOVA. Based on the data processed using SPSS17 program, it found the interest score was 0.130, with the criteria test if the probability (sig) > 0.05. Because the sig was 0.130 was higher than 0.05, it meant that there was no a significance interaction between the technique and the students' attitude. Meanwhile, the interaction between techniques to the

student achievement could be decided from the probability sig. of technique was $0.175 > 0.05$ meaning that there was no an interaction between the two technique to students attitude. Furthermore, the interaction between students attitude, positive and negative attitude, was shown from the sig $0.245 > 0.05$ it meant, there was no a significant interaction between positive and negative attitude to the students reading comprehension achievement. Based on the data finding that Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) was mostly effective used in teaching reading for those who had positive and negative attitude

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Conclusions

The conclusions from the study would be decided based on data finding and the data processed in this investigation, it would be concluded as the following description.

1. Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) influenced the tenth grade students' reading comprehension of SMA Negeri 1 Buay Madang OKU Timur, because of several reasons:
 - a. Based on the data analysis of the students' reading comprehension in experiment group that had positive and negative attitude in the post test with the mean 81.15 was higher than the mean of the pretest student 54.20. Then, the sig value was 0.00 was lower than 0.05, in other word the students' reading comprehension significantly increased.
 - b. Second, the result of t independent test was the mean of experiment group. It was 81.15 higher than mean of control group 49.18 with the sig value 0.00 lower than a (0.5) two tiled. It could be concluded, experiment group and control group were significantly difference and the Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) was effectively to use in improving students' reading comprehension achievement.
 - c. The second of the conclusion was the students' attitude did not influence the tenth grade students' reading comprehension of SMA Negeri 1 Buay Madang OKU Timur. It could be seen from the interaction of students between students' positive and negative attitude was shown from the sig value $0.130 < 0.05$ it mean, there was no a significant interaction positive and negative attitude of students to students reading achievement,
2. The third is there was no interaction effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) and students' attitude toward students reading comprehension of SMA Negeri 1 Buay Madang OKU Timur as explained in the following description.
 - a. Based on the data processed using SPSS17 program, it found the interest score was 0.130, with the criteria test if the probability (sig) > 0.05 it means, no interaction. Because the sig was 0.130 was higher than 0.05, it means the there was no a significance interaction between the technique and the students' attitude. Meanwhile the interaction between techniques to the student achievement could be decided from the probability sig value of technique was $0.175 > 0.05$ meaning that there was no an interaction between the two technique to students attitude. Furthermore, the interaction between students attitude, positive and negative attitude, was shown from the sig $0.245 > 0.05$ it means, there was no a significant interaction between positive and negative attitude to the students reading comprehension achievement. It means that Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) was mostly effective used in teaching reading both in positive and negative attitude.

Suggestions

Based on the finding of this investigation, the writer would like give some suggestion to the teacher, the students and the institution of English as follow:

1. The teacher should be more creative to select the technique for student, and vary the kind of technique of method to improve the students' English skill.
2. The teacher should be able to select the material for the students based on their English proficiency.
3. For the students, they can learn actively using Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR), because this technique stimulates the students to be active in learning.
4. The students should practice more their reading comprehension by using Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) to improve their reading comprehension.
5. The institution should give good books to improve the students' ability in English in English Library
6. The institution should give more space for the teacher to do the research either it is for the development of a new technique or the proven of the technique previously.

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THE ANALAYSIS OF ELLIPSIS IN THE CHRONICLES OF NARNIA FILM BY CLIVE STAPLES LEWIS

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Abstract

Since the ellipsis as a notion is probably a universal, it should appear in all types feature of language includes in ellipsis elements used. Based on the problems, the researcher wants to investigate what are the ellipsis elements used and how are the ellipsis expressed in *The Chronicles of Narnia* Film By Clive Staples Lewis?. In order that, they give significance theoretically to analyze, find out, and describe the ellipsis elements used and expressed in *The Chronicles of Narnia* film, and practically it gives contribution for teachers, students, researcher, and other researchers. The technique used to collect the data was documentation, such as observed by watching *The Chronicles of Narnia* film. The data was taken from the conversation of dialogue transcript. From the data that have been analyzed, it was found that there were three types of ellipsis elements that occurred in analysis of ellipsis in *The Chronicles of Narnia* film. The most frequent types were **verbal ellipsis** occurred 22 times (55%), **clausal ellipsis** occurred 17 times (42.5%), and **nominal ellipsis** occurred only once (2.5%). Verbal ellipsis was the most productive types. It occurred more than 50 % of all the types the analysis of ellipsis in *The Chronicle of Narnia* film.

