CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the concepts, principles and processes in relation to designing a syllabus, as part of the curriculum development, stated by scholars and researchers of TESOL.

2.1 Nature of Curriculum Development

Richards and Schmidt, 2002 defines curriculum as "an overall plan for a course or programme that states;

(a) the educational purpose of the programme, in terms of aims and goals,

(b) the content of the programme and the sequence in which it will be taught, also known as the syllabus,

(c) the teaching procedures and learning activities that will be employed, i.e. methodology,

(d) The means used to assess student learning, i.e. assessment and testing, and,

(e) The means used to assess whether the programme has achieved its goals, i.e. evaluation."

Regarding curriculum development, Richards (2001), refers it as the range of planning and implementation processes involved in developing or renewing a curriculum. These processes focus on needs analysis, situational analysis, planning

learning outcomes, course organization, selecting and preparing teaching materials, providing for effective teaching, and evaluation.

2.2 Needs Analysis in Curriculum Development

The term **needs** by Brindley (1984, 24) as cited by Richards (2001) is sometimes used to refer to wants, desires, demands, expectations, motivations, lacks, constraints, and requirements.

Needs analysis is stated to be the starting point of any research. Need assessment according to Graves (2000) is a systematic and ongoing process of gathering information about students' needs and preferences, interpreting the information, and then making course decisions based on the interpretation in order to meet the needs. Brown (1995) indicates that needs analyses are far from perfect but at best an attempt to make sense out of the complexity and confusion that makes up the field of language teaching and that this can be improved by finding new possibilities and patterns which are thought to be needed for students to learn.

Richards (2001) gives examples of the different purposes of needs analysis and some of them are:

- to find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as sales manager, tour guide, or university student
- to help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students
- to identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do

- to collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing
- to find out what prior experiences students have had with formal education.

2.3 Syllabus Options

Ur (1991) describes a syllabus as a document which consists of a list that specifies all the things that are to be taught in the courses, and the actual components may be either content items (words, structures, topics) or process ones (tasks, methods). Rabbini(n.d.) in an online article "An introduction to Syllabus Design and Evaluation", also defines syllabus as an expression of opinion on the nature of language and learning, acting as a guide for both teacher and learner by providing some goals to be attained.

Scholars have identified different syllabus options and according to Richards (2001) they are grammatical (or structural) syllabus, lexical syllabus, functional syllabus, situational syllabus, topical or content-based syllabus, competency based- syllabus, skills-based syllabus, task-based syllabus, text-based syllabus, and an integrated syllabus. Rabbini reflects and identifies syllabuses under two main approaches: product-oriented and process-oriented syllabuses. The proportional approach which is the alternative term for integrated syllabus is stated by Rabbini (n.d.) to be relevant for learners who lack exposure to the target language beyond the classroom due to its flexibility and spiral method of language sequencing leading to the recycling of language. Citing White (1988), Rabbini (n.d.) mentions that a complete syllabus specification will include structure, function, situation, topic and skills. Therefore, designing a syllabus initially

involves identifying the goals and the content items; both product and process- oriented, that is, language and learning as well.

2.4 Types of content

Ur (1991) compiles 9 types of non-linguistic content: zero or trivial content; the language; another subject of study; home culture; culture associated with the target language; literature of the target language; world or general knowledge; moral, educational, political or social problems; and the learners themselves (Cambridge University Press, 1986). Ur also states that course content often conveys a hidden curriculum, underlying messages that go beyond factual information. Therefore, these types of content serve as the topical input in designing syllabuses.

2.5 Teaching Materials

Richards (2001) mentions the role of teaching materials as a key component in most language program, whether it be a textbook, institutionally prepared materials, or a teacher's own materials, and that they serve as the basic for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. He further explains that in the case of inexperienced teachers, materials may serve as a form of teacher training, providing ideas on how to plan and teach lessons as well as formats that teachers can use.

Citing Cunningsworth (1995) and Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), Richards (2001) sees that materials serve as a source of language, learning support, motivation and reference. The way they are used may be different, either as a primary teaching resource

or a supplementary to the teacher's instruction, and there are both advantages and disadvantages in using the commercial textbooks, due to the way they are used. The principal advantages are that they provide structure and a syllabus for a program; help standardize instruction, maintain quality, provide a variety of learning resources, are efficient; provide effective language models and input, can train teachers (serve as a medium of initial teacher training) and visually appealing. On the other hand, potential negative effects of commercial textbooks are that they may contain unauthentic language, may distort content, may not reflect students' needs, and can deskill teachers, or they are expensive.

