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- **Chapter One: Professional Competency**

- **Educational Content:** (concepts and key words)

Language acquisition, language learning, behavioristic theory, Cognitive – code learning theory, factors affecting second language learning and acquisition (amount of exposure, attitude, motivation, aptitude) methods of teaching (grammar-translation method, audio-lingual method, communicative approach, comprehension approach), contrastive and error analysis, tests (proficiency test, achievement test, diagnostic test, formative assessment, summative assessment)

- **Duration: 2 hours**

- **Activities (3 hours)**

Activities	Techniques and strategies	Duration
(Activity 1) <i>Techniques of teaching vocabulary</i>	Group work Discussion Reporting PowerPoint	30 minutes
(Activity 2) <i>Techniques of teaching reading</i>	Micro teaching reporting	30 minutes
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Chapter Two: Linguistic Competency

- **Educational Content:** (concepts and key words)

Competency in (listening, speaking, reading, and writing, translation)

- **Duration: 2 hours**

- **Activities (3 hours)**

<i>Activities</i>	<i>Techniques and strategies</i>	<i>Duration</i>
<i>(Activity 1)</i> <i>Familiarity with language functions</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	30 minutes
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Chapter Three : Communicative Competence

- **Educational Content:** (concepts and key words)

Communicative competence, Language variation

- **Duration:** 2 hours

- **Activities (3 hours)**

<i>Activities</i>	<i>Techniques and strategies</i>	<i>Duration</i>
<i>(Activity 1)</i> <i>Text type and genres</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	30 minutes
<i>(Activity 2)</i> <i>Examples of text type and genres</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	1 hour
<i>(Activity 3)</i> <i>Basic structure of speech</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	30 minutes
(Activity 4) Writing an essay following basic structure of speech	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	1 hour

Chapter Four : Culture of the Target Language

- **Educational Content:** (concepts and key words)
Culture of the target language, knowledge of English literature and cultural history,
- **Duration: 2 hours**
- **Activities (3 hours)**

<i>Activities</i>	<i>Techniques and strategies</i>	<i>Duration</i>
<i>(Activity 1)</i> <i>Definition and types of conventions</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	1 hour
<i>(Activity 2)</i> <i>Examples of social conventions</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	1 hour
<i>(Activity 3)</i> Importance of English language	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	1 hour

Training Strategies

- **workshop:**

Workshop is a training class or seminar in which the participants work individually and/or in groups to solve actual work related tasks to gain hands-on experience.

- **lecture**

A **lecture** is an oral presentation intended to present information or teach people about a particular subject, for example by a university or college teacher. Lectures are used to convey critical information, history, background, theories and equations

The theoretical aspects of the training workshop are handled through lectures where the trainers present their arguments concerning the concepts to be dealt with. Later they hold open discussions with the trainees about the main points of the topic.

- **Discussion:**

Trainees in groups are given the opportunity to express their opinions and arguments, and exchange their ideas on topics of concern. These discussions can be implemented during workshops and lectures.

Training Outcomes

Trainees are expected to:

- 1- Demonstrate their understanding of
 - a. theories of language acquisition and learning .
 - b. language teaching methods
 - c. contrastive and error analysis
 - d. main types of English language tests.
- 2- Implement appropriate techniques in teaching language elements and skills.
3. Plan for language teaching lessons
- 4- Recognize different learners' learning styles.
- 5- Be familiar with techniques of testing.
- 6- Recognize types of educational media in language teaching.
- 7- Demonstrate their competency in
 - a. language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation)
 - b. language functions and notions
 - c. language components
- 8- Demonstrate their understanding of communicative competence.
- 9- Demonstrate their understanding of the target language culture

Scientific Content:

- **Chapter One:** Professional Competency

- **Educational Content:**

Language acquisition, language learning, behavioristic theory, Cognitive – code learning theory, factors affecting second language learning and acquisition (amount of exposure, attitude, motivation, aptitude) methods of teaching (grammar-translation method, audio-lingual method, communicative approach, comprehension approach), contrastive and error analysis, tests (proficiency test, achievement test, diagnostic test, formative assessment, summative assessment)

Language acquisition

Language acquisition is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive, produce and use words to understand and communicate. Language acquisition usually refers to **first language acquisition**, which studies infants' acquisition of their native language, rather than *second language acquisition* that deals with acquisition (in both children and adults) of additional languages.

Language learning

"...learning a language is a process of acquiring conscious control of the phonological, grammatical, and lexical patterns of the second language, largely through study and analysis of these patterns as a body of knowledge." (Carroll, 1966, p. 102)

Behavioristic theory

Behaviorism is a learning theory that only focuses on objectively observable behaviors and discounts any independent activities of the mind. Behavior theorists define learning as nothing more than the acquisition of new behavior based on environmental conditions.

Discussion

Experiments by behaviorists identify **conditioning** as a universal learning process. There are two different types of conditioning, each yielding a different behavioral pattern:

1. **Classic conditioning** occurs when a natural reflex responds to a stimulus. We are biologically “wired” so that a certain stimulus will produce a specific response. One of the more common examples of classical conditioning in the educational environment is in situations where students exhibit irrational fears and anxieties like fear of failure, fear of public speaking and general school phobia.
2. **Behavioral or operant conditioning** occurs when a response to a stimulus is reinforced. Basically, operant conditioning is a simple feedback system: If a reward or reinforcement follows the response to a stimulus, then the response becomes more probable in the future. For example, leading behaviorist B.F. Skinner used reinforcement techniques to teach pigeons to dance and bowl a ball in a mini-alley.

Cognitive – code learning theory

Cognitive code-learning theory also known as (The cognitive approach) was a foreign language teaching method based on based on gestalt psychology (learning should be holistic; learning becomes easier when one treats the target as part of a structure or system and understands how it is related to the rest of the system) and transformational grammar (language is rule-governed and creative; these are related

because you can use a language creatively only when are familiar with the rules of that language).

Cognitive code-learning theory was intended as an alternative to the audio-lingual method that emphasizes habit formation as process of language learning. Because of its emphasis on studying a foreign language as a system of rules and knowledge, rather than learning it as a set of skills, the cognitive approach is sometimes considered the modern version of the grammar-translation method.

The cognitive approach considers the conscious study of language rules as central to the learning of a foreign language. One of its most important concepts is meaningful practice. Practice is considered meaningful when the learner understands the rules involved in practice. Thus, conscious study of grammatical rules is not only allowed, but also considered central to language learning. The teaching of grammar is deductive in this approach. The learner is encouraged and helped to first have a clear understanding of a grammatical rule before they practice and use the rule in meaningful contexts. It represents a sharp contrast to the audio-lingual method which relies on pattern drills as a means of teaching syntax, without explicit explanation of grammatical rules.