Keywords: *Analysis, Ellipsis Elements: verbal ellipsis, clausal ellipsis and nominal ellipsis.*

INTRODUCTION

Grammar always exists in every language activity, including in conversation. Therefore, conversation can be analyzed through grammatical aspects. Ellipsis is one of the grammatical aspects in a discourse. Winkler (2005:10) supposes that the term ellipsis, from Greek *elleipsis*, most generally refers to the omission of linguistic material, structure and sound. Essentially, ellipsis is concerned with the way in which grammatical features of the context of utterance. It is also concerned with the ways in the interpretation of utterances depends on the analysis of that context of utterance (Levinson, 1983:54).

McCarthy (1991:43) supposes that ellipsis is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar which is the speaker/writer assumes are obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised. This is not to say that every utterance which is not fully explicit is elliptical; most messages require some inputs from the context to make sense of them. Ellipsis is distinguished by the structure having some 'missing' elements, for example when there is a written sentence: *Nelly liked the green tiles, I preferred the blue.* For this type of the sentence, it is as nominal ellipsis because the word "tiles" involves omission of noun headword.

The reason why the writer is interested in analyzing of ellipsis in *The Chronicles of Narnia* film as the subject of the research because it contains not only the film for enjoyment as entertainment but also the language lesson that can be learnt by the readers or students, particularly from the story of the film. The viewers could learn the English language grammar, especially ellipsis. Besides that the writer wants to get information about the types and functions of ellipsis elements used and how the ellipses are expressed in *The Chronicles of Narnia* film. The last reason is particularly that ellipsis is considered more on the language use and even more on pragmatic consideration, rather than just on the language itself or linguistic consideration.

After watching the film, the writer is interested in understanding the utterances of the film "*The Chronicles of Narnia.*" When the writer tried to find out, it was known that the utterances are contained with ellipsis expressions such as I dearly hope so, I shouldn't have to, so I did, neither are you, so shall I,

etc. That is why the writer has a great interest to investigate a research entitled: “**The Analysis of Ellipsis in *The Chronicles of Narnia* Film by Clive Staples**”.

Research Questions

- 1) What nominal ellipses are there in the film “*The Chronicles of Narnia*” by Clive Staples Lewis?
- 2) What verbal ellipses are there in the film “*The Chronicles of Narnia*” by Clive Staples Lewis?
- 3) What clausal ellipses are there in the film “*The Chronicles of Narnia*” by Clive Staples Lewis?
- 4) What types of ellipses are used most in the film “*The Chronicles of Narnia*” by Clive Staples Lewis?
- 5) How ellipses are expressed in the film “*The Chronicles of Narnia*” by Clive Staples Lewis?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Concept of Film

A film means cinema pictures (Oxford, 1991:155). Furthermore, Vassiliou (2006:2) states that a film provides with the illusion of movement and sound and suspends our disbelief to provide an entertaining, immersive experience for the viewer. Film presents with a story that is re-enacted through the interaction of characters. It can be argued that the cause and effect relationship in a film is governed largely by the characters’ actions that cause events to change.

In addition, films are usually seen as a media that attracts students’ attention, present language in a more natural (interactive) way that is more important films offer a visual context aids which help students understand and improve their English (Mirvan, 2013:62).

Understanding Grammatical Link: Ellipsis

Spoken and written discourses display grammatical connections between individual clauses and utterances. One of these grammatical links is ellipsis. According to McCarthy (1991:43), ellipsis is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar which is the speaker/writer assumes are obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised. This is not to say that every utterance which is not fully explicit is elliptical; most messages require some input from the context to make sense of them. Ellipsis is distinguished by the structure having some ‘missing’ elements.

In this case, the writer will concentrate on the type of ellipsis where the ‘missing’ elements are retrievable verbatim from the surrounding text, rather in the way that anaphoric and cataphoric references are, as opposed to exophoric references.

Types of Ellipsis

According to McCarthy (1991:43) there are three types of ellipsis, they consist of: (1) nominal ellipsis, (2) verbal ellipsis, (3) clausal ellipsis.

Firstly, nominal ellipsis. Nominal ellipsis often involves omission of a noun headword, for example:

Nelly liked the green tiles, I preferred the blue.