Therefore, looking from the angle of advantages, a thorough study of coursebooks will help the researcher learn the way language is presented, explore kinds of activities that are facilitating, stimulating and motivating, help learn standardized instruction, the coverage of content, kinds of content, choice of various topics, skills and strategies applied and practiced which could all be integrated into syllabus design.

Cunningsworth (1995) proposes four criteria for evaluating textbooks which are (1) corresponding to learners' needs, (2) reflecting the uses whether present or future that learners will make of the language, (3) taking account of students' needs as learners and facilitating their learning processes, and (4) having a clear role as a support for learning, and mediating between the target language and the learner.

2.6 Grammar

Traditionally grammars of languages, as Swan (2005) defines, describe the structure of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences, employing concepts relating to

morphology (e.g., stem, root, affix) and syntax (e.g., phrase, head, modifier, construction, word order). He encloses many terms under the big picture of Grammar: inflection (person, number, tense, mood, voice), particles, function words, content words, word classes or parts of speech, tense, aspect, mood, case, and voice. Clauses are regarded as higher- level structures.

2.7 Vocabulary

Nation (1990) states that a systematic, principled approach to vocabulary development results in better learning, and to some learners, inadequate vocabulary causes difficulties in receptive as well as productive language. He gives a metaphor of grammar and vocabulary in that grammar is the bones of the language and vocabulary is the flesh to be added. He also explains that language consists largely of prefabricated chunks of lexis and that language is viewed to be a predominantly lexical phenomenon. Topics or semantic fields are stated the main way of organizing lexical field.

Swan (2005) relates the closeness of vocabulary and grammar. Vocabulary is words and grammar is to do with putting words together. Vocabulary consists of specific items, and grammar seems to have a more general character, involving rules that apply to whole categories to items. Many grammatical rules have a very general scope whereas other rules are more attached to lexis as many languages show certain kinds of grammatical meaning morphologically, by changes in the form of words. He explains that grammar comes very close to vocabulary if individual words and their grammatical characteristics are considered, as for example, a typical entry in our mental lexicon may include a great deal of structural information alongside specifications of meaning and

use. In other words, words belong to grammatical classes and that words may contain a lot of grammar. Therefore, grammar and vocabulary are the core parts of any language and thus studied alongside with each other.

David Wilkins as cited by Thornbury (2002) sums up the importance of vocabulary learning in stating that little can be conveyed without grammar whereas nothing can be conveyed without vocabulary. This seems to explain that vocabulary is the very first layer in language learning process. Thornbury introduces his book, *"How to teach vocabulary"*, stating the importance of vocabulary in learning that language emerges first as words. He mentions the challenges in learning the vocabulary of a second language: firstly the need to make correct connections between the form and the meaning of words, and secondly the correct form of a word for the meaning intended when producing language. To address these challenges, there is the need to identify words and know how words are described and categorized. The main categories of words may be listed as word classes, word families, word formation, multi-word units, collocations, homonyms, polysemes, synonyms and antonyms, hyponyms, lexical fields, and styles and connotation.

Some of the research findings reveal principles relevant to the subject of word learning and they are Repetition, Retrieval, Spacing, Pacing, Use, Cognition depth, Personal organization, Imaging, Mnemonics, Motivation, Attention/ arousal, and Affective depth. With the first principle, simply repeating an item, the basis of rote learning, has little long-term effect comparing with the other more important kind which is the repetition of encounters with a word as it has been estimated that words stand a good chance of remembered if they have been met at least seven times over spaced

intervals. The second principle is retrieval or retrieval practice effect which means the act of retrieving a word from memory makes it more likely that learners will be able to recall it again later. Learning activities, for example, using the new word in written sentences require retrieval and according to Thornbury, "oil the path" for future recall. By Spacing, it is understood that it is better to distribute memory work across a period of time than to mass it together in a single block. This could be applied in sequencing lessons where newly presented vocabulary reviewed in the next lesson. The next principle, pacing, explains that learners have different learning styles, and process data at different rates, and therefore, should be allowed time for memory work , such as organizing or reviewing their vocabulary silently and individually, and this could be implemented through learners cultivating the habit of producing vocabulary card, or vocabulary notebook.