The cognitive approach is essentially a theoretical proposal. It did not lead to the development of any teaching method as far as classroom procedures and activities are concerned.

Factors affecting second language learning and acquisition

MOTIVATION

A person's motivation behind learning a second language (L2) and the views he holds regarding the L2-speaking community both come into play in speed of SLA and degree of proficiency achieved. Motivation is differentiated along a continuum--integrative at one end and instrumental at the other. ***Integrative motivation is seen in language learners whose desire to learn is rooted in wanting to become part of the L2-speaking community, wants more contact with it, or is genuinely interested in it.*** On the other end of the spectrum is instrumental motivation. A student who sees language as a means to obtaining some reward (good grades, employment, a diploma or for mere appreciation) would reflect instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation is more helpful in SLA and proficiency because there is more desire for

interaction with the community and the language that helps acquisition. Those students with mainly instrumental motivation are less likely to seek out situations where their language skills will be needed and will be improved, like social occasions in the L2 community, readings in the L2, or friends in the L2 community.

Also, students with low views of the L2 community are likely to not see benefits in learning the language. If a language community is associated with poverty, crime or other negative characteristics, there is less motivation for students to be associated with that community.

Language attitudes

Language attitudes in the learner, the peer group, the school, the neighborhood, and society at large can have an enormous effect on the second language learning process, both positive and negative. It is vital that teachers and students examine and understand these attitudes. In particular, they need to understand that learning a second language does not mean giving up one's first language or dialect. Rather, it involves adding a new language or dialect to one's repertoire.

This is true even for students engaged in formal study of their first language. For example, students in Spanish for native speakers classes may feel bad when teachers tell them that the ways they speak Spanish are not right. Clearly, this is an issue of dialect difference. School (in this case, classroom Spanish) requires formal registers and standard dialects, while conversation with friends and relatives may call for informal registers and nonstandard dialects. If their ways of talking outside of school are valued when used in appropriate contexts, students are more likely to be open to learning a new language or dialect, knowing that the new discourses will expand their communicative repertoires rather than displace their familiar ways of communicating.

Aptitude

An **aptitude** is an innate, acquired or learned or developed component of a competency (*the others being knowledge, understanding and attitude*) to do a certain kind of work at a certain level. Aptitudes may be physical or mental. The innate nature of aptitude is in contrast to achievement, which represents knowledge or ability that is gained.

Environment

The environment in which these opportunities take place also affects SLA. An environment which encourages the greatest amount of use of the language is beneficial. Dulay and Burt proposed that people use an 'affective filter' that "regulates how much input is received by a language processing mechanism". If the affective filter is over-used, a person tries to compose grammatically perfect sentences every time he speaks, and if it is underused he speaks without regard to the 'rules' he is aware of. The optimal user of the affective filter speaks naturally and often and eventually incorporates more rules into her speech. In this way, the brain is provided with more experience and input while also progressing toward more fluent speech.

Personality

Personality can also affect SLA. In combination with environment it can act to inhibit learners or to encourage increased opportunity. Introversion has the greatest chance of negatively affecting SLA. Students that are afraid of embarrassing themselves by speaking incorrectly or by not being able to speak at all may try to avoid opportunities that would otherwise aid their learning. If teachers correct mistakes and further embarrass shy students, it may isolate students even more. Instead, repeating back the corrected statement allows feedback without a damaging student's ego. For example, if Marcia says "Yesterday I go to the store with my Madre," the teacher would respond, "You went to the store with your mother yesterday?" She has effectively provided corrected input while also continuing the conversation. If a student shuts down after an outright correction then opportunity for more input and practice has been lost.

All of these external and internal characteristics affect the way in which language is acquired by the brain. Increased input, lowered anxiety, strong integrative motivation and positive environments can help processes of language acquisition progress. It is an interesting overlap between the physical processes of the brain and the more mental processes of the mind. While language acquisition is ultimately completed and stored in the brain, emotional and environmental factors greatly affect the process by which

it is acquired. Because these factors and many others all interact in the acquisition of language, it is incredibly difficult to research the effect of one specific aspect. Many studies have ignored this fact and have tried to attribute too much weight to one factor, while others have undoubtedly affected the outcomes. Since single factors and how they affect acquisition cannot be completely isolated, research should be concentrated on the outcomes of certain teaching techniques. They will not be universally applicable, but will help to eliminate less effective or damaging techniques. This area of teaching will be increasingly important as our world continues to become more bilingual and multilingual.

Methods of teaching

Grammar-translation method,

The **grammar translation** method is a foreign language teaching method derived from the classical (sometimes called traditional) method of teaching Greek and Latin. The method requires students to translate whole texts word for word and memorize numerous grammatical rules and exceptions as well as enormous vocabulary lists. The goal of this method is to be able to read and translate literary masterpieces and classics.

The Grammar Translation Method - Key Features

According to Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979:3), the key features of the Grammar Translation Method are as follows:

- (1) Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
- (2) Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.
- (3) Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.
- (4) Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.

- (5) Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.
- (6) Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.
- (7) Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
- (8) Little or no attention is given to pronunciation

Audio-lingual method

The **Audio-lingual Method** is a method for teaching foreign languages. Linguists at the University of Michigan invented this method in the late 1950s. In the Audio-lingual method, students first hear a language. Later, they speak the language, and after that, they read and write in it

This method of Language Learning is also called the **Aural-Oral Method**. This method is said *to result in rapid acquisition of speaking and listening skills*. The audio-lingual method drills students in the use of grammatical sentence patterns. When this method was developed it was thought that the way to acquire the sentence patterns of the second language was through conditioning or helping learners to respond correctly to stimuli through shaping and reinforcement.

The Audio-lingual Method is based on the following principles:

- Speaking and listening competence preceded reading and writing competence.
- Use of German is highly discouraged in the classroom.
- The development of language skills is a matter of habit formulation.
- Students practice particular patterns of language through structured dialogue and drill until response is automatic.
- Structured patterns in language are taught using repetitive drills.
- The emphasis is on having students produce error free utterances.
- This method of language learning supports kinesthetic learning styles.
- Only everyday vocabulary and sentences are taught. Concrete vocabulary is taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures. Abstract vocabulary is taught through association of ideas.
- The printed word must be kept away from the second language learner as long as possible.

Communicative approach

In 1960's and 70's foreign language learning was widely extended with the establishment of comprehensive schools. Led to the teaching of a foreign language to virtually all children. Created pressure for a change in teaching methods and curricula to suit the needs of non-traditional groups of learners.