For this type of the sentence, it is as nominal ellipsis because the word “*tiles*” involves omission of noun headword.

Secondly, verbal ellipsis. Ellipsis within the verbal group may cause greater problems. Two very common types of verbal-group ellipsis are what Thomas (in McCarthy, 1991:44) states, they are *echoing and auxiliary contrasting*. Echoing repeats an element from the verbal group and contrasting is when the auxiliary changes, for examples:

Echoing repeats an element from the verbal group:

(a) A: *will* anyone be waiting?

B: Jim *will*, I should think.

For this type of the sentence, it is as verbal ellipsis because repeats an element from the verbal group of the word “will”.

(b) The children will carry the small boxes, the adults will carry the large ones. Where ‘will carry’ is supplied from the first clause to the second. This type of main-verb ellipsis.

Contrasting is when the auxiliary changes, for example:

A: *Has* she remarried?

B: No, but she *will* one day, I’m sure.

For this type of the sentence, it is as verbal-group ellipsis because there is an auxiliary-changes in the sentence (the word *has* changes into the word *will*).

Thirdly, clausal ellipsis. Clausal ellipsis involves a clause elements may be omitted especially common are subject-pronoun *omissions* (*doesn’t matter, hope so, sorry, can’t help you, etc*). Whole stretches of clausal components may also be omitted.

For examples:

If you’d stayed here like I suggested, they definitely would be.

(Taken from script- dialogue transcript The Chronicles of Narnia)

For this type of the sentence, it is as clausal ellipsis because this type of sentence has some kinds of substitute for the main verb and an object pronoun, produces the form: “*If you’d stayed here like I suggested, they definitely would be done*”.

Understanding Conversation Analysis

Conversation analysis has become one of provinces in Discourse Analysis, but its tradition is different in language modes. The former focused on spoken discourse while the latter can cover both spoken and written language (Syahri, 2010:1). This research seems special in the term of utilizing conversation analysis in analyzing the ellipsis in which English is used as a medium instruction. It focuses on what are ellipses used and how the ellipses are expressed in *The Chronicles of Narnia* film. It shows the types and the function of ellipsis elements.

METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH

Method of Research

The research was a qualitative study. It was shown by the characteristics of the techniques of collecting and analyzing the data what is customarily referred to as *content analysis* (Syahri, 2010:12). In addition, Ary, et. al., (2010:440) descriptive method is used to describe events as they naturally occur. It involved describing, analyzing, and interpreting of condition that exist. In short, this research concerns to content analysis.

ANALAYSIS AND DISCUSSION

It was found that in the transcripts of film *The Chronicles of Narnia*, there were three types of ellipsis are identified, they are:verbal ellipsis, nominal ellipsis and clausal ellipsis. The percentages of occurences are illustrated in Table 1.

TABLE 1
The Occurences of Ellipsis Types

No	Types of ellipsis	Frequency	Percentage
1	Verbal ellipsis	22	55%
2	Nominal ellipsis	1	2.5%
3	Clausal ellipsis	17	42.5%
	Total	40	100%

From the percentage occurences of ellipsis types above, the types of ellipsis occurred with various frequencies from transcript of dialogue conversation. However, verbal ellipsis occurred twenty two(22)

times in 40 turns, which meant that there was 55% turns of percentage occurrence in whole turns. Nominal ellipsis occurred only once in 40 turns, which meant that there was 2.5% turns of percentage occurrence in whole turns. Clausal ellipsis occurred seventeen times in 40 turns, which meant that there was 42.5% turns of percentage occurrence in whole turns. There was one type that occurred most frequently, it was verbal ellipsis.

CONCLUSION

Based on the results and discussion of the research that have discussed about the analysis of ellipsis in *The Chronicles of Narnia* film, the writer writes the following conclusions:

There were three types of ellipsis elements that occurred in analysis of ellipsis in *The Chronicles of Narnia* film. They were **verbal ellipsis** occurred 22 times (55%), **clausal ellipsis** occurred 17 times (42.5%), and **nominal ellipsis** occurred only once (2.5%). Verbal ellipsis was the most productive types. It occurred more than 50 % of all the types the analysis of ellipsis in *The Chronicle of Narnia* film. All the categories have been documented explicit in literature. In other words, ellipsis as one of the analysis was considered as a newly observed type.