The fifth principle, use, is stated to be the best way of ensuring they are added to the long- term memory, as the reverse of using it is losing it. In order to use the words, integration activities are suggested by Thornbury rather than practice activities or reinforcement activities as the latter terms are more mechanical and less cognitive in nature. He presents two kinds of tasks regarding how to put words to work: decision making tasks and production tasks that help move words into long-term memory. With decision making, tasks can be divided into five types: identifying; selecting; matching; sorting; and ranking and sequencing. Counting, finding, and underlining words are defined to be identifying tasks. Selecting tasks are cognitively more complex than identifying tasks as recognizing words and making choices involve in it. An example task of this would be "Choosing the odd one out" from the given group. Sorting

activities require learners to sort words into different categories. Ranking and sequencing activities ask learners to put the words into some kind of order.

Production tasks require the learners to incorporate the newly studied words into some kind of speaking and writing activity, of which the two main types are completion and creation of sentences and texts. Gap fills are the more generally known tasks, and they can be open and closed type. In the open types, the learner fills the gaps by drawing on their mental lexicon, on the other hand, words are provided in a closed gap-fill. Example instructions for these tasks are "Complete the text by……, Choose the best words to complete…." A multiple choice is also a kind of closed gap- fill task. Sentence and text creation tasks require learners to create the contexts for given words.
The next principle is personal organizing which implies that the ability to learn word is more effective if they are personalized. Imaging is also an effective principle of which learners silently visualizing a mental picture to go with a word as easily visualized words are more memorable.

2.8 Learning Stratetiges

Citing Wenden (1985), Griffiths (2004) explains that if students are taught the strategies to work out the answers for themselves, they are empowered to manage their own learning. Other researchers also define language learning strategies to be an extremely powerful learning tool. Similarly, O'Malley et al (1985) define learning strategies as the operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information. Rubin (1981) identifies two kinds of learning strategies which directly or indirectly contribute to learning. According to her, the six

types of direct learning strategies are: clarification/ verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/ inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice. The indirect learning strategies are divided into two types, creating opportunities for practice and production tricks. 26 strategies are identified by O' Malley and his colleagues and they divided them into three categories: metacognitive (knowing about learning), cognitive (specific to distinct learning activities) and social. The first two categories, according to Griffiths (2004), correspond approximately with Rubin's strategies, and the social strategies acknowledge the importance of interactional strategies in language learning.

Oxford (1990) adds more strategies and classifies them into six groups, namely, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies; however, there is the possibility that the categories will overlap.

Griffiths (2004) comments that language learning strategy theory operates alongside most of the contemporary language learning and teaching theories. For instance, memory and cognitive strategies are involved in the development of vocabulary and grammar knowledge on which the grammar –translation method depends and they also make the patterning of automatic responses which make the characteristic of the audiolingual method more effective. From her study involving 348 students in a private language school in New Zealand, Griffiths found that language learning strategies were used significantly more frequently by advanced students than by elementary students. Nunan (1995) states that language classrooms should have a dual purpose, teaching both content and awareness of language processes.

2.9 Reading Strategies

Nuttall (1997) generalizes the purpose of reading as getting the message, whether it be facts, or enjoyment, ideas or feelings, and the most important thing in reading is that meaning is transferred from mind to mind, and that the reader, the writer and the text each contribute to the process of getting the meaning through reading. She further explains that the need to read is powerful motivation in itself; however, if the foreign language reading is interesting in itself, then student's motivation is more activated, and reading is to be assumed as a purposeful activity in order to make classes livelier and learning more purposeful. Difficulty of a text, according to Nuttall, depends on the amount of previous knowledge the reader brings to the text, the complexity of the text itself, and the vocabulary. One way to solve the difficulty is stated as active interrogation of a text in which the reader is actively involved and works to get the meaning out. Therefore, reading is defined as interactive process in that both reader and writer depend on one another. From the reader's part, they may often need to make sense of the text or draw appropriate inferences to get the meaning intended through assessment of the evidence, choice of words, selection of facts and so on.

Next, prediction, for example, of the title or the genre or sentences is also helpful to make sense of the text because it activates schemata which calls into mind any experiences and associated knowledge and thus enable students to learn better. Grammatical features, structure and meaning are also stated to help prediction.

In addition, top-down and bottom-up processing are defined to be complementary ways of processing a text as well as important strategies for the readers. In top-down

processing, students' own intelligence and experience- the prediction are drawn on to understand the text, whereas in bottom –up processing, meaning is built up from recognition of letters and words, working out sentence structure, etc..