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is an approach to the teaching of second and foreign languages that emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. It is also referred to as “communicative approach to the teaching of foreign languages” or simply the “communicative approach”.

The teacher becomes a facilitator. Collaborative learning and peer interaction is important. Students and teacher select and organize curriculum contents.

Communicative approach

1. Focuses on language as a medium of communication.
2. Communication embraces a whole spectrum of functions (e.g. seeking information/ apologizing/ expressing likes and dislikes, etc) and notions (E.g. apologizing for being late / asking where the nearest post office is).
3. New syllabuses based on communicative method offered some communicative ability from early stage.
4. Classroom activities maximize opportunities for learners to use target language in a communicative way for meaningful activities. Emphasis on meaning (messages they are creating or task they are completing) rather than form (correctness of language and language structure) - as in first language acquisition.
5. Communicative approach is much more pupil-orientated, because dictated by pupils' needs and interests.
6. More emphasis on active modes of learning, including pairwork and group-work .
7. Errors are a natural part of learning language.
8. Constant correction is unnecessary and even counter-productive. Correction should be discreet / noted by teacher - let them talk and express themselves - form of language becomes secondary.

9. Communicative approach is not just limited to oral skills. Reading and writing skills need to be developed to promote pupils' confidence in all four skill areas.
10. Communicative approach seeks to use authentic resources. More interesting and motivating. In Foreign language classroom authentic texts serve as partial substitute for community of native speaker. Newspaper and magazine articles, poems, manuals, recipes, telephone directories, videos- all can be exploited in variety of ways.
11. Use of idiomatic/ everyday language (even slang words). This is kind of language used in communication between people - not a 'medium'/ grammatical/ exam-orientated/ formal language!

Comprehension approach

The **comprehension approach** is an umbrella term which refers to several methodologies of language learning that emphasize understanding of language rather than speaking. This is in contrast to the better-known *communicative approach*, under which learning is thought to emerge through language production, i.e. a focus on speech and writing.

The name **comprehension approach** comes from the title of a book edited by H. Winitz, *The comprehension approach to foreign language instruction*, published in 1981. It is not as much as a clearly defined method. Instead, it can be best regarded as a pedagogical principle, which can be found in a number of methods and in practice. This principle contains the following elements (according to Richards, Platt, and Weber, 1985)

- a. before learners are taught speaking, there should be a period of training in listening
- b. comprehension should be taught by teaching learners to understand meaning in the target language;
- c. the learners' level of comprehension should always exceed their ability to produce language.
- d. productive language skills will emerge more naturally when learners have well developed comprehension skills.
- e. such an approach reflects how children learn their first language.

Contrastive and error analysis,

In language teaching, *error analysis* studies the types and causes of language errors. Errors are classified [3] according to:

- modality (i.e., level of proficiency in speaking, writing, reading, listening)
- linguistic levels (i.e., pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, style)
- form (e.g., omission, insertion, substitution)
- type (systematic errors/errors in competence vs. occasional errors/errors in performance)

- cause (e.g., interference, interlanguage)
- norm vs. system

Contrastive Analysis was used extensively in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in the 1960s and early 1970s, as a method of explaining why some features of a Target Language were more difficult to acquire than others

Tests

Proficiency test:

Proficiency Tests look to the future situation of language use without necessarily any reference to the process of teaching. In these tests, performance is measured in relation to a targeted level known as the criterion.

Achievement test:

Achievement Tests are associated with the process of instruction and should support the teaching to which they relate by measuring what students (would) have learned as a result of teaching.

E.g.

- end of course tests
- portfolio assessments
- observation procedures for recording & assessing classroom work/participation

Achievement tests may be self-enclosed i.e. may not bear any direct relationship to language use in the real world

E.g. focus on knowledge of particular areas of grammar/vocabulary

However, if the curriculum is designed to reflect language use in the real world, achievement tests will automatically reflect normal language use and can be designed in innovative ways to reflect progressive aspects of the curriculum.

That is why achievement tests are associated with the most interesting development in language assessment

Diagnostic test:

Diagnostic test: A test to diagnose or discover what language students know and what they need to develop to improve their language abilities; may be used before a course of study and combined with placement test.

Defining Formative and Summative Assessments

While many educators are highly focused on state tests, it is important to consider that over the course of a year, teachers can build in many opportunities to assess how students are learning and then use this information to make beneficial changes in instruction. This diagnostic use of assessment to provide feedback to teachers and students over the course of instruction is called **formative assessment**. It stands in contrast to summative assessment, which generally takes place after a period of

instruction and requires making a judgment about the learning that has occurred (e.g., by grading or scoring a test or paper). This article addresses the benefits of formative assessment and provides examples and resources to support its implementation.

Purpose and Benefits of Formative Assessment

Black and Wiliam (1998b) define assessment broadly to include all activities that teachers and students undertake to get information that can be used diagnostically to alter teaching and learning. Under this definition, assessment encompasses teacher observation, classroom discussion, and analysis of student work, including homework and tests. Assessments become formative when the information is used to adapt teaching and learning to meet student needs.

When teachers know how students are progressing and where they are having trouble, they can use this information to make necessary instructional adjustments, such as reteaching, trying alternative instructional approaches, or offering more opportunities for practice. These activities can lead to improved student success.

Black and Wiliam (1998a) conducted an extensive research review of 250 journal articles and book chapters winnowed from a much larger pool to determine whether formative assessment raises academic standards in the classroom. They concluded that efforts to strengthen formative assessment produce significant learning gains as measured by comparing the average improvements in the test scores of the students involved in the innovation with the range of scores found for typical groups of students on the same tests. Effect sizes ranged between .4 and .7, with formative assessment apparently helping low-achieving students, including students with learning disabilities, even more than it helped other students (Black and Wiliam, 1998b).

Feedback given as part of formative assessment helps learners become aware of any gaps that exist between their desired goal and their current knowledge, understanding, or skill and guides them through actions necessary to obtain the goal (Ramaprasad, 1983; Sadler, 1989). The most helpful type of feedback on tests and homework provides specific comments about errors and specific suggestions for improvement and encourages students to focus their attention thoughtfully on the task rather than on simply getting the right answer (Bangert-Drowns, Kulick, & Morgan, 1991; Elawar & Corno, 1985). This type of feedback may be particularly helpful to lower achieving students because it emphasizes that students can improve as a result of effort rather than be doomed to low achievement due to some presumed lack of innate ability. Formative assessment helps support the expectation that all children can learn to high

levels and counteracts the cycle in which students attribute poor performance to lack of ability and therefore become discouraged and unwilling to invest in further learning (Ames, 1992; Vispoel & Austin, 1995).