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1.1. Background of the Study

Learning is remembering. If we respect this axiom, the review and recycling of new language items will be critical if they stand a chance of becoming readily accessible in long-term memory. In fact, students do the majority of their forgetting shortly after the lesson and then the rate of forgetting diminishes. To avoid this lexical vanishing act, one solution offered is to follow the 'principle of expanding rehearsal'. This idea suggests that learners review new words shortly after they are presented, and then at increasingly longer intervals. To stimulate long-term memory then, ideally, words would be reviewed 5-10 minutes after class, 24 hours later, one week later, one month later, and finally six months later.

Teachers might even consider doing a quick review of words and phrases which were introduced just a short while ago in the lesson. But unless these new language items are noticed and understood on multiple occasions, they will likely fade from memory and be forgotten. Experts these days concur that learners actually need as many as 5 to 16 'meetings' with a new language item in a variety of contexts before it can be truly learned and activated for genuine use. Teachers then can help solidify new words in long-term memory by creating regular opportunities in their learning program that encourage students to make form-meaning connections of new vocabulary items. Both repetition and retrieval practice of new items are key.

DISCUSSION

2.1. Vocabulary Practice Games

Games are an important part of a teacher's repertoire. Although they are recreational activities by nature whose main purpose is enjoyment, in the language learning process their purpose is to reinforce what has already been taught. In the course of a game, learners are engaged in an enjoyable and challenging activity with a clear goal. Often, students are so involved in playing the games that they do not realize they are practising language.

In addition to spelling and grammar, games can provide practice in another key language area: vocabulary. Such games facilitate initial practice and periodic revision of vocabulary in enjoyable context, thus making classroom vocabulary study an amusing and satisfying experience for teacher and student alike. Some games are played with the whole class, often with the students divided into two teams, while others can be played in pairs or small groups. Now let us look at what games the teacher may exploit while working with words.

1. Memory Game

Begins with one student saying a sentence and the next student in turn adds another word or phrase to the sentence, repeating what has gone before in the same order. For example,

- Student 1: I went shopping
- Student 2: I went shopping and bought a jacket.
- Student 3: I went shopping and bought a jacket and a cap.

And so on. Anyone who cannot add to the list or makes a mistake in ordering the words must drop out of the game. The last player remaining is the winner. This game may be exploited while working with words related to any topic.

2. Word association

requires the students to name all the words they know associated with any lexical category. One student says a word from category then the next students must immediately say another word from the category. The next student continues with another word and so on around the class. For the category classroom, for example, the game might begin this way:

- Student 1: chalk
- Student 2: book bag
- Student 3: tape recorder
- Student 4: ruler

Anyone who cannot think of a word immediately has to drop out of the game

3. Miming

can be used as a guessing game. Some mimes in action and the others try to guess what it is. This kind of guessing game can provide further practice of a wider variety of lexical and grammatical units, such as those related to occupation. One student chooses a job, mimes a typical activity that it involves. The others try to guess the job by asking either about the activity or the job, for example, do you work outside (in an office)?, do you wear a uniform (use

a tool)?. The student miming provides only nonverbal clues to help the rest of the class what the job is.

4. Guess the tool

provides a good opportunity to develop students' skills in defining words and paraphrasing. For this game the teacher puts the students in pairs, facing each other, and gives a card with two words written on it to each student and asks them not to show each other their cards. The two words written on the card are a tool and related occupation, for example, saw and carpenterchalkboard and teacher. One at a time, each student describes the tool without saying its name. The other student has to guessthe tool and name an occupation the uses the tool, for example,

- Student 1: it is used for painting walls and doors.
- Student 2: it is a paintbrush. A decorator uses a paintbrush.

5. Human sounds

Can be used after students have learned the vocabulary of some of the sounds that humans make, for example, cheer, cough, cry, hum, scream, shout, sing, whisper, whistle, and mumble, and have grouped them according to following categories: happiness, pain, sadness, disapproval, annoyance, fear, and excitement. The teacher gives the class situation in which people make noises and ask students to make the sound corresponding to each situation as well as say what it is, for example:

- Teacher: you are in a choir
- Student: sing and says i am singing
- Teacher: you dont want the others to hear what you are telling someone
- Student: whisper something and says i am whispering
- Teacher: you are in great pain
- Student: screams and says i am screaming.