Douglas (1994) compiles ten strategies for reading comprehension: (1) identifying the purpose in reading; (2) using efficient silent reading techniques for relatively rapid comprehension for intermediate to advanced levels; (3) skimming; (4) scanning; (5) semantic mapping or clustering; (6) guessing; (7)vocabulary analysis; (9) distinguishing between literal and implied meaning; and (10) capitalizing on discourse markers to process relationships. With guessing, he suggests, learners can use it to their advantage to the meaning of the word, a grammatical relationship, a discourse relationship, inference of implied meaning, a cultural reference, and content messages. With vocabulary analysis, several techniques are suggested as useful: to look for prefixes, suffixes, familiar roots, grammatical contexts that signal information, and semantic context (topic) for clues.

Scrivener (1994), about approaches to reading, also states that to make students better readers, first of all it is needed to raise awareness that it's not always essential to understand every word, but still achieving a specific and useful goal, and a good first strategy could be to help them read fast through skimming (fast reading for key topics, main ideas, overall theme, basic structure) and scanning (fast reading for specific individual pieces of information), which are both top-down skills moving from overview to details.

A route map for a basic reading lesson that follows some reading strategies or techniques and that integrate tasks and activities is given as a sample. In pre-reading

stage, there is an introduction and lead -in, that gets the learners interested in the topic, initial discussion of key themes, make an explicit link between the topic of the text and student's own lives and experiences, or focus on important language that will come in the text. Pre-reading task can be predicting from some extracted information (illustration, key words, headlines, etc), reading questions about the text or students composing their own questions. For while-reading stage, several kinds of tasks could be applied:

(a) tasks to focus on fast reading for gist (skimming), e.g. checking text against predictions made before hand, guessing the title from a choice of three options, putting events or illustrations in the correct order

(b) tasks to focus on fast reading for specific details (scanning), e.g. finding single items of information in the text

(c) tasks to focus on meaning (general points) , e.g. answering questions about meaning, making use of information in the text to do something (make a sketch, fill out a form, find out which picture is being described, etc.) , discussing issues, summarizing arguments, and comparing view points

(d) tasks to focus on meaning (finer points, more intensive comprehensive understanding)

(e) tasks to focus on individual language items, e.g. vocabulary exercises, use of dictionaries, working out meaning of words from context

For post- reading stage, activities and tasks in variety are mentioned: follow –on tasks, e.g. role- play, debate, writing task, and personalization; and closing tasks, e.g. drawing the lesson to a conclusion, tying up loose ends, reviewing what has been studied and what has been learned.

2.10 Writing Strategies

Writing, as noted by Scrivener (1994), involves a different kind of mental process and there is more time for thinking, reflecting, preparing, rehearsing, making mistakes, and finding alternatives and better solutions. Much writing work in the classroom usually ranges from copying, doing exercises, guided writing, process writing to unguided writing, depending on the restriction, help and control offered. A real life writing involves looking at other texts and summarizing, reporting, responding to them, selecting ideas from them, commenting on them, etc. The actual content of the texts provides a lot of support for the writer because there is something concrete to deal with and many ideas are already formulated and mainly need a response or opinion, rather than original thought. Scrivener names it as supplying text-starts. Therefore, reading and writing skills are always complimenting each other as do grammar and vocabulary. The nature of writing work for theological students is similar to this as students are assigned reading texts, or topics and are to give back oral presentation as well as reflection, comments, book reports and mini research as writing assignments. Scrivener also comments that sample texts are found to be helpful and if given earlier, they can serve as a kind of model and given later on in the writing work, they can serve as extra support and ideas despite the overall structure and content of learners' work may not significantly be altered. In addition, sample texts enable students to study the lay out, the overall message, the organization of the items, specific phrases and sentences used, distinctive grammatical features, the style and tone and the effect on the reader.

2.11 Motivation

In an article of an annual magazine of KBTS (2007), Sheila, a faculty member of the Seminary, compares motivation to a springboard for learners to be successful in learning a language. Beside the uses of English for social, educational and vocational purposes, she mentions that believers in Christ use English to communicate and have fellowship with believers from other countries and that English has become the common language to share love and mutual understanding globally which may also be true to believers of other faiths, and she is convinced that it is the intrinsic motivation that might have encouraged missionaries in translating the Bible and hymnals although primarily it is their instrumental motivation that led them to learn other languages.

Ellis (1997) is quoted to identify instrumental motivation as a type of enthusiasm which makes learners make effort to improve their language skills due to a functional reason, in order to find better jobs or pursue higher education. On the other hand, intrinsic motivation is seen when learners find language learning enjoyable. In other words, learners are intrinsically motivated to learn the language, as they enjoy activities and tasks which can arouse their interest and make them feel personally involved. Johnson (1995) is also cited, stating that students' participation has effects on their opportunity to acquire the language. Research shows that in order to promote students' motivation, learning activities and tasks do play an important role, paving ways in formation of intrinsic motivation through (from) instrumental motivation. The need to read is important for the theological students, and therefore, assisting them to enjoy as well as understand reading through the activities and tasks is the essential cause.