While feedback generally originates from a teacher, learners can also play an important role in formative assessment through self-evaluation. Two experimental research studies have shown that students who understand the learning objectives and assessment criteria and have opportunities to reflect on their work show greater improvement than those who do not (Fontana & Fernandes, 1994; Frederikson & White, 1997). Students with learning disabilities who are taught to use self-monitoring strategies related to their understanding of reading and writing tasks also show performance gains (McCurdy & Shapiro, 1992; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992).

Examples of Formative Assessment

Since the goal of formative assessment is to gain an understanding of what students know (and don't know) in order to make responsive changes in teaching and learning, techniques such as teacher observation and classroom discussion have an important place alongside analysis of tests and homework.

Black and Wiliam (1998b) encourage teachers to use questioning and classroom discussion as an opportunity to increase their students' knowledge and improve understanding. They caution, however, that teachers need to make sure to ask thoughtful, reflective questions rather than simple, factual ones and then give students adequate time to respond. In order to involve everyone, they suggest strategies such as the following:

- Invite students to discuss their thinking about a question or topic in pairs or small groups, then ask a representative to share the thinking with the larger group
- Present several possible answers to a question, then ask students to vote on them.
- Ask all students to write down an answer, then read a selected few out loud.
- Teachers might also assess students' understanding in the following ways:
- Have students write their understanding of vocabulary or concepts before and after instruction.
- Ask students to summarize the main ideas they've taken away from a lecture, discussion, or assigned reading.
- Have students complete a few problems or questions at the end of instruction and check answers.
- Interview students individually or in groups about their thinking as they solve problems.

In addition to these classroom techniques, tests and homework can be used formatively if teachers analyze where students are in their learning and provide specific, focused feedback regarding performance and ways to improve it. Black and Wiliam (1998b) make the following recommendations:

- Frequent short tests are better than infrequent long ones.
- New learning should be tested within about a week of first exposure.
- Be mindful of the quality of test items and work with other teachers and outside sources to collect good ones.

Summative assessment

Summative assessment is characterized as assessment of learning and is contrasted with formative assessment, which is assessment for learning.

It provides information on the product's efficacy (its ability to do what it was designed to do). For example, did the learners learn what they were supposed to learn after using the instructional module? In a sense, it does not bother to assess "how they did," but more importantly, by looking at how the learners performed, it provides information as to whether the product teaches what it is supposed to teach.

Many high school students use the words "summative" and "exam" interchangeably, especially the ones who just got into high school from middle school. This is in between acceptable and not acceptable, as the exam is part of the summative evaluation and the other portion being the summative assignment. The summative assignment and exam is all part of the summative evaluation, as the latter (summative evaluation) is treated as a whole and cumulative.

Summative Assessments are given periodically to determine at a particular point in time what students know and do not know. Many associate summative assessments only with standardized tests such as state assessments, but they are also used at and are an important part of district and classroom programs. Summative assessment at the district/classroom level is an accountability measure that is generally used as part of the grading process. Here are some examples of summative assessments:

- End-of-unit or chapter tests
- End-of-term or semester exams

The key is to think of summative assessment as a means to gauge, at a particular point in time, student learning relative to content standards. Although the information that is gleaned from this type of assessment is important, it can only help in evaluating certain aspects of the learning process. Because they are spread out and occur *after* instruction every few weeks, months, or once a year, summative assessments are tools to help evaluate the effectiveness school improvement goals or student placement in specific programs.

- **Duration: 2 hours**

- **Activities (3 hours)**

<i>Activities</i>	<i>Techniques and strategies</i>	<i>Duration</i>
(Activity 1) <i>Techniques of teaching vocabulary</i>	Group work Discussion Reporting PowerPoint	30 minutes
(Activity 2) <i>Techniques of teaching reading</i>	Micro teaching reporting	30 minutes
(Activity 3) <i>Planning for teaching</i>	Group work discussion	30 minutes
(Activity 4) <i>Learning styles</i>	Group work	30 minutes
(Activity 5) <i>Techniques of testing vocabulary and reading</i>	Group work PowerPoint presentation	30 minutes
(Activity 6) <i>Educational media in language teaching</i>	Group work PowerPoint presentation	30 minutes

Activity (1):

- **Name of the activity:** Techniques of teaching vocabulary
- **Outcomes:** Trainees are expected to be familiar with common techniques of teaching vocabulary
- **Content:** Trainees are divided into group and asked to suggest strategies of teaching vocabulary items.
- **Duration:** (30) minutes
- **Techniques:** Group work and discussion
- **Post implementation:** reporting / flipchart and PowerPoint presentation.

Activity (2):

- **Name of the activity:** Techniques of teaching reading
- **Outcomes:** Trainees are expected to be familiar with common techniques of teaching reading
- **Content:** Trainees are divided into groups and asked to suggest strategies of teaching reading
- **Duration:** (30minutes)
- **Techniques:** Micro teaching
- **Post implementation:** reporting

Activity (3):

- **Name of the activity:** Planning for teaching
- **Outcomes:** Trainees are expected to be able to plan for daily lessons and annual ones.
- **Content:** Trainees are divided into groups and asked to list the main components of a daily lesson and an annual one.
- **Duration:** (30) minutes
- **Techniques:** Group work and discussion
- **Post implementation :** reporting and PowerPoint presentation

Activity (4):

- **Name of the activity:** Learning styles
- **Outcomes:** Trainees are expected to recognize various

- learning styles
- **Content:** Trainees are divided into groups and asked to identify learners' learning styles
- **Duration:** (30) minutes
- **Techniques:** Group work and discussion
- **Post implementation:** reporting and PowerPoint presentation

Activity (5):

- **Name of the activity:** Techniques of testing vocabulary and reading
- **Outcomes:** Trainees are expected to be familiar with common techniques of testing :
 - a. Vocabulary
 - b. Reading
- **Content:** Trainees are divided into groups and asked to form tests for vocabulary and reading
- **Duration:** (30) minutes
- **Techniques:** Group work and discussion
- **Post implementation:** reporting and PowerPoint presentation

Activity (6):

- **Name of the activity:** Educational media in language teaching
- **Outcomes:** Trainees are expected to:
 - a. Realize the importance of using educational media in language teaching.
 - b. Identify types of educational media in language teaching
- **Content:** Trainees are divided into groups and asked to think of the benefits of educational media in language teaching and mentions various types of educational media.
- **Duration:** 30 minutes
- **Techniques:** Group work and discussion
- **Post implementation:** reporting and PowerPoint presentation

Chapter Two: Linguistic Competency

- Educational Content:

Competency in (listening, speaking, reading, and writing, translation) Competency (mistakenly popular known as Competence) is a standardized requirement for an individual to properly perform a specific job. It encompasses a combination of knowledge, skills and behavior utilized to improve performance. More generally, competency is the state or quality of being adequately or well qualified, having the ability to perform a specific role.