At the end of the game, the teacher may get students to suggest new sentences and context in which to use these verbs

6. Suggestion chain

Involves reviewing both leisure activities vocabulary and ways to make suggestion. For this game students first make an individual list of leisure activities. The using their list, one student begin by suggesting something to do in the evening or next weekend, for example, lets go to the concert the next student has to disagree and, using another way of making a suggestion, suggest a different activity, for example:

- Student 1: lets go to concert
- Student 2: no, not the concert. What about going to the cinema?
- Student 3: we could go to the football match.
- Student 4: no, not football. Why don't we visit alec?

Student continue the game until they have used all of their leisure activities . another way to end this game and have a winner is to eliminate anyone who can't think of anything to do, repeats a leisure activity that was suggested before, does not use another way of making a suggestion, or uses the wrong verb form in the suggestion.

7. Notices and warnings

Practises the phrases and short sentences people come across in an English-speaking environment for this game the teacher needs to prepare two sets of cards. The cards in the first set (notices) contain phrases and sentences of different kind that give information or warnings. The cards in the second set (settings) contain the names of places where people would see or hear it notice. The teacher divides the class into two teams, distributing the notice cards among the students of one team and the setting cards among the students of the other team. One member of the notices team begins by reading aloud the notices on his or her card. The members of the other teams quickly decide which settings from those on their cards is where the notice would be made. For example :

- Student from team 1 : sorry,tickets are sold out
- Student from team 2 : outside a cinema
- Student from team 1 : queue for currency exchange
- Student from team 2 : inside a bank

The order can be reversed , for example:

- Student from team two : beware of pickpockets
- Student from team one : on a crowded bus or busway

Afterwards, the teacher assigns students to think of some other possible notices and warning that they would find in one of these places : a hospital, an airport, a library, a school, a hotel, or a park.

8. Exaggerate

Gives students the opportunity a to practise strong adjectives , such as enormous , delicious , fascinating , horrible ,marvellous , astonished , furious ,and terrified , a long with intensifying adverbs, such as extremely ,quiet , rather, really and absolutely by answering questions. Beforehand the teacher must prepare cards , each with a question , which maybe tag (he is funny ,isn't he?) , negative (wasn't she surprised when she heard the news?) , or yes / no (did you have a bat

- Student 1 : they serve nice dishes in that restaurant , don't they? Bob!
- Student 2 (Bob) : nice? the food is absolutely deliciuos there!

The second student two picks a different card , reads out the question , and names another student to answer it , and the game continues. Any student who doesnt use a strong adjective and / or intensifying adverb while answering is eliminated. It is base to play this game after the students have matched common , weak adjectives with their stronger synonyms.

9. Expand the sentence

Should be played after students have learned about ordering a series of adjective in English , because this game provides practise in placing adjectives in the correct order. The teacher starts by giving a short sentence students , in turn , have to expand the sentence with an adjective by putting it in the right place and then saying the sentence aloud. A player who can't think of an appropriate adjective or puts it in and unceptable possision must drop out. For example :

- Teacher : she bought a jacket
- Student 1 : she bought a black jacket
- Student 2 : she bought a long-sleeved black jacket
- Student 3 : she bought a long sleeved black wool jacket.

The game continues until the sentence would sound unusually in natural speech. The teacher can then start a new sentence with the students remaining in the game.

CONCLUSION

The games included here are by no means an exhaustixe slection. I have only tried to present some nugget from my teaching for others to try out in their classes. These games are intended to be integrated into the general language syllabus of any course book and can be an important and enjoyable way of practising vocabulary for learners. If the example i've provided don't allow teachers to exploit a particular game in other teaching situations , they may need to adapt it to the proficiency level of their classes by changing the target lexis. A teacher may also modify any game to suit different teaching and environments. I hope these suggestions will act as a catalyst to triger further ideas for teachers to create games of their own.

Background of study

MOST READER ARE PROBABLY FAMILIAR WITH THE TELEVISION GAME SHOW *who wants to be a millionaire*? This program, which first aired in the united kingdom in 1998, is now shown in 71 different countries and has 45 different versions in a variety of languages. The phenomenal spread of this show around the world in just a few years is a testament to the popularity of trivia across national and cultural boundaries. While the show does have its detractors, its popularity cannot be denied, and for this reason I believe it is not an overstatement to suggest that the desire to show off one's knowledge of trivia is universal.