2.12 Active Learning in the Classroom

Rivers (1983) claims that any learning is an active process. Meyers & Jones (1993) is cited in an online article, "Using Active Learning in the Classroom" with their definition of what an active learning is. Active learning involves providing opportunities for students to meaningfully talk and listen, write, read and reflect on the content, ideas, issues, and concerns of an academic subject. Students learn best when they engage with course material and actively participate in their learning. There are some students who already involve in active learning, in other words, dialoguing with the texts, however, there is still the need to provide active learning for all learners so that they will learn more and be able to apply their learning more adeptly, retain more course content for a longer time and are able to apply that material in a broader range of texts. Active learning could be integrated to all language skills. For example, with Writing Skill, giving short writing assignments to reiterate what the instructor has said in class or what a text or article has stated, is a kind of active learning. Kinds of activities that can promote active learning both for individuals and for groups; for instances are : submitting questions, writing a summary of the text, writing to determine comprehension, note taking and revision, and editing the work of others, brainstorming, problem- solving, think-pair- share, debates, peer teaching, role playing, and class discussion.

2.13 Activities and Tasks

Scrivener (2004) writes about classroom activities. In some places, researchers call them learning activities. According to Scrivener, the basic building block of a lesson

is the activity or task. He defines it as "something that learners do that involves them using or working with language to achieve some specific outcome" and that this outcome may either reflect a real world outcome or a purely 'for- the -purpose -of learning'outcome. This can be identified with rehearsal rationale and activation rationale, the terms used by Nunan (2004). He links doing activities with the concept of how people learn language. Between language input and use, there is the process of learning which involves understanding, memory, reflection, noticing, and preparing to speak or write. Therefore, activities should reflect things that are the important part of the learning process.

One of the data items surveyed from the teachers suggests the use of tasks in learning. A definition of a pedagogical task by Richards et al 1986 cited by Nunan (2004) is that it is an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language as a response. Nunan (2004) defines a pedagogical task as a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. Nunan also cites Willis and Willis (2001) and clarifies the difference between tasks and grammatical exercises that learners are free to use a range of language structures to achieve task outcomes and the forms are not specified in advance. Therefore, the use of tasks should be really effective in that learners have to retrieve all language they already know from their long-term memory in order to complete the tasks given.

Nunan also explains that pedagogical tasks can be identified as rehearsal rationale or activation rationale. The former has a context where learners are to rehearse something they're going to need to do outside the classroom. With the latter one, the aim of the task is to encourage students to activate a range of language functions and structures.

Researchers have developed various terms on task types. According to Bangalore project, there are three task types: information –gap activity, reasoning-gap activity, and opinion- gap activity. The work of Pattison (1987) cited by Nunan (2004), seven task and activity types are set out: questions and answers; dialogues and role plays, matching activities, communication strategies, pictures and picture stories, puzzles and problems, and discussions and decisions. Then more recently Richards (2001) proposed the typological tasks as jigsaw tasks, information-gap tasks, problem-solving tasks, decision making tasks, and opinion exchange tasks.

The alternative method of classifying tasks according to Nunan (1999) proposes five different strategy types: cognitive(classifying, predicting, inducing, taking notes, concept mapping, inferencing, discriminating, diagramming); interpersonal (co-operating, role playing); linguistic (conversational patterns, practicing, using context, summarizing, selective listening, skimming); affective (personalizing, self-evaluating, reflecting); and creative (brainstorming).

Information Gap

Information gap is a common activity type, and Scrivener (2004) explains pairwork information gap in saying that there is a gap of information between two persons when one knows something that another person doesn't know, and that this kind of activity is more motivating and useful to language learners than speaking without any real reason for doing so.

Picture Telling

Wright (1989) clarifies the use of pictures in teaching learning process, stating that things we see play an enormous part in affecting us and in giving us information. We predict, deduce, and infer, not only from what we hear and read but from what we see around us and from what we remember having seen. According to him, pictures are not just an aspect of method but through their representation of places, objects, and people, they become an essential part of overall experiences that students are to cope with. Wright claims that pictures contribute to: interest and motivation; a sense of the context of the language; and a specific reference point or stimulus.