Listening and Speaking Basic Competencies

Level 1 Exit	ESL Listening Competencies	ESL Speaking Competencies
1.1	Respond to frequently used words, phrases, simple learned expressions and questions in familiar contexts related to personal information and the expression of immediate needs and wants.	Use words, phrases and simple learned expressions, and nonverbal behavior to express immediate needs and wants in a familiar context.
1.2	Follow simple one-step directions given orally or as indicated by appropriate gestures. (e.g. sit down, come in).	Ask and/or respond to common personal information questions using the names of letters, numbers and appropriate learned phrases, (e.g. telephone, SS#, date, time, money, address, What is your name? My name is...)
1.3	Identify the relationship between the consonants and their related sounds.	Pronounce most consonant sounds with difficulty in familiar words.

Level 2 Exit:	ESL Listening Competency Level 2	ESL Speaking Competency Level 2
2.1	Respond to very simple sentences and questions spoken slowly with repetition and containing familiar words, phrases and learned expressions related to needs, wants, likes/dislikes, and basic feelings.	Use phrases and simple sentences and non-verbal behavior (as appropriate) to express needs, wants, likes/dislikes, and basic feelings (sad, happy, etc.) to engage in some routine social conversations.
2.2	Respond to simple requests related to personal needs (e.g., Can I...?).	Make requests related to personal needs.
2.3	Differentiate between statements and questions based on grammatical structure and intonation patterns.	Ask for clarification using very simple language or gestures to communicate level of understanding.
2.4	Identify the sound/symbol relationship of consonant blends and short vowels in familiar words.	Use basic vocabulary (words, phrases, common expressions) to describe familiar objects and activities.
2.5	Pronounce consonants blends and short vowels with difficulty in familiar words alone and in routine phrases.	

Level 3 Exit:	ESL Listening Competency Level 3	ESL Speaking Competency Level 3
3.1	Demonstrate understanding of simple conversations containing learned phrases and simple sentences in a job (interview), life- skill or social situation.	State skills and interests clearly in a job (e.g. interview), life-skill or social situation.
3.2	Respond to some routine social phrases e.g (paper or plastic, have a good weekend. There you go.....etc	Make a personal excuse or request (e.g : call on sick, ask for time off, etc
3.3	Follow two or three-step directions and simple rules or regulations presented orally in a variety of familiar situations (e.g. school, work medical safety	Report the basic facts of an absence, injury accident or incident to the appropriate authorities.
3.4	Identify stressed and unstressed syllables in words, phrases and sentences that follow common intonation patterns	Respond appropriately to simple requests for more information or clarification.
3.5	Identify with difficulty some essential information in an observed conversation (e.g., telephone number, address, time, etc.)	Use basic vocabulary to describe a person, place or event.
3.6	Differentiate the appropriate use of formal and informal language including some high frequency reduced speech in simple familiar expressions (e.g. How's it going? versus How are you? gonna, wanna, etc.).	Initiate and maintain simple conversations using appropriate forms of address and register.
3.7	Identify the sound/symbol relationship of long vowels and diphthongs in familiar words.	Pronounce consonants, consonant blends and all vowel sounds with difficulty in routine words and phrases or expressions.

Level 4 Exit:	ESL Listening Competency Level 4	ESL Speaking Competency Level 4
4.1	Identify essential information on a familiar subject in an observed conversation in a variety of situations (work, medical, safety, social, etc.)	Request, confirm and clarify basic information in a variety of situations including telephone conversations on a familiar subject.
4.2	Respond to common requests for assistance or information and record important facts , directions, and appointments in person and on the phone.	Give reason or excuse for personal behavior or actions.
4.3	Identify essential information in rules and regulations.	State a personal opinion and make simple statements of agreement or disagreement.
4.4	Follow multi-step directions and respond to warnings.	Explain the steps in a process.
4.5	Differentiate between the use of formal and informal language including reduced speech and slang.	Provide accurate personal background and employment history in employment or social settings.
4.6	Respond to basic cultural nonverbal behaviors (e.g., cross arms, look at a watch, etc.)	Ask for and give directions using a map.
4.7	Distinguish among questions, statements and imperatives based on voice patterns (stress, pitch, rhythm, and intonation.	Demonstrate appropriate non-verbal language (eye contact and body movement) and conversational skills of showing comprehension, asking questions, interrupting, and encouraging others to participate in group interactions or paired situations.
4.8	Pronounce words and phrases in a manner usually understandable to the general public using appropriate stress, rhythm and intonation with some repetition.	

Level 5 Exit:	ESL Listening Competency Level 5	ESL Speaking Competency Level 5
5.1	Identify vital information in an announcement or a report(e.g. news, radio, medical,etc.	Summarize and clarify information orally from a single source.
5.2	Identify patterns of reduced speech and linked words (e.g oughta, hafta,etc.) in employment, social and classroom settings with short, but sustained and connected conversation.	Demonstrate the use of small talk when initiating conversations in a work-related or social setting
5.3	Extract meaning from commonly used phrasal verbs (e.g pick up, get in, get away with, etc) and frequently used idioms and slang (e.g out of the blue, give me a break, etc.) in employment, social and classroom settings with short, but sustained and connected conversation.	
5.4	Follow multi-step instructions presented in sustained discourse with some repetition.	Report an accident, injury or incident and elaborate by providing important details.
5.5	Respond to negative statements and tag endings and questions (e.g. isn't i, didn't you never-ever, either/neither, etc.)	t , Advocate and negotiate for self and others in a variety of situations.
5.6	Identify interpersonal messages given by nonverbal cues (e.g. distance for interpersonal space, pauses, facial expressions, etc.)	Explain information orally from simple graphs, diagrams or maps.
5.7	Infer emotional content of a spoken message (e.g. anger, compliment, condolence, or sarcasm) by using intonation, rhythm, and stress.	Demonstrate appropriate stress, rhythm and intonation patterns in pronunciation of words, phrases, statements and questions.