The popularity of trivia has not gone unnoticed in ELT. Preusing journals in the field one can find description of classroom activities that make use of trivia, as well as classroom adaptations of popular game shows, such as *who want to be amillionaire?* (Gates 2000). Despite these occasional articles, in my opinion trivia has not gotten its full due as an excellent source of content for teaching conversation, show how trivia-based materials fit into communicative language teaching approaches, provide some examples of trivia-based activities, and explain how to use them in the classroom.

DISCUSSION**1. Trivia in the conversation classroom a rationale**

By its very nature, trivia leads to the asking and answering of questions. For this reason, it is ideal for teaching conversation. In an extensive study of both spoken and written English corpora, Biber et al. (1999) found that questions are five times as common in conversation as in fiction, news, and academic writing. The author also discovered that one question occurs for every 40 words of conversation. Granted, the type of question that commonly occurs in conversation is most likely not something like *how many member states does the united nations have?* But rather something like *How many brothers and sisters do you have?* Nevertheless, because of the novelty of the trivia type of question, it has the potential to interest and motivate learners.

The second reason for using trivia is that it can be like a breath of fresh air in conversation classes. Much speaking practice that takes place in conversation classes, at least at the elementary and intermediate levels, is focused on developing the learners' ability to talk about themselves, for example, their families, experiences, likes, and dislikes, considering that these topics are common in conversation outside of the classroom, there is certainly nothing wrong with this. However, learners can reach a point when they get tired of talking about themselves. Switching the topic to trivia can help avoid this situation and liven up the class.

As any teacher who has learned a foreign language already knows, it is generally much easier to talk about oneself than other topics, using trivia in the classroom can help learners go beyond talking about themselves. As Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) point out, just because learners are able to produce questions such as *how are you?* and *where are you from?* Without difficulty does not necessarily mean they have mastered the intricacies of question formation in English; rather, it is possible they have simply memorized these questions as lexicalized units. Questions about trivia will help steer learners away from these more familiar questions.

A third reason for using trivia-based activities is that they introduce a wide range of topics into the classroom, which can lead to free conversation. Teachers of conversation generally recognize that need to encourage their learners to move beyond structured conversation and engage in free conversation, although in some classes learners naturally gravitate toward free conversation amongst themselves and with the teacher, this is not always the case, sometimes the problem is simply not knowing what learners are interested in talking about. Because trivia-based activities introduce a wide variety of topics into the classroom, they can help teachers develop a feel for what interests their students. In the process of using trivia-based material, they can engage students in free conversation about these topics of interest.

2. Trivia and communicative language teaching

It is worthwhile to consider the idea of teaching conversation with trivia from the perspective of communicative language teaching (CLT). In an excellent discussion of the somewhat amorphous paradigm of CLT, Johnson and Johnson (1998) describe several characteristics of the standard form of this approach. One is an emphasis on messages, in other words, focusing on the meaning of what is being said rather than on the form. This focus has led to the widespread use of information transfer and information gap activities of this sort can increase learners' motivation and enable them to use the same psycholinguistic processes in the classroom that they would use to communicate outside the classroom. Johnson and Johnson (1998) maintain that this simulation of psycholinguistic processes is a second important characteristic of CLT methodology.

A third characteristic Johnson and Johnson (1998) cite is the encouragement of risk taking. By taking risks in the classroom, learners can develop communication strategies that are essential for successful interaction outside of the classroom and for the development of self-confidence.

In outlining some key principles for materials development in language teaching, Tomlinson (1998) stresses the importance of capturing student interest and attention. He suggests that novelty and variety, in addition to attractive presentation and appealing content, are essential. He also argues that it is important to design materials that lessen learners' anxiety and build their confidence.

Teaching conversation with trivia meshes quite nicely with the characteristics of CLT and the principles of materials development outlined above. First, above trivia content helps to focus learners' attention on meaning. In fact, if the activities are designed carefully, there is a good chance that learners will momentarily forget they are in a language class. They will listen carefully to understand the meaning of the trivia questions, and they will try hard to supply the correct answer. When this occurs, they will be using language in the same way they do one in outside the classroom, thereby matching the second characteristic of CLT simulating authentic psycholinguistic processes.

Encouraging risk taking can also be accomplished using trivia based materials. Learners who lack confidence in their language ability may have a great deal of confidence in their knowledge of history, sports or pop music. Accordingly, they may be more willing to risk answering a question on one of the topics. If they do so in the target language, even if only by uttering a simple one or two word answer, there is a good chance their confidence in their ability to communicate in the target language will increase.

