

TEACHING GRAMMAR: IN THE VIEW OF CONVENTIONAL VS CONTEMPORARY APPROACH

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Abstract

Different theories of language entail different methods of learning language and different points of view of grammar. In essence, language theories are grammatical theories. Grammar is the system of a language. Grammar is often defined by people as the "rules" of a language; but in fact, no language has rules. In language teaching techniques, grammar teaching has varied over time and has been changed from conventional to modern/current approaches. The teaching of grammar is a dynamic operation. Expression of associations and functional forms of statements is perfected by grammar. Based on modern approaches to grammar education, language teaching, which is based on a functional-semantic approach, is helpful because this approach systematizes language and aims to master the richness of language. The structural approach is focused on grammar and linguistic awareness opposed to the structural approach. In a structural approach, learners can only learn grammar, but they cannot use skills successfully in their conversation, and their degree remains the same as in the laws of grammar. This hinders the exploration of the richness of the language. In addition to this, dialogue instruction has a significant function. Drilling, eliciting and asking philosophical questions by communicative awareness-raising exercises is important in the teaching process.

Key Words: Grammar, approach, traditional, modern, language teaching

I. Introduction

Language teaching has passed many years as methodological philosophies. Specially, teaching language macro and micro skills are very essential in language teaching. So, these skills need different approaches and methods to teach effectively. Grammar is rules of a language. Grammar is a system of meaningful structures and patterns that are governed by particular pragmatic constraints (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). In another definition grammar is a description

of the rules for forming sentences, including an account of the meanings that these forms convey (Thornbury, 1999, p.13). Grammar is the system of language.

Teaching grammar is to show how language works. Accurate teaching of grammar guides learners how to use the language correctly. Azar (2007) highlights the significance of teaching grammar as: One important aspect of grammar teaching is that it helps learners discover the nature of language. Without grammar, we would have only individual words or sounds, pictures, and body expressions to communicate meaning. Grammar is the weaving that creates the fabric (Azar, 2007). To establish precise sentences, grammar knowledge is essential. In another idea about why teaching grammar is important Ellis writes: Grammar Teaching involves any instructional technique that draws learners' attention to some specific grammatical form in such a way that it helps them either to understand it meta-linguistically and / or process it in comprehension and / or production so that they can internalize it (Ellis, 2006, p.84).

In foreign language acquisition accurate understanding of the language structures is the key part so teaching grammar is an essential aspect of foreign language instruction. There has always been a debate about the most effective way of teaching grammar. Brown (1980) stated that grammar instruction through context positively affects learners' competence to use grammatical structures accurately in language skills. It is always useful for learners to see how language works in sentences or paragraphs; therefore, teaching grammar in context will give learners opportunities to see how grammatical structures function in sentences. Teaching grammar in context will help learners to acquire nature of the language which will facilitate their understanding of the language.

The Communicative Approach to language teaching emphasizes on meaning and how language is used or the functional aspects of language. This emphasis leads to the implication that grammatical accuracy is less important in communication. However, communication can generally be achieved most efficiently by means of grammatical sentence or by a series of such sentences logically related" (Garett, 1986), implying the important function of grammatical competency in communication.

Generally, this paper is aimed to examine basic concept of teaching grammar: belief, approaches, development of learning and teaching grammar, types and approaches of grammar teaching, contexts, eliciting, drills, grammar in discourse, ways of giving grammatical explanations, and communicative awareness –raising grammar tasks .

1. Teaching Grammar

1.1. Belief About Teaching Grammar

Teachers' beliefs about grammar and grammar teaching are more precise and detailed part of their beliefs about general language teaching. Borg (2003) in his review about teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching came to conclusion that: teachers refer to their own experience with grammar as learners and the teacher's expectations are different to language learners what may influence the understanding of teachers' instructions. Teaching grammar

always increases uncertainty in English language teachers not only from the curricular view but also from pedagogical and linguistic matter.

In short, there are different beliefs of grammar some of them are:

- a. It is not necessary to teach grammar.
- b. Grammar describes the rule of a language.
- c. Academics', teachers', and learners' grammars' are the same.
- d. Bilingual exercises have no place in teaching grammar.
- e. In teaching grammar the rules should come first and the example should come follow.
- f. Drill is the way to mastering Grammar.
- g. Grammar is acquired unconsciously during the performance on those communicative situations

1.2. The Development of Learning and Teaching Grammar

The word grammar Derived from the Greek work “**grammatika**” means the art of writing. Grammar can be defined as language user's subconscious internal system. It is the mental system of rules and categories that allows humans to form and interpret the words and sentences of their language.

Depending on one's theoretical orientation, different people define grammar differently. Leech et al (1982) view grammar as an important component that relates phonology and semantics, or sound and meaning. Huddleston (1988) sees grammar as consisting of morphology and syntax. Morphology deals with forms of words while syntax deals with the ordering of the words to form sentences. Hudson (1992) is in the opinion that grammar embraces any kind of information about words since there are no boundaries around grammar. Cobbett (1984) as cited in Weaver, Mc Nally & Moerma, (2001) regards grammar as constituting rules and principles that help a person to make use of words or manipulate and combine words to give meaning in a proper manner. It concerns with form and structure of words and their relationships in sentences. This means that as the word order or form in a sentence changes, the meaning of the sentence also changes.

In the ancient world, grammar as a foundation for instruction in writing skills. Grammar was paired with logic and rhetoric in term of thinking skills. The 18th century the Prescriptive of grammar teaching was developed. Its aim was to prescribe what is judged as correct rather than to describe the actual usage and grammar teaching in school was mainly to avoid 'errors' in English Lowth's Short Introduction to English Grammar (1762). Where as in the 19th century A new, modern understanding of grammar appeared which is scientific (descriptive) grammar. Which mainly focus on actual usage without emphasis too much on correctness. Henry Sweet, New English Grammar, Logical and Historical (1891) in the 20th century, Traditional grammar undergone a period of declination. Replacing of traditional grammar with a much more defensible kind of grammar called 'modern grammar' which able

to describe language in use and the considerable differences between spoken and written English.

So, Grammar teaching and the role of grammar have caused an important debate for the last fifty years. According to Newby (2003), grammar has been attached different roles in the language classroom, causing little agreement on how it should be taught. Due to this, there are three general ways of approaching grammar teaching: Traditional grammar teaching, Communicative language teaching (CLT) and Post-communicative language teaching.

- I. **Behavioristic Approach** stated that Traditional grammar teaching is based on a formal notion of competence and theoretical foundations of this approach are based both on: Set of practices associate to this approach is presentation-practice-production and teacher will give an explanation on grammar rules and meaning. Later intense practices (drill) were done which lead to production Structuralism. (Richard and Rodgers, 1986)
- II. **Communicative language teaching** is influenced by linguist with a national-functional view of language. In this context Grammar was both semantic and functional. It focus on the use of language rather than on the form itself. Grammatical knowledge was performance rather than competence. (Richard and Rodgers, 1986)
- III. **Post-communicative language teaching** states communicative competence has given way to a broader view in which socio-cultural, pragmatic and discourse issues are combined with a notion of language based on computational analysis. It includes a more real language corpus-based approach in which socio-cultural matters are subsequently taken into account. Consider that knowledge is not learned but constructed in collaboration (social learning: Vigotsky, 1962; scaffolding: Brunner, 1983).
- IV. **Grammar translation method (19th – mid 20th C)**. Explicit teaching of grammar rules; attention paid to language forms. Absence of communicative practice, which is an immediate need for new immigrants. Reliance on translation, which is impractical in classes having students with many different first languages. Focus on reading and translation texts; some adult students can't read in their first language. (Richard and Rodgers, 1986)
- V. **Direct Method (first part of 20th C)** Grammar is taught. Lesson begins with dialog or story in the target language. Use of visuals (actions, pictures, objects) to convey meaning. Inductive presentation is unsuitable for some adult students, who may benefit from overt explanations of rules. Minimal reading and writing, which is needed by immigrant students with work or academic goals.
- VI. **Audio-lingual Method (ALM) (1950s- 1970s)** emphasis on oral production and teacher models pronunciation. Use of drills to reinforce grammatical patterns and rote exercises reduce cognitive engagement so, activities are designed to prevent

learners errors, which reduce the need for students to negotiate meaning.(Richard and Rodgers, 1986)