Level 6 Exit:	ESL Listening Competency Level 6	ESL Speaking Competency Level 6
6.1	Follow (attend to) and identify the gist of face-to-face conversations on a variety of everyday subjects spoken at normal speed and using common patterns of reduced speech, phrasal verbs, idioms and slang.	Summarize orally and clarify information received from a variety of sources.
6.2	Acknowledge conversational amenities (e.g. turn-taking, not interrupting, etc.)	Persuade someone to a particular point of view in order to negotiate options or resolve a conflict.
6.3	Analyze interpersonal non-verbal behavior.	Initiate, maintain and terminate conversations by the use of appropriate conversational techniques including pauses, interruptions and applying active listening strategies.
6.4	Identify accurate and applicable information and adjust listening strategies (use prior knowledge, listen for the gist, use organizational patterns and association, find listening clues) when appropriate in a variety of listening contexts (e.g. on the telephone, work meetings, lectures, etc.).	Use appropriate organizational pattern (e.g. chronological, topical, problem-solution, etc.) for intended audience to make an oral presentation on a chosen topic.
6.5	Apply critical thinking skills (recognize loaded language, distinguish fact from opinion, identify inferences, evaluate sources) to determine the usefulness, bias and/or accuracy of information presented orally.	Speak effectively by paying attention to pronunciation (including stress, rhythm and intonation), grammar and word choice appropriate to purpose and audience.
6.6	Extract meaning from complex grammar speech patterns using some extensive vocabulary (e.g. conditionals, subordinate clauses, compound-complex sentences, etc.) in a variety of contexts including work, community, or educational (academic, vocational, or job training).	

Competencies in writing

<i>Level One</i>	
<i>Competency 1</i>	The student will produce basic sentences and phrases on personal and/or general topics in order to develop writing fluency and vocabulary.
<i>Competency 2</i>	The student will write simple sentences appropriate to the level in Standard English focusing on grammatical form and word order.
<i>Competency 3</i>	The student will proofread and edit grammar, mechanics, and sentence structure appropriate to the level.
<i>Competency 4</i>	The student will use appropriate reference tools to edit writing.
<i>Level Two</i>	
<i>Competency 1</i>	The student will develop writing fluency and produce a series of related sentences on personal and/or general topics with an emphasis on logical thought.
<i>Competency 2</i>	The student will write simple and compound sentences in paragraph format appropriate to the level in Standard English focusing on accuracy and grammatical form and word order.
<i>Competency 3:</i>	The student will proofread and edit grammar, mechanics, and sentence structure appropriate to the level
<i>Competency 4:</i>	The student will use appropriate reference tools to edit writing.

Level Three

Competency 1:

The student will develop writing fluency and vocabulary, and produce basic, structured academic paragraphs on familiar topics.

Competency 2

The student will write basic, single paragraphs using simple, compound, and/or complex sentences (when appropriate) focusing on accuracy of grammatical form, organization, clarity and substance in Standard English appropriate to the level

Competency 3

The student will proofread and edit grammar, mechanics, and sentence structure appropriate to the level

Competency 4

The student will use appropriate reference tools to edit writing.

Competency 5

The student will use the basic functions of the computer as a word processing tool.

Competency 6

The student will execute other academic writing tasks such as: factual, short answer responses to test questions, brief outlines of text, basic definitions, and e-mail

Level Four

Competency 1:

The student will recognize and produce the types of academic paragraphs and basic essays that a writing task requires.

Competency 2:

The student will plan and develop paragraphs and essays using a variety of sentence and grammatical structures.

The paragraphs and essays will be written with clarity,

coherence, and substance in Standard English appropriate to the level.

Competency 3:

The student will proofread and edit written work for accuracy focusing on grammar, mechanics, and sentence structure, and for meaning, focusing on unity and coherence.

Competency 4:

The student will use the appropriate reference tools to edit writing.

Competency 5:

The student will continue development of computer word processing skills.

Competency 6:

The student will execute other academic writing tasks such as: essay responses to test questions, written responses to reading selections, summaries, written records of observations and experiences, and e-mail.

Reading Competencies

Guiding Principle:

The ability to read critically is developed as students process visual information and apply the information to real problems across the curriculum.

Definition:

The ability to read critically and thoughtfully.

Criteria

1. Information Acquisition

- Recognize the different purposes and types of writing (e.g., descriptive, persuasive, narrative, imaginative, technical)

2. Application

- Read newspapers and journals to track current events and issues.
- Extract main points from texts and presentations.
- Research topics using the web and other technologies.

Demonstrate comprehension of material by applying it to a written report, oral

- presentation, or group discussion.

3. Analysis

- Summarize or interpret an author's point of view in written or oral format

4. Synthesis

- Interpret material by connecting own experiences to what is read in written or oral format.

5. Communication

- Use logic, reasoning, content analysis, and interpretative skills when reading printed or published materials.
- Convey the essence of read material to others by paraphrasing or citing in written or oral format.

6. Evaluation

- Select texts that are credible and appropriate sources for written or oral case building.
- Identify common fallacies (e.g., fact, logic, and relationships) in presentations and written texts.

- Compare the value or relevance of information obtained from different sources.

Translation Competencies

Introduction

Translation is now becoming more than subject studied in the language education and linguistics; it has been interesting a big number of people to take it as their everyday income. Translation is not only taken by linguists or language learners, but also economics students, law students, and so forth. This rising of translation degree builds new aspects in translation and make translation becomes more than language transfer. Every discipline has its own characteristics and even its own words. Basic translation concept, changing a word from source language to target language, is seemed to be ineffective anymore; this means that translation activity becomes more complex, because it Implies disciplines sense rather than language sense. For the example the translation of economics textbook from Arabic to English, there will be a good number of terms that must be translated in its discipline sense, to keep the original meaning without adding or distorting it.

Here, translation should be percept as more than changing text from one language to other language(s), but also considering that translation is substituting text form (from lexical to discoursal rank) without changing meaning, without adding or distorting, without destroying the meaning. Here, the translator must have a sort of competencies to legalize the translator as qualified.

five competencies that a good translator must have will be elaborated. Mastering these competencies enables a translator to do translation as well as expected. These competencies are:

1. Language competence
2. textual competence
3. subject competence
4. cultural competence
5. transfer competence.

Language (or linguistic) competence

Language competence is the basic competence a translator must have. It departs from the definition of translation as has been mentioned with some considerations above. Without mastering languages, someone is disabled to translate a text from source language to target language. Jakobson (in Munday, 2001:5) categorizes the linguistic aspects of translation, and one of them is interlingual translation: an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language. Here, a translator at least must have competence in both source language and target language. The translator is demanded

to have a good understanding of language aspects of source language and target language.