Scrivener (1994) also claims that traditionally, pictures and picture stories have been used as a starting point for writing exercises, but they are also very useful for focusing on a specific language points or as material for speaking and listening activities. According to him, most picture stories seem inevitably to involve practice of the past simple and past progressive. Two different approaches can be applied to picture story which are: "accuracy to fluency" and "fluency to accuracy".

Pair and Group Works

Research shows that learning language is a social activity, and is the outcome of collaboration between the teacher and the student and between the student and other students in the group. Meyer & Jones (1993) state that collaborative learning, which is a small-group-based instructional approach built on the principles of group dynamics (Dornyei & Murphey 2003), also results in active learning, as individuals in small groups are evidenced by researches that they learn better than they do on their own or in isolation. Learning activities can be in the form of group problem solving, think-pair-share, debates and even peer teaching among learners. Dornyei and Murphey (2003), in their work *Group Dynamics,* quote the Vygotskian idea that learning appears first in social interaction, between minds, and that messages are co-constructed by participants. Murphey mentions that though sometimes there is failure to communicate and to come together, groups, teams and communities often achieve potential for greater learning and increased creativity. There is a great deal of interaction occurs in the classroom when students have to do something together in small-group activities or in project work.

Class Discussion

Class discussion, according to Meyer & Jones (1993), is proved to be an active learning activity because they provide opportunities for students to demonstrate their knowledge of what they are learning in the classroom, allowing for clarification, questions, and expressions of opinion. Moreover, open-ended discussions are most appropriate in promoting critical thinking, curiosity about the topic, or tolerance for opposing viewpoints.

Role Playing

Role-playing is identified as active learning activity that can often stimulate affective qualities such as empathy, as well as understanding of concepts, points of view, and external constraints on personal action.

Brainstorming

Kelly & Gargagliano (2001) define that brainstorming is writing as many words or phrases as can be thought of about a topic. It is a kind of top-down process that helps activate schemata especially that contributes to a writing task. Meyers & Jones also claim that brainstorming is a kind of active learning in which students are encouraged to generate as many ideas on the topic as possible without judgment or critique when they are made, and that it can be used in many learning contexts.

Translation

For theological students, translation is a desirable as well as an essential skill. Knowledge and information received from the B.Th course are to be shared and imparted later in real life. Mostly, these students will have to work in the churches and organization in order to minister to their mother tongue speakers. Therefore, all knowledge is to be transferred to L1 and applied either orally or in written language. For this reason translation activity is to be improved and from the other way round, it can create sense of accomplishment as well. Stating this, it is not to be interfered or confused with monolingual instructional strategies which are meant to promote language

acquisition in classrooms. Rather, it should be developed as a kind of activity that promotes two- way cross-language transfer.

Cummins (2007) paraphrases the claims of Manyak (2004) on the basis of his research in that:

- Translation promotes the acquisition of English;
- Translation promotes biliteracy development; and
- Translation promotes identities of competence.

Manyak's research was based on the school context by documenting the range and functions of cross-language activities occurring in a combined grade 1 and 2 classroom in California; however; his findings could be true and applied to adult learning as well. Moreover, Cummins, citing Manyak, advocates the benefits of composition of bi-lingual texts by the students which leads to literacy development in both languages simultaneously, and thus, resulting in bi-lingualism as a special emblem of academic competence. Therefore, language awareness and cross- language cognitive processing could be promoted through translation activities. Cummins (2007) believes that although the surface aspects of different languages are clearly separate, there is an underlying cognitive/academic proficiency that is common across languages and that this makes possible the transfer of cognitive/ academic or literacy –related proficiency from one language to another.

Music and Cultural Art Forms

Beth and Saurman (2004) research about music and claim that language and music are found in every culture, and are very inter-related. According to them,

especially among indigenous cultures of Asia, and especially in more oral cultures, music is used in four powerful ways: to communicate, to reinforce cultural identity, to teach or instruct members of their community, and to assist them in retaining and passing on large amounts of information. They also comment that language influences the music and the music influences the language. Each culture may think very differently about music, but the word is used to identify songs, song types, dances, instruments, celebrations, and ceremonies. Music communicates in two main areas, and the first is the text which communicates lexical meaning and they are often placed in a special form, often poetic. The second way that music communicates is through the sounds that include melody, rhythm, instruments, and more. And it is the combination of the text and the melody that does attract and contribute to its listeners. Beth and Saurman also define music as a memory aid and as instructional vehicle as it has been used by cultures for centuries to disseminate information from generation to generation, and thus, the resource of songs and poems become the culture's library. They state that use of songs and other art forms allow for motivating and fun learning.