- VII. **Natural Approach (1980s)** stated that language is presented in a ‘natural’ sequence: listening, speaking, reading, writing and the use of a communicative syllabus. Grammar is not overtly taught, yet many adult learners need and want grammar instruction. It Focus on input (listening)can delay output (speaking) that adults need immediately.Richard and Rodgers (1986)
- VIII. **Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (1970s-today)**focus that communication is the goal of instruction and Emphasis on meaningful interaction. Course syllabus includes language functions. There is Use of authentic texts and contexts. Focus on communication can result in ignoring grammar. Emphasis on fluency at the expense of accuracy can result in many students never attaining correct grammar
- IX. **Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)** is the acronym for computer assisted language learning and it is related to the use of computers for language teaching and learning. Significant use of CALL began in the 1960s. Many proponents of CALL have advocated the development of communicative computer programs that provide opportunities for meaningful communication (Garrett, 1991). Teachers use computer for tutorials and drills to free up more classroom time for real communication.By using the computer for the presentation, explanation, and application of grammatical structures, more classroom time could be dedicated to real communication that focuses on expressing meaning and using appropriate grammatical structures to express that meaning. Nagata (1996) as cited in Joseph C. M. 2009 conducted similar studies whose results indicated that computer-based grammar instruction can be more effective than traditional instruction (e.g., workbooks). Nagata (1996) claimed that self-study computer-based instruction based on natural language processing technology which provides full-sentence production exercises and detailed grammatical feedback to learners' errors is more effective than the non-CALL workbook instruction.

Only a few years ago grammar teaching was deeply unfashionable. Nowadays it is resoundingly back on the education agenda. A different development, as formal grammar teaching evaporated from many English classrooms through the 1980s, was the notion of ‘teaching grammar in context’. This approach assumed that because all pupils were different, they all had different grammatical needs. Pupil A might need help in punctuating direct speech. Pupil B might still need to conceptualize what a sentence was. Small-group work and individualized feedback on written work were supposed to provide this level of differentiated response, with each child gaining the grammatical knowledge that was relevant to her or him.

The reality was that it proved impossible to achieve this level of customized response, and little of the feedback could be described as genuinely grammatical in nature. More seriously, the approach left pupils without any overarching understanding of grammar, no template upon which to work. Whilst for some educationalists this was held up as liberating – the analogy being that you don't have to be able to service a car in order to drive one – grammar couldn't be marginalized from English for long. You might not need to know how to service the car, but you do have to know the difference between a door, a clutch and a steering wheel. A grammar suited to the practical purposes of communication was required.

This, then, is where grammar is in English schools today, apparently healthier and more central to English teaching than any of us might have predicted a few years ago. We should not be too surprised. One lesson of history is that grammar teaching, whilst prone to surges of fashion and educational methodology, is rarely absent from the classroom for long. The other lesson is that an understanding of grammar remains central to any genuine development in our capacity to communicate effectively, whether through speech, traditional forms of writing, or the new interactive forms of the twenty-first century..

1.3.Types of Grammar

Woods (1995) outlines five different types of grammar: prescriptive and descriptive grammar, traditional grammar, phrase structure grammar, transformational- generative grammar and functional-systemic grammar. These five types of grammar illustrate different approaches towards analysis and description of language. Consequently, the different approaches reflected in each type of grammar influence the teaching of grammar.

A. Prescriptive and Descriptive Grammar: Prescriptive grammar is when the correct use of language is prescribed by a set of rules. These rules are fixed. Unlike prescriptive grammars, descriptive grammars recognize that language is constantly changing (Quirk *et al.*, 1985) This means that certain utterances that were considered incorrect grammatically at one time are now accepted as correct. For example, the use of 'a few' and 'a little'. In prescriptive grammar, 'a few' determines count noun (a few students) and 'a little' is related to non-count noun (a little salt). Thus, we say 'few' students, 'fewer' students, 'fewest' students and 'little' salt, 'less' salt, 'least' salt. But today, the use of 'less' with count noun as in 'less' students is also accepted (Woods, 1995).

B. Traditional Grammar: In traditional grammar, syntax rather than semantics, is a central component of a language. In teaching the syntactic organization of the sentences, traditional grammarians have identified and defined eight parts of speech. The eight parts of speech identified are nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. These different parts of speech make up a

sentence. Traditional grammarians focus on the relationships of words in a sentence such as subject, object, complement, adverbial, etc to show the different clause types like SV (She was screaming), SVO (She eats ice-cream), SVA (He has been in the room), SVOA (She keeps the books upstairs), etc. Traditional grammar is descriptive in the sense that it attempts to describe linguistic structures (Quirk *et al*, 1985). For instance, according to traditional grammar the basic structure of an English structure is subject + verb + object as in “ He drinks water ”. Language teaching based on the philosophy of traditional grammar will focus on the parts of speech.

- C. Phrase-structure Grammar:** Extending and developing the work of traditional grammar, phrase structure grammar highlights the relationship of words and phrases in a sentence (Cook, 1991). It helps to understand how the structural relationships of words and phrases support the meanings, which we attempt to convey through language. This relationship is presented graphically using substitution tables, which have been widely used in basic grammar lessons. If traditional grammar emphasizes on the written form, then phrase structure grammar focuses on spoken form. Thus the practice of drills using substitution tables is an attempt to help learners master the structure of the sentence. Although it focuses on structure as it appears in language, the structure is presented without consideration of meaning and communicative function (Woods, 1995)
- D. Transformational-generative Grammar:** Like traditional and phrase-structure grammar, transformational-generative grammar also emphasizes on syntax. In fact, it deals with syntax in greater details. If phrase-structure grammar shifts the perspective from individual word to the sentence, transformational generative grammarians are interested to explain how our mind generates sentences, that is, from intent to utterance (Radford, 1981 as cited in Weaver, C. & C. Mc Nally & S. Moerman. (2001).). Transformational generative grammarians argue that innumerable syntactic combinations can be generated by means of a system of formal rules, such as, transformational rule (ibid). These transformational rules, which are based on the phrase structure and the tree structure transform phrase structures into other forms, like active to passive. The processes that transform active voice to passive voice do not only depict the grammatical relationships between the various constituents that make up the sentence, but also explain how individuals can produce numerous sentences, which they have never produced or heard before.

Chomsky (1965) sees language as a generative system not a close system; a construct, which accounts for understanding and producing infinite number of grammatical sentences. To him, grammar should describe a native speakers' intuitive understanding of the language he or she

uses. The term 'surface structure' and 'deep structure' are used to describe this intuitive knowledge. 'Surface structure' is the actual form of the sentence produced while 'deepstructure' is an underlying form that is related to the meaning of the sentence (Radford, 1981). It is represented in the form of a hierarchical tree diagram to show the abstract grammatical relationship of the words and phrases within a sentence. Chomsky (1965) established a system of formal rules known as transformational rules that specify how 'deep structure' is to be transformed into 'surface structure'. For example, in sentences *the postman was bitten by the dog* and *the dog bit the postman*. The first sentence is a transformation from the second sentence. Although both sentences have different grammatical structure, they essentially have the same meaning.

Chomsky's transformational grammar offers insights into features of language, which are important for language learning and useful for language teaching. Through transformational generative grammar exercises, which illustrate how the parts of a sentence can be rearranged, combined and substituted, learners can manipulate and play with language at the sentence, phrase, and paragraph level.

D. Functional- systemic Grammar: Functional-systemic grammar concerns with making clear interaction between syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Halliday's (1985) functional-systemic grammar, which focuses on the functional aspect attempts to account for how language is used. Utterances are viewed as some meaning whose expression will vary depending on the situation. Thus the semantics of the intended utterances as well as the relationship between the speaker and listener influence the choice of expressions.

The linguistic forms and language functions are related through a network. This network, which is called a system network, organizes co-occurrence potential of grammatical types showing which types are mutually compatible, and which are incompatible (ibid). In simple terms, this system network consists of choices of expressions of various kinds depending on the social context. For example, in greetings, there is a system network consisting a set of possibilities of which one is chosen: *How do you do?*, *Hello*, *Hi*, *What's up?* and *Good morning/ Good afternoon/ Good evening*. Depending on how the speaker evaluates or assesses the whole context including the relationship with listeners and their current state of feelings, he or she chooses one from these expressions. Likewise, a sentence, *to whom did you give this book?* and *Whom did you give this book to?*. Both sentences are grammatically correct but depending on the social context and the relationship between speaker and listener both are used in different situations. We usually use the former in a formal situation and the latter in an informal situation.