The translator is not only demanded to master target language in one rank, but also every rank. As mentioned before that language ranks are lexical (word), to phrasal, clausal, sentence and discourse.

In translation studies, language is the main item must be discussed about. It is, because translation is about language, both verbal and non-verbal language. Here, theories regard to linguistics or language must be grown deeply on translator mind. Even translation theories must draw upon the general theory of language (Catford in Baker&Malmkjaer, 2001:120).

A translator should master language not from one aspect but whole aspect; it is because a text is a unit of meaning (Baker&Malmkjaer, 2001). Language master role in translation is not only to translate words or sentences, but also to know how the target language receiver says something that is different from source language user. By mastering language, especially sociolinguistic translation, the translator may have bigger chance to do it better than mastering grammar of target language.

Newmark (1988:39) suggests that all translations are based implicitly on a theory of language. The higher translator's duty beside to master language aspects is that to master language functions. Before we continue to discuss language functions, it should be realized that nothing in translation but the language itself. It is quite wrong to say that translation discussion is not always about language, because the term translation itself was understood in language boundary.

There are at least three major functions of language proposed by Buhler (in Newmark, 1988), they are: expressive, informative and vocative.

The core of the expressive function, as explained by Newmark, is the mind of the speaker, the writer, the originator of the utterance or text. Suppose that you are translating a text, the expressive function of language is the text-writer's mind, idea, feeling and intention. The language form used in the text will be expressive. You should realize that the core of the text is the writer. And it is essential that you, as translator, should be able to distinguish the personal components of the text: i.e. unusual ('infrequent') collocations; original metaphors; 'untranslatable' words, particularly adjectives of 'quality' that have to be translated one-to-two or three; unconventional syntax; neologisms; strange words (archaisms, dialect, odd technical terms), all these is often characterized as 'idiolect' or 'personal idiolect' (Newmark, 1988:40).

Based on the suggestion above, without mastering this function of language, or without language competence especially in this regard, a translator must deal with a big difficulty in translating expressive texts. Expressive text type will be discussed later on.

This is essential to understand if you are a translator of foreign languages. For example you are translating a text from a source language (that is not your native language) to a target language (which is also a foreign language). It does not mean that it is not important for you when translating a text of your native language to a foreign language you mastered; some of words or utterances may exist in your native sense but it may not exist in the target language such as minor clauses.

Still according to Newmark, the core of the informative function of language is external situation, the facts of a topic, reality outside language, including reported ideas or theories. For the purposes of translation, typical informative texts are concerned with any topic of knowledge and the format of informative text is often standard: a textbook, a technical report, an article in a newspaper or a periodical, a scientific paper, a thesis, minutes or agenda of a meeting (1988:40).

As mentioned to you that disciplines have their words. Let us say that a translator tries to translate a textbook of computer. Without mastering words used technically in computer field, the translator must deal with difficulty. i.e. in English the word 'string' means 'rope' or something similar. But in computer term, 'string' means 'word' or 'input in letter or wordy type'. If a translator does not have this competence, it is very possible to give wrong information to the target language receiver. The function of translator in this regard is to translate 'information' from source language to target language. However, some languages or disciplines may use 'different' word for similar thing; means that the word cannot be translated literally, thus the translator's role here is to maintain the information. Without ability or competence in this regard, it is impossible to do the translation of informative text as well as expected.

The last one is the vocative function of language. If the core of expressive function of language is the writer (not the translator), the core of informative function of language is the field of the language, here, the core of the vocative function of language is the readership, the addressee. For the purposes of translation, Newmark takes notices, instructions, publicity, propaganda, persuasive writing (request, cases, and theses) and possibly popular fiction, whose purpose is to sell the book or entertain the reader, as the typical vocative text (1988:41).

It is obvious that expressive function suggests to maintain writer or the text producer, informative function suggests to maintain information in the text (it is possible to treat text as independent entity) and vocative function suggests to consider the readership, or the possible reader's understanding. The 'reader' here is the target language receiver. Considering the reader is important, since the translator wishes the reader will be affected by the vocative text he or she is translating as well as expected. The lack of language competence in this regard may create an unintended product of translated text.

From the description above, it is clear that language competence is basic and essential to be mastered by a translator. The language competence covers the competence in language ranks (lexical to discursal) and language functions (expressive, informative and vocative). If we see deeper, it is found that it is not only linguistic features of the language plays important role, but also metalinguistic feature such as socio-culture aspect of language, psychological aspect of language, they also play important role. The role of the translator to master linguistic competence is to produce a communicative translated text; here linguistic competence is knowledge of language concerned comprising communicative competence and metalinguistic competence.

Textual Competence

Textual competence is knowledge of regularities and convention of texts, genres and text types. It is important to distinguish texts; this is closely related to how a text is translated. For instance, translating a narrative text is different from translating expository text, because the structures of those texts are different. Having competence to distinguish texts is very crucial for a translator.

However, working with text translation is not only about distinguishing texts, but also knowing the convention of those texts. For several foreign languages, similar expression may be written in different way, this phenomenon is really about social convention of the language users. A translator must be competent to look deeply how different is target language receiver utter or write certain expression which differs from source language user; failure on this regard may create misunderstanding on reading the translated text produced. Translating a letter is different from translating advertisement or invitation, translating a novel is different from translating a scientific paper. Word selection in translating texts based on the genre or the text type becomes very important for a translator.

In relationship with this, text as word and vice versa, it should be reminded that word is 'something' translated, of course because there is nothing else to translate (Newmark, 1988:73). Text, as well as word, has its own context which needs to be considered in translation. Some text must be translated faithfully, word for word, and some texts are enabled to translate freely. A pragmatic textbook is possible to be translated freely, as long as the translator is competent to keep the information in the text. It is different to translate mathematic textbook that is tightly and prescriptively stated, so the translation should be word for word.

The importance of having textual competence in translation also takes place in teaching translation. In line with this, Ressereccio et.al (2008) stated that text genre can be useful educational aid when it comes to planning and carrying out the teaching of specialized translation. Students who are studying translation must be introduced with text genres, which they can use as the instrument or even object to be translated. Working translation with text genre finally means giving emphasis on the text itself. The translator or students learning translation ought to be competent to recognize text

genre, learning certain text convention, and translate it without ‘destroying’ its convention to make it more communicative and not change its original genre. That is, Ressereccio (2008) mentioned that genre is conventionalized text form that has a specific function in the culture that it belongs to and which reflects a purpose that is intended by the sender and can be foreseen by the receiver.

Textual competence enables a translator to see how certain text genre functions in certain culture. If a translator does not have or is not qualified in this regard, it is possible that there will be dysfunction of translated text.