Finally, in the field of second and foreign language education, there has been growing interest in developing learners' language awareness (LA). Advocates of LA believe that the more learners know about how language works, the better equipped they will be to deal with its inherent complexities. This applies equally to first/native and second/foreign language education. Much work in the field of LA deals with teaching learners about their first language, or teaching relatively advanced learners, such as teacher trainees, about English (Hales 1997; Pohl 1994; Wright and Bolitho 1993). However, it can also be worthwhile to introduce LA activities at the elementary and intermediate levels. More specifically, using trivia contents as part of an LA activity can be a very effective way to improve learners' language awareness. The following section includes examples of games and activities that utilize trivia content to foster language awareness in ELS and EFL students.

3. Adaptations of TV quiz shows and board games.

Trivia games and activities may be introduced in the classroom through TV quiz shows and board games familiar to learners. In fact, TV quiz shows and board games are selectively easy to adapt, as can be seen in the following descriptions of how to adapt two TV quiz shows, *Who wants to be a millionaire* (hereafter referred to as *Millionaire*) and Jeopardy and one board game, *Trivial Pursuit*.

The first step to adapting these shows and games for the classroom is putting together bank questions. For advanced learners it may be possible to use the original questions written for the native speaker audience in class for elementary and intermediate level learners, however, teacher may need to write their own questions. While this can be time consuming if groups of teachers work together to write questions, it can be quite enjoyable.

There are many ways to go about writing questions, of course, but one suggestion is to start with topics most likely to interest learners. After choosing them, simply brainstorm, and write as many questions as possible, keeping in mind that some easy questions should be included. If this done several times over a span of a few weeks, it should be possible to create a usable bank of questions on several different topics. See the appendix (page 26) for four sample topics and questions I have prepared and used in my classes.

In addition to topics that match learners' interest, include questions about the English language as a way to develop learners' language awareness. Depending on the learners, use simple questions, such as *How many letters are there in the English alphabet?* or slightly more difficult questions, such as *What language family does English belong to? Or How many vowel sounds are there in English?*

Finally, if the learners themselves are going to be asking the questions in order to practice question formation, they should be given the answer to the questions, but not the questions itself. For the example above about the number of letters in the English alphabet, a learner would receive a piece of paper or card that reads, *The English alphabet has 26 letters*, and then would need to formulate and ask the questions. *How many letters are there in the English alphabet?* to classmates.

Once a bank of questions has been written, it is just a matter of deciding how to use it. Let us first look at some ideas for adapting *millionaire* for the classroom. *millionaire* is a relatively simple game. One contestant is asked a trivia question and then give four possible answers, only one of which is correct, the prize money increases. There are also three "lifelines". 50/50, the telephone, and the audience, each of which the contestant can use only once.

To play this game in the classroom, the first thing to consider is class size. with small classes, the one-on-one question and answer method may work, but with larger classes modification is called for. Gates (2000) solves the problem by printing question on a piece of paper and handing it out to learners who then work in pairs, the teacher then reads through the question and the pairs select answer. While this may be appropriate with beginners, doing it this way with non-beginners results in a lost opportunity for listening practice, it may be better for the teacher to divide the class into three or four groups, read the question aloud, and have the learners listen and work together with their groups to decide on the answers.

The first lifeline, 50/50, involves reducing the number of possible answers from four to two. The second lifeline, the telephone, allows the contestant to call friends or family for help. in countries where cellular phones are widespread, it can be a lot of fun to allow learners to use their phones to call someone for help. if this is not possible, allowing them to refer to reference books or receive a hint from the teacher are possible options. The third lifeline, the audience, allows the contestant get help from audience members. If playing the game one-on-one, the remaining class members can be audience. simply have them raise their hand to acknowledge which answer they think is correct. With group, since all of the learners

are participating as contestants, using the audience lifeline becomes problematic. While some students could be set aside as neutral audience members, because they will most likely end up being mostly passive observers, this is probably not advisable. One possible solution is to have the learners take turns representing their teams as the person to answer the question. Then, if they want to use audience lifeline, they can ask their teammates for help.

The final issue to consider for adapting this game to the classroom is who will ask the questions. The first time the game is played, it may be best for the teacher to act as emcee to ensure that everything proceeds smoothly. On subsequent occasions, however, having learners take turns being the emcee will make the activity more enjoyable and provide an opportunity for additional practice asking questions.