Functional –systemic grammar approaches the language from the semantic point of view, precisely the semantic functions of the linguistic forms. If transformational generative linguists are interested in how the human mind distinguishes grammatical from non-grammatical structures, systemic functional linguists are interested in how people use language to communicate. It is about language in use where the purpose, situation, setting, audience and cultural assumptions create context in the speakers' mind. It does not only deal with how people use language but also looks at how language is structured for use, which is constrained by the social context (Eggs, 1994).

1.4. Approaches to Teach Grammar

In relation to the approaches to teach grammar different scholars give different categories about the approaches to teach grammar. Whatever their categories are different we tried to discuss them in to three mainstreams.

- A. Grammar based approach
- B. Communicative based approach
- C. The Recent approach

A. Grammar Based Approach

This is one of the approach to teach grammar which consists different approaches in it : grammar translation method , audio-lingual method, direct method , deductive approach and inductive approaches etc are include under this approach of teaching grammar.

Teaching grammar will help learners to understand the nature of language. Azar notes down the benefits of grammar teaching as: one of the principal benefits of GBT (Grammar-Based Teaching) is that it helps students gain an understanding of grammar concepts: concepts such as subordination and coordination; concepts of expressing time relationships through the use of verb forms; concepts of nouns and adjectives, subjects and verbs, clauses and phrases. Students can understand grammar concepts with simplified terminology, with a minimum of meta-language and grammatical analysis, and even without definition of key terms such as noun or verb (Azar, 2007). With a good knowledge of grammar, the relationship between grammatical concepts gets clear. Being aware of this relationship facilitates understanding the language.

Basically this approach of says language teaching is grammar teaching. Grammar used as a content and rule is sufficient for learners to know the language. It is easy to complex approach.

The PPP Approach to Communicative Language Teaching

PPP" (or the "3Ps") stands for Presentation, Practice and Production - a common approach to communicative language teaching that works through the progression of three sequential stages.

Presentation represents the introduction to a lesson, and necessarily requires the creation of a realistic (or realistic-feeling) "situation" requiring the target language to be learned. This can be achieved through using pictures, dialogs, imagination or actual "classroom situations". The teacher checks to see that the students understand the nature of the situation, and then builds the "concept" underlying the language to be learned using small chunks of language that the students already know. Having understood the concept, students are then given the language "model" and engage in choral drills to learn statement, answer and question forms for the target language. This is a very teacher-orientated stage where error correction is important.

Practice usually begins with what is termed "mechanical practice" - open and closed pair work. Students gradually move into more "communicative practice" involving procedures like information gap activities, dialog creation and controlled roleplays. Practice is seen as the frequency device to create familiarity and confidence with the new language, and a measuring stick for accuracy. The teacher still directs and corrects at this stage, but the classroom is beginning to become more learner-centered.

Production is seen as the culmination of the language learning process, whereby the learners have started to become independent users of the language rather than students of the language. The teacher's role here is to somehow facilitate a realistic situation or activity where the students instinctively feel the need to actively apply the language they have been practicing. The teacher does not correct or become involved unless students directly appeal to him/her to do so.

The PPP approach is relatively straight forward, and structured enough to be easily understood by both students and new or emerging teachers. It is a good place to start in terms of applying good communicative language teaching in the classroom. It has also been criticized considerably for the very characteristic that makes it the easiest method for 'beginner' teachers, that is, that it is far too teacher-orientated and over controlled.

In relation to this approach deductive and inductive approach are include under this.

The deductive approach is rule driven learning starts with the presentation of a rule and is followed by examples in which the rule is applied. The grammar rule is presented and the learner engages with it through the study and manipulation of examples.

Advantages of a deductive approach: It gets straight to the point, and can therefore be time-saving, many rules especially rules of form can be more simply and quickly explained than elicited from examples. This will allow more time for practice and application; respects the intelligence and maturity of many especially adult -students, and acknowledges the role of cognitive processes in language acquisition, confirms many students' expectations about

classroom learning, particularly for those learners who have an analytical learning style, and allows the teacher to deal with language points as they come up, rather than having to anticipate them and prepare for them in advance.

Disadvantages of a deductive approach: Starting the lesson with a grammar presentation may be off-putting for some students, especially younger ones. They may not have sufficient meta-language (i.e. language used to talk about language such as grammar terminology). Or they may not be able to understand the concepts involved. Grammar explanation encourages a teacher-fronted, transmission-style classroom; teacher explanation is often at the expense of student involvement and interaction. Explanation is seldom as memorable as other forms of presentation, such as demonstration. Such an approach encourages the belief that learning a language is simply a case of knowing the rules(a principle or order which guides behaviour, says how things are to be done etc,(prescriptive rule), the usual way that something happens (descriptive rule), and Pedagogic rules – they make sense to learners and provide them with the means and confidence to generate language with a reasonable chance of success.)

The inductive approach is the rule-discovery path. It is advantageous: Rules learners discover for themselves are more likely to fit their existing mental structures than rules they have been presented with. This in turn will make the rules more meaningful, memorable, and serviceable. The mental effort involved ensures a greater degree of cognitive depth which, again, ensures greater memorability. Students are more actively involved in the learning process, rather than being simply passive recipients: they are therefore likely to be more attentive and more motivated. It is an approach which favours pattern-recognition and problem-solving abilities which suggests that it is particularly suitable for learners who like this kind of challenge. Working things out for themselves prepares students for greater self-reliance and is therefore conducive to learner autonomy (Brown,2001).

The disadvantages of an inductive approach include: The time and energy spent in working out rules may mislead students into believing that rules are the objective of language learning, rather than a means. The time taken to work out a rule may be at the expense of time spent in putting the rule to some sort of productive practice. Students may hypothesize the wrong rule, or their version of the rule may be either too broad or too narrow in its application: this is especially a danger where there is no overt testing of their hypotheses, either through practice examples, or by eliciting an explicit statement of the rule. It can place heavy demands on teachers in planning a lesson. They need to select and organize the data carefully so as to guide learners to an accurate formulation of the rule, while also ensuring the data is intelligible. However carefully organized the data is, many language areas such as aspect and modality resist easy rule formulation.

Generally, Problems of grammar based teaching approaches

- Inadequate for communication
- Inadequate for communicative need of the learners'.
- Practice does not a way to makes perfect because we have psychological constraints

But through PPP models are easy to organize what is thought is what is learned

B. Communicative Based Approach

This is one of the approach in which says that knowing language is not only mean knowing the grammar rather it is knowing the meaning. It is focus on forms to communicative context since language use in communicative context (FonFs). Yalden (1987:61) summarized the essence of CLT thus: It is based on the notion of the learners as communicators, naturally endowed with the ability to learn languages. It seeks to provide learners with the target language system. It is assumed that learners will have to prepare to use the target language (orally and in written form) in many predictable and unpredictable acts of communication which arise both in classroom interaction and in real-world situations, whether concurrent with language training or subsequent to it.

C. Recent Approach

The third category of the grammar teaching approach is the recent approach which partially similar to the communicative approach but it says teaching grammar focuses or consists three things: form, meaning and context (FonF). As British Council (2018) this is a way of the communicative approach is based on the idea that learning language successfully comes through having to communicate real meaning. When learners are involved in real communication, their natural strategies for language acquisition will be used, and this will allow them to learn to use the language.

Focus on form (FonF) has evolved from Long's instructional treatment that "overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (Long, 1991, pp. 45-46 as cited in Bandar and Gorjian ,2017).) Into such tasks as processing instruction, textual enhancement and linguistic or grammar-problem solving activities. The key tenet of FonF instruction is meaning and use being present when the attention of the learner is drawn to the linguistic device which is necessary for comprehension of meaning. The call for FonF is often triggered by learner problems or difficulties usually resulting in a breakdown in communication. The problematic linguistic features come into instructional focus to help learners get back on track. Apparently, when learners are left to their own resources, they do not try to pay attention to linguistic characteristics of their communicative activities. Thus some form of instructional focus on linguistic features may be required to destabilize learners' interlanguage (Ellis, 2009 as cited in Bandar and Gorjian ,2017).

In short, focus on form instruction is a type of instruction that, on the one hand, holds up the importance of communicative language teaching principles such as authentic communication and student-centeredness, and, on the other hand, maintains the value of the occasional and overt study of problematic L2 grammatical forms, which is more reminiscent of non-communicative teaching (Long, 1991 as cited in Bandar and Gorjian ,2017). Furthermore, Long and Robinson (1998) as cited in Bandar and Gorjian ,2017). argue that the responsibility of helping learners attend to and understand problematic L2 grammatical forms

falls not only on their teachers, but also on their peers. In other words, they claim that formal L2 instruction should give most of its attention to exposing students to oral and written discourse that mirrors real-life, such as doing job interviews, writing letter to friends, and engaging in classroom debates; nonetheless, when it is observed that learners are experiencing difficulties in the comprehension and/or production of certain L2 grammatical forms, teachers and their peers are obligated to assist them notice their erroneous use and/or comprehension of these forms and supply them with the proper explanations and models of them. Moreover, teachers can help their students and learners can help their peers notice the forms that they currently lack, yet should know in order to further their overall L2 grammatical development.