Songs carry feelings and feelings are universal. Songs are appreciated by and have impact on all age groups based on the kinds of the melody, and especially appealing to the young people. Songs awaken and sooth people's mind. Songs enliven people's heart. Therefore, songs can be exploited in teaching learning context. Both praise songs and love songs can be applied in language acquisition. The melody of the song helps acquire, easily memorize and retain the words and the sentence order, either in a natural or in poetic form and collocation as well.

Songs have positive effect both on language acquisition and memorization. An account of the impact of music on memory is given by Oliver Sacks. His account is referred to in Our Daily Bread, the daily devotional guide, in the issue for September to November, 2009. In his book Musicophilia: Tales of Music and the Brain, he devotes a chapter to the therapeutic role of music with people suffering from Alzheimer's. He witnessed people with advanced dementia respond to songs that bring back memories that had seemed lost to them. The old music is recognized, and its emotional power felt. Some start to sing along, others join them and the entire group, many of them virtually speechless before, is singing together. Therefore, the advantage of learning through songs should also be exploited in language classrooms.

Other cultural art forms can also be used in teaching learning process, for example, to assign short written task, to promote creativity, to engage them in drawings, pictures, symbols, mini oral presentation, or demonstration, etc,. They can be used as a teaching aid that motivates students with something they own and know well. Cultural things can be two- way learning materials from L1 to L2 and from L2 to L1, primarily for exchanging knowledge and secondarily contributing to L2 acquisition.

The indirect effect of using music, particularly songs, and cultural art forms in teaching learning process is also meant for language revitalization for some ethnic tribes who are sometimes influenced by more important world language and the language of wider community at the cost of their own languages. Therefore, learning about other cultures can arouse one's own cultural identity and make ways to revitalize and improve one's own language and literacy as well.

2.14 Extensive Reading

Though not formally researched, the researcher has met some people who acknowledged that their habit of extensive reading outside classroom, for example, novel, short story, reader's digest, and guide posts, benefits them a lot in acquiring English. Scrivener (1994) states that in everyday life, people usually do more extensive reading, that is, fluent and faster reading, of longer texts for pleasure, entertainment and general understanding and without such careful attention to the details, and this extensive reading is different in nature from the intensive reading, usually engaged in classrooms, that is, reading texts closely and carefully with the intention of gaining an understanding of as much detail as possible. It is stated that there is a great deal of evidence that extensive reading has a powerful impact on language learning in that the more someone reads, the more they pick up items of vocabulary or grammar incidentally from the texts which improves their language skills and system gradually.

Extensive reading is more like the first language acquisition although the mode is the written form. Novels and short stories, of which the language is so natural and the plot or the sequences are complete in themselves are more interesting, motivating and appealing readers more than the classroom materials, and the extracts selected and provided for the learners. This maybe one reason that extensive reading usually in the form of literature enabled learners of English in the secondary and tertiary education levels in the past time in the researcher's country to be competent users of the language without much multi-media or modern teaching aids compared to learners of these days.

2.15 Critical Thinking

Alagozlu (2007) states that recent trends in the educational domain emphasize the importance of critical thinking skills that are necessary for academic success and for life. H.D. Brown (2004) cited by an unknown online writer states that in an ideal academic English program, the objectives of a curriculum are not limited to linguistic factors alone, but also include developing the art of critical thinking.

Chance (1986) cited by Alagozlu(2007) sees critical thinking as the ability to analyze facts, generate and organize ideas, defends opinions, make comparisons, draw inferences, evaluate arguments and solve problems. In essence, critical thinking is a disciplined manner of thought that a person uses to assess the validity of something. The main benefit of critical thinking is that it encourages active learning by teaching students *how* to think rather than *what* to think.

Brookfield (1986), contends that critical thinking is a process, including emotional as well as rational components and acknowledging the importance of culture and context. According to him, the common characteristics of critical thinking are: identifying and challenging assumptions; challenging the importance of context; trying to imagine and explore alternatives; and reflective skepticism. Reflective skepticism, stated by Brookfield, is the act of constantly questioning the status quo. The definition by Kurland (1995) sees critical thinking as a process based on reason, intellectual honesty, and open-mindedness.