The American TV game show *Jeopardy* can also be adapted for use in the classroom. The show, while not as widely known around the world as *Millionaire*, has been on the air since the 1960s, and still remains popular in North America. In the game, three contestants compete by answering questions each. The questions are worth from \$100 to \$500, with the more difficult questions being worth more money. Unlike *Millionaire*, the contestants are not given any choice for the answer, nor do they have any lifelines.

In an article about how to use trivia to teach listening subskills, Crawford and Powell (2001) adapt *Jeopardy* for the classroom. They suggest that teachers divide the class into three teams and have the teams take turns asking for the category and monetary amount, for example, saying *African history for \$200, please*. The names of the categories are written on the board, and cards with monetary figures between \$100 to \$500 written on them are placed under each category. The teacher then reads the question, and if the team answers correctly they are given the card. If the answer is incorrect, the next team selects. I have also experimented with having the learners themselves write the question and act as emcee, and have found both of these procedures work well.

One issue that must be resolved in the classroom version of this game is who answers the question. As suggested above with *Millionaire*, it is possible to have the learners take turns acting as a team representative. By doing it this way, teachers can ensure that all of the learners get a chance to answer a question, and they can also encourage cooperation among the learners by allowing the representative to get help from teammates.

Another issue is how the question and answers are to be phrased. In the TV version of the game, the questions are read as statements, and the contestants must answer in the form of questions. Learners familiar with the show may appreciate the authenticity of playing the game this way, but practice however, because of the complexity of this arrangement and its unnaturalness in regular conversation, it is probably best to use the answer and then question method only with advanced classes.

Playing *Jeopardy* in the classroom provides learners with an excellent chance to improve their language awareness. Categories such as *English as an international language*, *English grammar*, and *English slang* allow learners to practice listening and speaking in English and simultaneously learn more about the language, essentially killing two birds with one stone.

When most people think of trivia board games, they probably have in mind *Trivial Pursuit*. This game, which debuted about 20 years ago, now comes in a variety of formats, with special versions for fans of anything from Star Wars to NASCAR racing. The basic idea of the game is quite simple. Players work their way around the game board by rolling dice and landing on spaces that direct them to answer questions (written on cards) from six categories. If a player answers the question correctly, she may roll again and try another question. While it may be possible to use the editions on the market for language classes, this will only be suitable with advanced classes in which time constraints are not an issue (the game can take several hours to play).

For the majority of language teaching situations, it will be necessary to make some major modifications. First, the game is best played in small groups of from four to seven learners, so except for classes of this size, teachers will need to find extra copies of the game or make their own game boards. The latter option is probably preferable because all that is needed is a simple board on which spaces that direct them to answer questions. By making adjustments to the size of the board, the number of questions, teachers can control how long the game lasts. Second, in order to use the bank of questions discussed at the beginning of this section, it will be necessary to either print the questions (or answers, as the case may be) on separate cards of small pieces of paper. After preparing the board and the questions cards, teachers can simply have the learners start playing the game, then circulate around the classroom to answer any question that may arise.

The fact that learners work in small groups makes using *Trivial Pursuit* attractive for teaching conversation. Conversation typically takes place in small groups, so in that sense this activity simulates real life language use. Additionally, learners will probably have more chances to both ask and answer questions using this activity than they would with *Millionaire* or *Jeopardy*.

4. Other activities

The three adaptations described in the previous section are among innumerable ways to use trivia content in the conversation classroom. The information transfer and information gap activities that are so popular in CLT approaches can easily be prepared using trivia content. Taking into consideration learners' interest and abilities, one could create a simple information gap in which learners ask and answer questions about winners at the Cannes film festival, the Olympics, for example.

Pictures of famous people or famous places can also be used in different ways. For example, a picture of the Eiffel Tower with facts and figures on the back—such as where it is located and when it was built—could be given to a learner, who would then form a question with the information to ask a partner or the whole class. If the picture is of something that interests the learners, they should be able to produce several questions about it.

CONCLUSION

Trivia's wide-ranging appeal and the ease with which it can be adapted to learners' interest make it a very useful source of content for teaching conversation. Teachers who are looking for new ways to practice questioning and answering, which is such an integral part of conversation, will probably find that trivia-based activities engage their learners and motivate them to participate actively. In addition to giving learners ample opportunity to practice meaningful communication, trivia activities can be used to develop learners' language awareness. Teachers may find they have to spend some time preparing activities, depending on their teaching contexts and the proficiency level of students. However, in the long run they will realize it is well worth the effort.

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