Example : Practicing question forms by asking learners to find out personal information about their colleagues is an example of the communicative approach, as it involves meaningful communication.

1.5. Contexts

Context is a situation in which language is used. It can be:

- Social context: is the social role interrelates the purpose of the communication and the relations to each other.
- Semantics factors: it means that in teaching the grammar we need to focus on what kind of meaning do the word have.
- Discourse factors: in functional linguistics and corpus linguistics have revealed grammatical patterns governed by communicative goals such as information flow and management, topic continuity, and expressing stance, as well as differences in grammatical patterns and functions across spoken and written registers and genres.

1.5.1. How to Teach Grammar in Context

In genuine communication beyond the classroom, grammar and context are often so closely related that appropriate grammatical choices can only be made with reference to the context and purpose of the communication (Nunan, 1998,p.102). Some advantages of this method are, students are exposed to the target language in an authentic or nearauthentic setting, and they see or hear the target language before having to focus on it (Riddell, 2003, p.46 as cited in Mart, 2013).

Using dialogues is an effective way of teaching grammar. The use of dialogues in grammar teaching is useful because the use of dialogues generally matches learners' expectations of how language is used in the real world: people use language primarily to talk to each other. (Thornbury, 1999, p.76).

In the first sample lesson Scott Thornbury uses a scripted dialogue to teach the present simple to beginners: In the lesson the teacher has chosen the following recorded dialogue from a coursebook to use as a vehicle for introducing the present simple with adverbs of frequency (e.g. usually, always) to a group of beginners (1999, p.73).

Joe: What do you do on weekends?

David: well, that depends. During the school year, I usually have to study on Saturdays.

J: And how about on Sundays?

D: Well, we always have lunch together, you know, the whole family. Then after lunch, I sometimes go to the park and meet my friends.

J: Oh? What do you do there?

D: We play soccer, take a walk, or just talk. After that, I go out. I usually go to the movies.

J: How often do you go out of the city?

D: About once a month. My uncle has a small farm in the mountains, so I sometimes drive up there.

J: That sounds nice. Do you go alone?

D: No, my mom, my two sisters and some of our friends usually go too.

J: But why do you go?

D: A lot of things: green trees, clean air, and no people.

J: Oh, just like LA!

D: Ha! That's a good joke.

(adapted from *How to Teach Grammar*, Scott Thornbury, 1999)

Thornbury explains the steps as follow:

In the first step the teacher tells the class that she is going to play them a conversation between conversation and to answer this question: What are they talking about: last weekend, next weekend, or every weekend? In the second step once she has established that the conversation is about every weekend she asks the students to listen to the whole conversation and to put these words in the order that they hear them: movies, drive, soccer, go out, study, lunch, park, walk. In the third step she asks the students if they can tell her which of the activities in the list David does on Saturdays, on Sundays, and about once a month. In the fourth step the teacher asks learners to listen for the following words and to match them with the words in the list on the board: usually, always, sometimes. For example: usually study always have lunch sometimes go to the park two friends. She asks students to close their books and to listen to the first part of the

In the fifth step the teacher asks learners to focus their attention on two or three of these sentences and to tell her exactly what the speaker says. For example:

We always have lunch together

I sometimes go to the park.

In the sixth step the teacher draws the students' attention to the form of the structure, underlining the verbs and explaining that the present simple is used for routine activities. In the seventh step she asks learners to write two or three more sentences about David, using the above sentence pattern, i.e. subject + adverb + verb + ...

In the eighth step students listen to the conversation again and check their answers to Step 7, and in the final step she invites the students to write four or five original sentences about themselves using the pattern she has highlighted in step (Thornbury, 1999, p.73-74).

Using this text, present perfect and perfect progressive tenses are taught. The teacher highlights the perfect sentences in the text and following the steps given above, these two tenses can be presented to learners of English. An advantage of learning grammar in context is learners will see how structures function in sentences and how sentences are related to each other. This text will help learners to identify the differences between these two tenses and learners will have ideas what these tenses mean and how they are used. (Nunan, 1998)

According to Azar, (2006), Grammar instruction is a difficult issue in language teaching. Teaching grammar through context will help learners perceive the structures of the language effectively. If learners are given grammatical structures in context, they will be able to master the language better. Teaching grammar in context will help learners to acquire new grammar structures and forms. Learners will use grammatical conventions more effectively in communication if they learn them in context.

Generally, to teach grammar communicatively is important the context of the instructional situations, the notion of context is manifested (it can be interpreted in many ways), and the variation of context have important consequences to teach grammar.

1.6. Grammar in Discourse

Discourse and grammar are the most interrelated part of language teaching. Both are a branch of functional linguistics that takes place the position that the internal structure can be shaped by forces arising out of discourse. Both are the different facet of human communication. But, Grammar specifies a set of language, specific code, typically restricted to sentences-level units and it guides the speaker on how properly constructs sentences. While, discourse is the product of the use of grammar in particular natural context. Grammar too reflects discourse. Grammar code (best) what the speaker do most (discourse). What is good for discourse good for grammar and vice versa. Discourse propose, grammar dispose. Both are complement each other, each imposing a different set of constraints on the speaker or writer. (Azar, 2006).

Grammar determines the shape of usage of discourse cannot be reflect grammar and discourse makes selective use of grammar, choosing just those grammatical forms which suit the specific discourse.

Nunan (1998) explanation shows that discourse grammar is grammatical framework that grew out of the analysis of spoken and written linguistics discourse on the one hand, and of the work on parenthetical expression. Discourse understood the domain of language use, with speaker of grammar forms the perspective discourse.

Discourse means that the stretch of language larger than a sentence in either written or spoken form. So, grammar teaching should be taken place with extended context rather than isolated. Grammar in context means that teaching in contexts rather than in syntax. Because teaching grammar in sentence level is not sufficient so to achieve communicative functions of grammar. It helps to the learners to learn grammar in communicative sentences. Syntax does not transfer the full meaning of grammar. (Ariel, 2009)

A text makes sense in context but there is a gap to be filled before the message is complete and we fill it with our knowledge of the world and common sense. The reader is part of the context.

- In order to define a text/discourse we might substitute “a word or series of words” with “a sign or series of signs”.
- A sign is an inseparable union of signifier and signified
- A text can also be visual. In that case the signifier is no longer a word but an image.
- Images can be icons, indexes or symbols. Discourse and grammar often seem to be two very different facets of human communication.

Grammar specifies a set of language-specific codes, typically restricted to sentence-level units. It guides speakers on how to properly construct sentences, which are then joined together by a completely different set of (discourse) principles into a coherent piece of discourse. Discourse is the product of the use of grammar in particular natural contexts. It typically comprises a stretch of utterances (mostly sentences) which are organized in a non-random fashion. The principles informing discourse construction (such as relevance) are global and not specifically linguistic (Giora, 1985; Grice, 1989; Mann and Thompson, 1988; Sperber and Wilson, 1986/1995; Van Dijk, 1977 as cited in Ariel, 2009). It would seem that discourse simply picks up where grammar leaves off, and if so, grammar and discourse complement each other, and there's no interesting relationship between them. The thrust of this overview of the grammar/discourse relationship is that discourse and grammar are very much part of one system of linguistic behavior, and just like horse and carriage, they definitely go together. 'Usage feeds into the creation of grammar just as much as grammar determines the shape of usage' (Bybee, 2006: 730 as cited in Nunan, 1998). Discourse cannot but reflect grammar: it contains only, or virtually only, grammatical language products. At the same time, discourse makes a selective use of grammar, choosing just those grammatical forms which suit the specific discourse goals of the speaker. Grammar too reflects discourse: 'Grammar codes (best) what speakers do most [in discourse]' (Du Bois, 1987). It also makes a selective use of discourse, 'choosing' some but not other discourse patterns for grammaticization. In other words, the claim is that there's constant feedback between grammar and discourse, each of them simultaneously taking the active role of the horse, as well as the passive role of the carriage.

In other words, according to Nunan (1998) some regularities cross-cut the sentence/discourse divide.