Alagozlu, in his research article, "Critical Thinking and Voice in EFL Writing" reports an investigation on the Turkish EFL students whether they display elements of

critical thinking and voice, and whether these students think they possess them or not. The 76 essays of sophomore undergraduate students in a literature class in an ELT Department were analyzed in terms of the element of critical thinking and voice. A set of literary works studied during the term in An Introduction to English Language Literature course served as the prompts for essays. Moreover, a questionnaire was administered to them to probe their perception as to whether they show critical thinking and individual voice. Data collection through the questionnaire shows that almost all the respondents perceive that they display a high level of critical thinking. However, the researcher in conclusion gave comments that the results of the questionnaire are not in conformity with the phenomenon in the essays. Students hesitate to write their ideas explicitly in their essays although they state in their questionnaire that they desire to show their point of view freely. And therefore, the findings give more evidence to the existing problem that students lack critical thinking skill and that there is a need to train them in this cognitive skill. And his finding is similar to the findings from this research because the data collected from the teachers state that students need critical thinking, however, students' responses on difficulty with reading sub- skills show that they have not much difficulty in critical- thinking.

In an online article, Developing Critical Thinking through Cooperative Learning by Klimoviene et.al (2006), an investigation done in Lithuanian context is reported. They state that in Lithuania, learners are not encouraged to improve themselves as thinkers, and that emphasis is on information transmission. Young people at secondary schools are found to fail to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to meet the real life challenges and benefit from opportunities outside in the world. Those three teachers, through analysis of scientific literature, questionnaire, observation, statistical and comparative analysis,

investigate to reveal the significance of cooperative learning activities while developing critical thinking during Business English classes. Their research object is the process of teaching the Business English course at the level of bachelor studies. The research involved 90 second-year students of the faculty of Economics and Management who had Business English as compulsory subject and three English language instructors. The students had three hours a week and stayed together as groups for four months. In class as groups the students are taught essential cooperative strategies and are trained to apply them. Then the skills of critical thinking and the knowledge were evaluated on the basis of cooperative case-study tasks and written summaries. All the surveyed students felt that they met their expectations for critical thinking. The analysis of the data from preliminary assessment showed that only about one- third of the students displayed sufficient reasoning skills and could take charge of their own ideas, assumptions, inferences, and intellectual processes. The final presentations and summaries received significantly higher rating in comparison with the rating of preliminary assessment. Their research revealed the relationship between cooperative learning and critical thinking.

Therefore, the above two researches reveal that students lack or do not have critical thinking skills as many researchers and scholars have stated and that cooperative learning as group works could be applied and integrated to improve creative and critical thinking skills.

2.16 Cultural Learning

Scrivener (1994) acknowledges that there is more to English language teaching or learning than simply the language itself and one of them is the culture of the countries

whose language learners are studying. Culture is defined by Richards and Schmidt (2002) as:

> The set of practices, codes and values that mark a particular nation or group:
> the sum of a nation or group's most highly thought of works of literature,
> art, music, etc. A difference is often made between "High" culture of literature and the arts,
> and small "c" culture of attitudes, values, beliefs and everyday lifestyles...
> The cultural dimension of language learning is an important dimension of
> second language studies.

The definition of culture according to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (7th Edition) covers the way of life, art, music, literature, beliefs and attitudes of a particular country or group.

Moran (2001) states that language and culture are clearly fused and one reflects the other. He also claims that culture is the topic and language is the means to comprehend, analyze, and respond to it in the language of the classroom. He also describes six outcomes of learning culture: culture-specific understanding, culture-general understanding, competence, adaptation, social change and identity. He further clarifies the emphasis and examples of these outcomes. The emphasis of cultural-specific understanding, is on intellectual insight and empathy regarding a specific culture such as history, literature, the arts, area studies , products, practices, perspectives, communities, and persons. The emphasis of culture- general understanding is on insight into general concepts of culture and culture learning, of which examples are analysis of critical incidents, value clarification exercises, and cultural simulations. The example outcomes of competence are language proficiency, communicative competence, cultural and intercultural competences. The next outcome is adaptation to a specific culture, such as integration, assimilation and

acculturation. Social change is also the next outcome which results in critical thinking and action regarding the target culture such as social, cultural exchange. The last outcome is identity which emphasizes transformations in the learner's self-concept, such as a second language self, bilingualism or multiculturalism.

Furthermore, Claire Kramsch (1993) as cited by Moran sees the central learning outcome in language and culture learning is reaching a third place, a psychological space that learners construct for themselves, neither of their first language or culture nor of the second one they are learning. Thus, the advantage of recognizing and appreciating different cultures and their unique inner values, and at the same time valuing one's own culture should be cultivated through learning about cultures at least included in the curriculum.

2. 17 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, theories and principles relating to the syllabus design are researched and compiled. It reveals that both linguistic and non linguistic content are unique and essential in teaching learning process, and therefore, they are to be considered in designing a syllabus.