1. *What's good for the discourse is good for the grammar (and vice versa)*: The point of section 1 is that grammatical and discursive constraints are not always separately satisfied. The idea is that grammar may cross the sentence boundary, and discursive relations may be relevant within the sentence.

Antithesis relations present some text portion (the antithesis) as incompatible with another text portion (the thesis). Although most discourse coherence relations are inferred, antithesis relations tend to be overtly marked, often with a 'but' conjunction (Mann and Thompson, 1988). In addition to the incompatibility between the two propositions, the speaker also indicates that she endorses just one of them, the thesis, which is the one following 'but'.

2. *Grammar proposes discourse disposes*: Discourse, as we have noted above, is not a random collection of sentences. Speakers have certain communicative goals when they engage in discourse. These goals often require a lot of inference above the linguistic decoding of linguistic strings. One thing speakers can do for addressees is choose their linguistic utterances in such a way that will facilitate the addressees in their interpretations. This is why the constructions we actually find in discourse do not reflect a random selection of conceptually appropriate and grammatically well-formed strings. For any kind of message we wish to convey (content-wise), more often than not, grammar will make available more than one form. (Nunan, 1998)

Generally, the interaction between discourse and grammar focus on two major directions of flow: The first is how grammatical structures arise from the relatively fluid patterns of language use (discourse) through regular processes of grammaticization. The second is how the relatively stable and regular structure of grammar provides templates of the linguistic action, imposing a grammatical shape on the functional realization of discourse. The implications of this context-sensitive view of language on grammar teaching are that:

- ✓ Grammar is best taught and practiced in context.
- ✓ This means using whole texts as contexts for grammar teaching.

1.7. Ways of Giving Grammatical Explanations

Students will not understand any grammatical explanations before they have thought about the language itself. Therefore, it is not wise to attempt explanations before presenting or getting students to think about examples of the language in context. After some practice using the kinds of meaning-based grammar for communication tasks we have emphasized in this unit,

a brief explanation may be used. An explanation may also be useful if the student are still making mistakes even after a lot of practice, or simply if they would like a summary to refer to.

Atkins, Hailom Banteyrga and Nuru Mohammed (1995) stated the following way of giving grammatical information ads follow: first, keep the explanations short and avoid technical terms, second, explain simple rules but avoid the more complicated ones, third, relate the rules to meaning in context, fourth, consider using Amharic to explain the rules, fifth, use simple time lines and diagrams and lastly, never list knowledge of rules and terminology.

Furthermore Brown (2001) added different ways of giving grammatical explanations: explanation should be simple and short ,use visual stimuli and graphical depiction, illustrate by using clear and unambiguous examples, and consider the cognitive style of your learners.

1.8. Eliciting

1.8.1. Definition of Eliciting

Eliciting is a technique used by the teacher during the lesson that involves the language learner in the process of discovering and understanding language.

Anything in the lesson can be elicited: vocabulary, grammar, experiences, and ideas. The objective of eliciting is to allow the learners the chance to participate in the learning process by letting them express their acquired or intuitive knowledge, and through critical thinking which will enhance their language abilities by adding to what they already know.

To understand what effective eliciting is, it will help to know what it is not. Eliciting is not asking, “What does _____ mean?” It is not a “you should know this” question similar to that used by a teacher in an academic setting. It is not a vague, trivia-based question in which the learner must provide some definition similar to a word game or puzzle. Eliciting draws out what the learners know through their relationship to the words they understand. But further than that, it allows the teacher to see what the learner knows, and so permits the teacher to add to their knowledge(British Council. 2018).

The key to successful eliciting lies in an artful interaction between the teacher and the learner. There is no special time for eliciting to occur during the lesson. It can be used as needed—during any of the engage, study and activate sections of the lesson.

1.8.2. Eliciting Techniques

Eliciting is a technique that ESL teachers can use to get information about what the students know and don't know. This means that the teacher becomes more capable and doesn't waste time rehashing the students' existing knowledge. Taylor, (2014) stated that eliciting creates a learner-centred environment and is very thought-provoking for the students. Eliciting can be used for a great deal of things such as eliciting vocabulary, grammar, synonyms, antonyms, background information, language forms and rules, general knowledge, opinions, feelings, contexts, meanings, memories, associations, ideas, situations, questions and answers.

Eliciting gets students involved in the lesson, because they are actively producing speech and giving information. The students become active learners, rather than just listening to the

teacher give information. The teacher can assess the students' knowledge and in-turn adapt the lesson to the students' needs. There is a great deal of collective knowledge in a group of students and utilizing this knowledge makes the teaching of new knowledge more memorable.

There are many techniques ESL teachers can use to elicit from students, depending on what the teacher wants to elicit. However, there needs to be input or stimulus from the teacher in order to start the process of accessing the students' knowledge. Beware of cultural differences when eliciting and try to nominate students to answer. Give students time to think about what they are going to say and ask questions with no right or wrong answer. If you find there is little response from the class, try giving them more input to help direct them (Larsen-Freeman, 2001).

1.8.3. Eliciting Grammar

For eliciting grammar, you could use a situational dialogue, a drawing or modelling. Create some kind of context for the students to understand the grammar point and then follow up with concept check questions. If you are doing a reading exercise, ask the students to give you examples of the grammar point from the text (Taylor, 2014). You may also wish to ask the students questions that require the students to answer using a particular grammatical form. You may want to try telling the students the grammar point first and then asking them to give you some example sentences.

1.9. Asking Concept Checking Questions

1.9.1 Definition of Concept Checking Questions

The British Council Teaching English website defines concept checking simply as finding out if a learner has understood a new item. With concrete items, this could be as simple as asking a learner to point to an object in the room. With more abstract ideas, this could be targeted questions to explore the parameters of meaning.

Concept checking can help the teacher to see beyond doubt that the student has understood. Asking the class 'do you understand?' is not so useful as it doesn't demonstrate the learners' understanding. The most obvious use for concept checking questions is vocabulary. They can also be useful for grammatical structures and ideas. (Taylor, 2014)

Concept Checking is a way to make sure your students have understood what you have been explaining. It's about asking the right questions.

Concept checking questions are designed to highlight the essence of meaning of the Day's target language and verbally check for understanding of grammar, vocabulary, communicative. When the teacher introduces a new language as questions we ask the students to ensure the students and to ensure they had understanding or definition or explanation. (Svalberg, 2005)

This example shows why concept checking is necessary in your classroom:

Example

You asked your students to read a passage in a book. Afterwards you ask them, “Did you all understand that?” The chances are that one or two students will say, “Yes”, some more will nod their heads, some will mumble something and one or two say nothing. As a teacher you might assume that everyone has understood and move on; but can you be sure? Did the answers to, “Did you all understand that?” really tell you anything?

1.9.2. Concept Checking Grammar

In teaching grammar concept checking questions have a crucial role for achieving language mastery let us look the following examples:

By December, Sophie **will have been living** in Paris for 3 years. (It is now June 2014).

Possible concept checking questions

- Does Sophie live in Paris now? Yes
- Has she always lived in Paris? No
- When did she move to Paris? 2 1/2 years ago or December 2011.
- Will she be in Paris in December? Yes
- So is this sentence talking about the past, the present or the future? The past, the present and the future.

1.9.3. Ways to Write a Good Concept Checking Questions

First, take a good monolingual dictionary to check the core meaning of the lexical item, or a good grammar reference book to check the meaning of the structure. Second, write down the core meaning. Third, turn these sentences into simple questions.

*E.g. I visited a charming old village full of **quaint** houses.*

1. Definition

2. Core meaning

It is interesting... It is attractive... It is unusual... It is old-fashioned.

3. Concept checking questions

Are the houses interesting or boring? *interesting*

Are they attractive or ugly? *attractive*

Are they normal or strange? *strange*

Are they old-fashioned or modern? *old-fashioned*

1.9.4. Different Types of Concept Checking Questions.

Concept checking question can be: Display questions and referential questions (Matthews, Spratt, and Dangerfield, 1991). **Display questions** are those which the teacher already knows the answer to and is simply asking to check the core meaning. There is a clear right or wrong answer. **Referential questions** are real questions, they are more open and the students can respond more freely and personally.

E.g. *We went to a really **bustling** market full of life.*

Display question: Are there a lot of people or very few people in a *bustling* area?

Referential question: Where is a *bustling* area in your city?

It is good to use a variety of question types, it is more logical perhaps to begin with display questions then move on to referential questions.

Display questions can be:

- **Closed questions** E.g. Is a *test-tube* big or small?
- **Open questions** E.g. What can you buy in a *newsagent's*?
- **Trick questions** E.g. So, when you are *made redundant*, you did something wrong at work, right?
- **Sentence finishers** E.g. A *screwdriver* is used for...

Common pitfalls

- **Checking the context rather than the concept.** E.g. 'He didn't know the answer to the exam question so he *made something up*'. CCQ – 'Did he pass the exam?' (This does not check the meaning of the phrasal verb 'make up').
- **Using language more difficult than the item being checked.** E.g. 'When Bill arrived, *we were having lunch*'. CCQ – 'Had we already started lunch when Bill arrived? (If teaching the past continuous, the students are unlikely to have much awareness of the past perfect).
- **Using the target language in the CCQ.** E.g. He *hasn't finished* his homework yet. CCQ – 'Has he already finished?' (Checking the present perfect with the present perfect).
- **Using CCQs unnecessarily.** E.g. Teacher shows the class a picture of an *eagle* in flight and asks a CCQ – 'Can an eagle fly?' (Bemused look from students!)

Generally, Good concept checking questions should: Relate to a model sentence in some sort of context, Be thought out carefully at the planning stage to ensure the core meaning is being checked, Be easy to answer – yes/no, one-word answers, Be surrounded by language which is easy to understand. Concept Checking is simply asking the right questions to find out whether your students have understood. You will need to ask questions where the students must have understood to give you the right answers. These are likely to be questions beginning: Who..., What did..., Where did..., When did..., Why did... and How did... Thus your students will need to have understood the English presented to them in order to answer your questions.

Example: Show your students the following text:

Elena Paparizou was born in Sweden to Greek immigrant parents (her father is from Volos and her mother from Karditsa). She studied singing, dancing and music at an early age and always wanted to perform. In 1999 she formed the band Antique with her childhood friend

Nikos Panagiotidis; their first single, Opa Opa, reached number 1 in the Swedish charts. The band was selected to represent Greece in the 2001 Eurovision Song Contest in Copenhagen with the song, I Would Die For You, where they reached third place equalling Sakis Rouvas' entry Shake It in 2004 and the highest placed Greek placing until 2005 when she won the contest with the song, My Number One.

Questions which don't check understanding would be:

- ✓ Did you understand the passage?
- ✓ Are there any words you don't understand?

However, concept checking questions could include:

- ✓ Where was she born?
- ✓ When did she reach Number 3 in Eurovision?
- ✓ What was the name of her band?
- ✓ What happened in 2005?

1.10. Drilling

1.10.1. Definition and Uses of Drills as Language Teaching Material

Drilling is a technique that has been used in foreign language classrooms for many years. It was a key feature of audio-lingual method approaches to language teaching, which placed emphasis on repeating structural patterns through oral practice.

A drill is "A type of highly controlled oral practice in which the students respond to a given cue. The response varies according to the type of drill." (Matthews, Spratt, and Dangerfield 1991, 210). Drills are used usually at the controlled practice stage of language learning so that students have the opportunity to accurately try out what they have learned. Drills help students to develop quick, automatic responses using a specific formulaic expression or structure, such as a tag ending, verb form, or transformation.

Drills have been much maligned for their behavioristic, stimulus-response nature and for the mechanical, repetitive practice they provide. In classrooms that use the audio-lingual method, which became popular in the 1950s, drills are basic to language teaching. THEORETICAL BASE

This technique is based on Audio-lingual Method. Richard and Rodgers (1986) said that a number of learning principles in learning theory became the psychological foundations of Audiolingualism and came to shape its methodological practice. Some principles are:

- ✓ Foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation. Good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes. By memorizing dialogues and performing pattern drills the chances of producing mistakes are minimized. Language is verbal behaviour that is the automatic production and comprehension of utterances-and can be learned by inducing the students to do likewise.
- ✓ Language skills are learned more effectively if the items to be learned in the target language are presented in spoken form before they are seen in written form.

- ✓ Analogy provides a better foundation for language learning than analysis. Analogy involves the processes of generalization and discriminations. Drills can enable learners to form correct analogies. Hence the approach to teach the teaching of grammar is essentially inductive rather than deductive.
- ✓ Teaching a language involves teaching aspects of the cultural system of the people who speak the language.

Drills can be useful teaching-learning material because they provide practice of small, manageable chunks of language. This helps to build confidence and automatic use of structures and expressions that have been drilled. Also, they can be part of a teaching or learning sequence that progresses from more towards less controlled practice. Mary Spratt (1991) notes that drills can be either mechanical or meaningful. Mechanical drills are controlled by the teacher who provides drill cues to which students respond. These drills can give beginning students a chance to articulate the new language fluently. Meaningful drills are controlled by the teacher as well as by the students who must understand the drill cues in order to respond. Meaningful drills are more desirable than mechanical drills because they provide a reason for speaking and are thus more engaging and motivating. Spratt (10–11) points out these requisites for meaningful drills:

- They should look like real language, containing hesitations, proper social reactions such as exclamations, questions, or comments that require a response. They can even consider register and nonverbal elements.
- The response should not be totally predictable; a variety of responses should be incorporated.
- They should involve genuine reactions between or among the speakers.
- They should be purposeful and based on topics of relevance to students
- They should be sufficiently controlled and allow the teacher to observe how well learning has taken place. They should allow for sustained language practice.

1.10.2. Types of Drills

Drills come in various forms repetition drills, substitution drills, and transformation drills are among the main types. Each type of drill can be meaningful or mechanical, depending upon how you develop it. We will explain several types of drills on the following pages. According to Haycraft (36: 1978), after presentation and explanation of the new structure, students may use controlled practice in saying useful and correct sentence patterns in combination with appropriate vocabulary. These patterns are known as oral drills. They can be inflexible: students often seem to master a structure in drilling, but are then incapable of using it in other contexts. Furthermore, drills have several types in form:

A. Repetition Drills

Repetition drills are useful for familiarizing students quickly with a specific structure or formulaic expression (Doff 1990, 71). The teacher's language is repeated with no change. Be

sure to teach the meaning of the utterance first. The example that follows illustrates this type of drill:

Example: Teacher: It's cold outside.

Students: It's cold outside.

Teacher: It's warm outside.

Students: It's warm outside.

Because repetition drills are extremely mechanical, they should not be used for prolonged practice. Preferably they should lead quickly into another kind of drill or oral practice activity that allows students to manipulate the form being practiced in meaningful and relevant ways.

B. Substitution Drills

Substitution drills are slightly more interactive than repetition drills because they usually give students practice in changing a word or structure in response to a prompt or cue from the teacher or another student. The teacher's prompt can be a whole sentence, a word, a phrase, or a picture. Here is a mechanical substitution drill using a single-word (in italics) prompt:

Example: Teacher: You're a student, aren't you? *Farmer*

Students: You're a farmer, aren't you?

Teacher: You're a farmer, aren't you? *Accountant*

Students: You're an accountant, aren't you?

Teacher: You're an accountant, aren't you? *Mechanic*

Students: You're a mechanic, aren't you?

Teacher: You're a mechanic, aren't you?

Here is an example of a mechanical substitution drill using a phrase (in italics) as a prompt:

Teacher: Where were you born? Can you tell me? *was your husband*

Students: Where was your husband born?

Teacher: Where was your husband born? Can you tell me? *was he*

Students: Where was he born?

Teacher: Where was he born? Can you tell me? *was your daughter*

Students: Where was your daughter born?

Teacher: Where was your daughter born? Can you tell me?

C. Transformation Drills

Transformation drills involve changing the structure of a sentence. If the cue is I like ice cream, for example, the response in a positive to negative statement transformation drill could be I don't like ice cream. Raymond Clark (1987, 84) lists these types of transformations:

- Statement to question: e.g., I like ice cream. To: Do you like ice cream?
- One tense to another tense: e.g., I'm going shopping. To: Yesterday I went shopping.
- Active to passive: e.g., The teacher gave them the answers. To: They were given the answers by the teacher.

- Singular subject to plural subject: e.g., The woman sings well. To: The womensing well.

You will find it relatively easy to develop substitution and transformation drills to provide students with practice in automatic manipulation of a form. However, students often forget what they have learned in drills. Drills have also been criticized because students can repeat drills without understanding what they are saying (Spratt, 9). Yet, short periods of drills can be useful during the early stages of a lesson, and you are advised to move on after five or ten minutes to other oral practice activities or to drills that are more meaningful. It is best to do mechanical drills before you begin meaningful drills, which are more difficult because students have to provide information in addition to the correct language form. Meaningful drills still involve repetition or substitution of structures in response to prompts, but they are more relevant and motivating. This is because students have to think about and understand what they are saying and express meaning through their responses. Because meaningful drills are somewhat unpredictable, they are more like real language so there is more reason for students to listen attentively than during practice with mechanical drills.

D. The Question and Answer Drill

The teacher gives students practice with answering questions. The students should answer the teacher's questions very quickly. It is also possible for the teacher to let the students practice to ask question as well. This gives students practice with the question pattern.

Example:

Teacher : Does he go to school? Yes?

Students : Yes, he does.

Teacher : No?

Students : No, he does not.

E. The Chain Drill

The teacher begins the chain by greeting a particular student, or asking him a question. That student respond, then turns to the students sitting next to him. Chung, (n.d) The first student greets or asks a question of the second student and the chain continues. A chain drill allows some controlled communication, even though it is limited. A chain drill also gives the teacher an opportunity to check each student's speech.

Teacher: What is the color of sky?

The color of sky is blue

What the color of banana?

Student A : The color of banana is yellow. What is the color of leaf?

Student B : The color of leaf is green. What is the color of our eyes?

Student C : The color of our eyes is black and white.

F. The Expansion Drill

This drill is used when a long line dialog is giving students trouble. The teacher breaks down the line into several parts. The students repeat a part of the sentence, usually the last phrase of

the line. Then following the teacher's cue, the students expand what they are repeating part at the end of the sentence (and works backward from there) to keep the intonation of the line as natural as possible (Macmillan Education, 2018) .. This also directs more student attention to the end of the sentence, where new information typically occurs.

Example:

Teacher : My mother is a doctor.

Students : My mother is a doctor

Teacher : She works in the hospital.

Students : She works in the hospital

Teacher : My mother is a doctor. She works in the hospital.

Students : My mother is a doctor. She works in the hospital

Teacher : She take cares the patient.

Students : She take cares the patient

Teacher : My mother is a doctor. She works in the hospital. She take cares the patient

Students : My mother is a doctor. She works in the hospital. She take cares the patient

G. Communicative Drills

This kind of drills is quite different from the so-called meaningless and mechanical drills used in a traditional grammar oriented class by some teachers, in which the primary focus is on the form of the language being used rather than its communicative content. Macmillan Education (2018) . Suggested that Children do not blindly mimic adults' speech in a parrot fashion, without really needing to understand or communicate anything, but make selective use of simulation to construct the grammar and make sense of the expressions according to the grammar. This kind of drills has meanings and connotes information accordingly in a certain situation and at a certain time. It has an information gap and does involve communicative process. The child has access to language data and opportunities to interact with the inputs (meaningful inputs). When processing the language they hear, children construct the grammar and make sense of the expression according to the grammar. When producing utterance, they follow the internalized grammatical rules. This kind of drilling can be formed by using the other drilling types. But the emphasis is that the student involving something real as well as communicative value and the practice creates an information gap.

Example :Guessing game:Teacher has something in mind (things, job, event, etc) and the students must guess that thing by using yes no question:

Students : Is it in the class?

Teacher : Yes, it is.

Students : Is it blue?

Teacher : No, it is not.

Students : Is it black?

Teacher : Yes, it is.

Students : Is it in the front of the class?

Teacher : Yes, it is.

Students : Is it black board?

Teacher : Yes, it is.

With the basis of the communicative drills, teachers may design more advanced communicative activities so that learners can have more opportunities to produce sustained speech with more variations in possible responses.

1.10.3. Making Drills Meaningful

Spratt suggests that you can make drills meaningful by using pictures to provide meaning or by giving students choices in their replies to cues. Allowing students choice means they have to think before they comment. Choice can mean allowing students to add something personal to their responses as in the example below. Use the truth principle—students must respond with a true statement about themselves.

Even with this principle in mind, it is important to remember that drills are materials for providing controlled practice. A meaningful drill is designed to exert enough control over students' production to minimize errors but also to provide no more control than is necessary. Here is an example of a meaningful drill to practice the modal could. It is meaningful because responses are unpredictable and give students choices.

Teacher: I'm bored.

Student 1: You could read a book.

Student 2: You could go to a movie.

Student 3: You could call a friend.

Student 4: You could clean up your room!

Here is an example of a meaningful drill that demands a personal response.

Teacher: I get tired of doing the same thing every day. I've always wanted to be a pilot.

Student 1: How exciting! I'd rather be a stunt person in the movies.

Student 2: That's too exciting for me. I'd rather be a movie star.

Student 3: Not me. I'd rather be a famous writer.

Here are some additional tips from Chung, (n.d), and others for developing drills.

- ✓ Base your drill on your objectives.
- ✓ Whether you are using mechanical or meaningful drills, it is important that your drills are relevant to your learners' realm of experience and knowledge of the world.
- ✓ Include opportunities for students to accurately use the target form or expression in your drill. Ensure that the target for the practice is central and that you develop the drill in a way that students must say it correctly.
- ✓ The structures being practiced should reflect authentic use. Although it is sometimes necessary to isolate and simplify language in order to focus on a particular point, older textbooks sometimes included drills and dialogues that taught students to respond in unnatural ways in an attempt to provide practice of a particular structure. These kinds of exercises result in students that "sound like textbooks" when they speak English.

- ✓ Whatever type of drill you develop, limit the vocabulary to common words that don't distract students from making the statements or the substitutions.
- ✓ Develop the drill in a way that you can check students' progress and understanding as they participate in it.
- ✓ Limit your drill to between 15 and 20 sentences.

1.10.4. Advantages and Dis-advantage of Drilling

A. Advantages of Drilling

- Students benefit from practice because they are able to apply knowledge through interaction.
- Students connect with the material when they work with texts and concepts beyond a one-time exposure.
- When students practice using the knowledge through application, they connect with information on a deeper level.

In addition to this drills have different purposes: Matthews, Spratt, and Dangerfield (1991) stated the advantage of Drills as follow:

1. For the learners, drills can:

- ✓ Provide for a focus on accuracy. Increased accuracy is one of the ways in which a learner's language improves so there is a need to focus on accuracy at certain stages of the lesson or during certain task types.
- ✓ Provide learners with intensive practice in hearing and saying particular word or phrases. They can help learners get their tongues around difficult sounds or help them imitate intonation that may be rather different from that of their first language.
- ✓ Provide a safe environment for learners to experiment with producing the language. This may help build confidence particularly among learners who are not risk takers.
- ✓ Help students notice the correct form or pronunciation of a word phrase. Noticing or consciousness rising of language is an important stage in developing language competence.
- ✓ Provide an opportunity for learners to get immediate feedback on their accuracy in terms of teacher or peer correction. Many learners want to be corrected.
- ✓ Help memorization and atomisation of common language patterns and language chunks. This may be particularly true for aural learners.
- ✓ Meet students expectation, i.e. they may think drilling is an essential feature of language classrooms.

2. For The Teacher:

- ✓ Help in term of classroom management, enabling us to vary the pace of the lesson or to get all learners involved.

- ✓ Help the teacher recognize if new language is causing problems in terms of form or pronunciation.

Generally speaking, while drills are synonymous with a regimented form of training, they do have a position. Drills are used effectively when teaching methodology to pupils. For example, as young people practice their multiplication tables, they will perform exercises on each number set to help them memorize; they can then progress to more difficult topics that include knowledge gained from drills. In physical education and music, trainers and instructors use drills as a way of improving skills that need to be repeated for progress. In addition, students will use this approach with each other to exchange learning experiences.

B. Disadvantages of drilling

- Teachers need to make sure that when having students practice, there is a clear link between concept and action.
- Drills are not effective when students are not prepared enough; they will not be able to maintain a pace if they are still unclear about a concept.
- Drills are typically for more basic knowledge. If teaching about more abstract concepts, a drill methodology would not be appropriate. (Matthews, Spratt, and Dangerfield, 1991)

Generally, Drilling often make the students not vary creative. In all drills learners have no or vary little choice over what is said so drills are form of very controlled practice. The teacher needs to handle the drills, so that the students are not over used and they don't go on far too long. One of the problems about drills is that they are fairly monotonous.

1.11. Communicative awareness –raising Grammar Tasks

1.11.1. Concept of Communicative Awareness-raising Tasks

The other covalent name of communicative awareness is called Conscious Raising. Consciousness Raising (CR) is an approach to language teaching. Teachers might use CR tasks as their main approach or only occasionally. To raise something to consciousness means to make someone aware of something. CR tasks are thus designed to raise the learners' Language Awareness (LA) (Svalberg, 2005). The immediate aim of CR tasks is to help learners notice something about the language that they might not notice on their own. They are typically asked to reflect on it, usually by talking to peers. CR tasks can help build their conscious knowledge and understanding (their LA) of how the language works, grammatically, socially, culturally. Below I will focus on CR to teach grammar.

An example of CR tasks is so called 'discovery activities' included in many text books, where the learners are asked to formulate a grammar rule based on some language examples. For example, a set of carefully written examples might lead learners to formulate a rule for when to use present perfect as opposed to simple present.

Discovery activities are typically very short and simple tasks. They are highly controlled, there is only one correct answer, and it is unlikely that the learners will get the answer wrong.

A. For each of the underlined verbs, decide if the form is Past Simple or Present Perfect.

Write PS or PP under the verb.

1. Amina moved to England with her parents in 2007.
2. She has lived in England for six years now.
3. She has made a lot of friends.
4. I have known Amina since last year.
5. We became friends when I and my family moved to her street.

CR tasks can, however, be much less controlled and more open ended. I will give some examples below. What they all have in common is that they involve learners noticing a target structure or function in a text (written or spoken) and drawing some kind of conclusions – not necessarily a rule - from what they have noticed. A good way to begin is to use texts which are already part of the syllabus. The students can use highlighters, for example, to pick out particular grammar features (e.g. “highlight the comparative adjectives”). This begins to train them to notice the relevant grammar in the input.

1.11.2. The Purpose of CR Tasks in the Teaching of Grammar

The ultimate purpose of most language teaching is to help learners acquire the target language to a point where they can use it accurately, spontaneously and fluently. CR tasks cannot do that on their own. Depending on the context, the teacher might opt to combine CR tasks with meaning focused oral tasks or writing activities. Within such settings, Svalberg, (2005) suggested the following CR grammar tasks have several purposes:

1. To direct learners’ attention to grammar features they might not notice on their own
2. To help learners make form – meaning connections
3. Thereby, to help learners acquire conscious knowledge which they can use to understand input and monitor their own output
4. To make learners more autonomous by developing their analytical ability
5. To draw a conclusion by themselves or with the help of their peers.
6. They become aware of how language use varieties depend on its purpose and contexts.
7. Learners can produce language both accurately and fluency,

In addition Smon (2009) stated that different relevance and strengths of CR tasks as follow:

- More active students participation and thus more autonomy in learning process
- More opportunities for the teacher to monitor individual students’ learning
- Progress and provide individualized help to students in need
- More systematic presentation of target grammar items, which in turn facilitates student uptakes
- More effective use of examples and practices exercises

- More exposure to speaking activities during class
- More comprehensive coverage to the different aspect of the target grammar items and
- Higher likelihood of students applying what they have learnt in their language encounters

A natural tendency we all have is to focus on meaning before form. Learners will naturally notice content words first, but may not pay much attention to function words such as prepositions and conjunctions, and endings, for example for tense and number.

The following task does not lead to a rule of any kind. Its aim is simply to make the learners aware of the fact that only some words ending in –ed are past tense verbs. The purpose is to help them notice and process the use of past tense in input as a step in their learning to use it correctly themselves.

Some grammatical structures are discontinuous and complex, which makes them even more difficult for learners to spot on their own. To understand, for example, how relative clauses are used the learner would need to notice at least that the relative clause modifies a preceding noun, that it usually begins with a relative pronoun and that the clause does not include a pronominal copy of the relative pronoun (in other words, ‘the book that changed my life’ but not ‘the book that it changed my life’). To learn from examples in input, learners need noticing help.

The students enjoyed trying to solve the tasks in pairs. The teachers reported that they were quite competitive about getting the answers right. The complete text and set of tasks is in the appendix. (For reasons to do with the research design, all the tasks in the series were on the same text, but that is not necessarily to be recommended.)

Teacher explanation is sometimes a useful complement to CR Tasks and Communicative Tasks but there are good reasons to believe that teacher explanation on its own is not as effective as CR. CR requires learners to think about grammar, and to draw conclusions by themselves or with the help of their peers (in pair or group work). It involves active and interactive learning. Learners who are active are more likely to find lessons enjoyable and interesting, and the learning is more likely to be memorable. Time spent on CR can mean less time spent on re-teaching or revision later.

The best CR tasks in my view are ones that highlight that grammar conveys meaning. That is precisely why grammar matters. Often, language users have two or more grammatically accurate options. Learning a language is not just learning to avoid errors but, perhaps more importantly, learning to make choices that convey what you mean in the way you intended. Learners can be helped to discover what effects their choices have.)

CR tasks have the potential to make learners more autonomous by developing their analytical ability. Taylor (2014) suggested that they can train learners to notice how language is used,

even when they are not doing a CR task. Ideally, teachers hope that learners will ‘pick up’ language from the internet, television, music, films and other incidental target language input they may encounter. Such autonomous learning is more likely if CR tasks stimulate their interest in language and give them the tools to explore it. At the same time, the autonomous learner will come across use of language that does not conform to what they have been taught, e.g. verb-less sentences and sentences starting with ‘and’ or ‘but’, or common non-standard constructions such as ‘we were sat’. In a CR approach, discussion of such observations should be encouraged. It can help learners become aware of how language use varies depending on its purpose and context. (Svalberg, 2007).

There are of course limits to what CR tasks can do. During a CR task, the learners typically talk about the target language. If they do it in the target language, the task doubles as a communicative activity but it does not necessarily provide the right opportunities to use the target grammar. To be effective, form-focused CR tasks need to be used in combination with communicative tasks where the main aim is to understand and convey meaning. The CR tasks help the learners build conscious knowledge about the language, which they can use to interpret input and monitor their own output. The communicative tasks provide meaningful opportunities to use the language so that what they have learnt consciously eventually becomes automatically available to them, in fluent, spontaneous use.

Six stages of implementing Awareness-raising (AR) grammar tasks Taylor (2014)

1. Orientation to the target grammar item and the task
2. Reading a text with multiple examples of the target grammar item embedded
3. Identification of examples in context
4. Complete information-gap activity (CLT)
5. Develop, test and practice grammatical hypotheses
6. Teacher clarifies and consolidates grammar focus

1.11.3. Implication of Communicative Awareness Raising Grammar Tasks

Consciousness raising tasks play the pivotal role in grammar teaching Doman (2005) stated that CR tasks implies about for the teaching and learning grammar: the presentation of a particular language items in context, grammar for communication tasks should involve students in working out the solutions other the teacher explaining them, should awareness rasier, and should be provid students with the capacity to make appropriate choice in given context, tasks involving the students in real language use. And these tasks provies the opportunities : to practices forms that have been first presented declaratives and to receive feedbacks in the mistakes under real condition.

So, the Awareness raising tasks to grammar teaching should:

- Noticing the conscious focus on relationship of form and meaning

- Context: language and communication happens in specific place and time to real people.
- Authentic: communication in English is not only an academic exercise. It means what relevance do learning activities have outside of the class room.
- Dynamic: includes top down and bottom up process/ negotiation of meaning.
- Integrated: Awareness raising grammar tasks in grammar teaching is integrated with other skills.

Generally, the goal of language learning is fluent, accurate and effective use of the target language. So, the in doing so communicative awareness grammar tasks essential and it produce significant in understanding the target language. CR approach should also be include in language teachers' repertoire, as methodological option that they can adopt for their daily teaching of grammar.

II. Summary

Generally, this article has sought to determine the fundamental principle of teaching Grammar instruction as a challenging topic of language teaching. Teaching grammar through meaning can allow learners to effectively grasp the structure of the language. If learners are given grammatical constructs in context, they would be better able to master the language. Teaching grammar in context will allow learners to create new structures and forms of grammar. In speech, learners can use grammatical conventions more effectively when they learn them in context. Grammar instruction is a complex activity. Expression of associations and functional forms of statements is perfected by grammar. Based on modern approaches to grammar education, language teaching, which is based on a functional-semantic approach, is helpful because this approach systematizes language and aims to master the richness of language. Compared to structural approach, the structural approach is based on the grammar and linguistic knowledge. In the structural approach, learners can only acquire the grammar, but they cannot use the skills into their communication effectively and their level still remains as in the grammar rules. This hinders revelation of the richness of the language. And in addition to this in grammar teach discourse have a prominent role. In teaching process drilling, eliciting and asking concept checking question through communicative awareness raising tasks is necessary.

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