A translator is also the medium or interaction between the originator of source text and the receiver of the target text in different culture. To avoid the misunderstanding and the dysfunction of text is being translated the translator must be qualified of textual competence. Textual competence can help to establish the status of the participants and the degree of authority they each have, infer and create the purpose of interaction, recognize and establish the situationality of the source and target text, create and infer intentionality of the source texts, have a thorough understanding of the socio-linguistic context, acquire bicultural knowledge, and acquire thematic context Ressereccio (2008).

By seeing at the description above, the function of textual competence is to enable translator to keep the original genre of the text, to keep the function of the text, to avoid misunderstanding from the receiver on the text, to avoid the dysfunction of the text, and to create communicative situation from both the sender and the addressee interaction. The difference from the linguistic competence is that textual competence gives emphasis on the text type, genre and convention rather than the concept of language understood by the originator of the text and the receiver of the translated text.

Subject Competence

Subject specific or domain competence is knowledge or relevant subject, the area of expertise; for specialist translator, this amounts to a working knowledge of domain. As mentioned very early, that translate text is not only change the language form from one to other language(s). It needs such kind of expertise to acquire the characteristics of text; one of them is the discipline in which the text is taking place.

Each discipline has its own word choice that becomes one of the subject specific competences a translator must have. A good translator will remain the function of the text without changing it arbitrarily. Although free translation is allowed, it does not mean that a translator may translate a text without considering the domain in where the text is working.

Texts are various in certain domain. You will not translate a computer textbook as similar as automotive textbook, because if you do so, the text will dysfunction if not irrelevant. This is closely related to the textual competence mentioned before, that each discipline has certain words that treat different from a language (a domain) to

other. Working with domain competence in translating various or specific subject or domain or discipline text is not only about the cultural different, but the convention in which the text user or the receiver will read it also plays role. Here, Venuti (2004:173) mentioned that the various kind of text variety are partly not confined to one language or one culture but the habits of textualization, the patterns of language and structure often differ from one another to a considerable extent. Hence, the establishment of the text variety is of decisive importance for the translator, so that he may not endanger the functional equivalence of the target language text by naively adopting source language conventions. By naively ignoring the specific domain of the source text, the product or translated text will be dysfunctional.

Melby (2007) stated that subject matter can vary even when the audience, text type, and purpose are held constant. A translator in holding the audience (the target text receiver), text type (genre) and the purpose (text function) will also need to specify 'what kind of text being translated is'. Even the three entities (audience, genre and function) have been held constantly, the translator still find the subject is various. This subject competence will be demanded as well as the two competencies have been explained before.

Sometimes in translating some texts in certain discipline, the translator may deal with some untranslatable words that do not have substitute word in the target language (Bassnett, 2002:39). This kind of difficulty must be anticipated by having subject competence. The translator, besides having linguistic competence, is also demanded to know the subject of the text he or she is translating.

I have given an example of word 'string' in computer domain that has different meaning where the word is applied in other domain. This, in contrary with Bassnett, literally can be substituted, or has meaning in other domain. However, to keep the function of word, the word 'string' in computer domain cannot be translated.

Another example I can give here is the word of 'God' in Christ domain which is sometimes substituted with 'He' in Bible; this word 'He' as understood as the third-masculine singular cannot be translated naively by adopting the source domain to Moslem domain, although the object is similar; because God is neuter in Moslem domain.

Cultural Competence

Language is one of the culture elements, and nothing to be translated but language. As a culture element, language contains a good number of social conventions in using and understanding words and cultural identities. As well as text that is actually information, intention and ideas those are packaging in language itself. It (text) contains social conventions and cultural identity.

A translator must have cultural competence of both source language and target language (Kastberg, 2007). Some of the expressions in source language may have different way to express in target language, or even does not exist at all. By having

cultural competence, the translator may need not to look the substitution but enough to see the equivalence. Equivalence means the expression in target language which is fulfill the sense intended by the originator of text of source language.

However, although translator may use 'equivalence' to fulfill the sense of source language, there is ordinarily no full equivalence between code-units (Jakobson in Munday, 2001:36). Some words in source language may have their equivalence in target language but it does not guarantee to substitute the 'untranslatable' words in their nature. Some culture view some words or expression like proverbs in their convention cannot be equaled or at least no similar sense in other languages.

Therefore, when a translator does not have qualified cultural competence, the text produced will be weak in sense.

Some translators may focus on the text and some other translators may focus on the reader of the target text. Cultural competence in text-based translation is important in terms of translating some expressions that the equivalence or substitution word does not exist in the translator's native language. Thus, the translator can select some of the procedures of translation which allow making small changes on the text.

The procedures are packaged in a strategy which is known in translation studies as 'shifts'. The term shift itself means small linguistic changes occurring in translation of source text to target text (Munday, 2001:55). There are a good number of shifting procedures in translation studies. Shift can occur in language ranks (lexical, phrase, clause, sentence, and discourse). Shift is chosen as a way to do the translation in certain 'situation' to fill semantic gap.

However, it is quite impossible if the translator does not have enough knowledge regard to the source text culture. Some texts may be created for internal culture use only, when the text are translated into other language(s) which have different culture, it can be guessed if the text will be dysfunctional unless the translator does not have enough capability to acquire the culture where the text was created and used.

Without cultural competence, the translator needs to work harder to do shifting. One of the shifting procedures is 'borrowing'. Borrowing means to borrow words from source language to fill semantic gap (or sense gap) if there is no substitution word or equal expression in the target language. The purpose of the borrowing, besides to fill semantic and sense gap, is to emphasize the cultural color in the text.

Shifts are not only occurred in terms of linguistic feature in the text, but also, if I dare to add, ideas that may be unknown or inexperienced by other language user with their culture. For the example 'khitan (Indonesian)' in the Moslem culture which is unknown in English earlier. To translate this word, to make the sense up, the translator should use original word rather than change it 'circumcision'; 'khitan' in Moslem culture is not only cut a part of genital skin for medical purpose, but also a kind of obligation must be done. Here, the word circumcision which means make a circular

cut of the genital skin does not fulfill the sense. This is the example of how cultural competence is demanded to be had by a translator.

Transfer Competence

Transfer competence is an ability of transferring message from source text to target text communicatively. The word 'transfer' itself means to carry over or across.

According to Pym (1992) there are three relationships between transfer and translation, they are: (1) transferring of process which is "not-exist" to "exist" that is done by the translator based on the knowledge he have; (2) translating that is the process of message transformation from source to target text; and (3) translated text that is the text produced by the translation process.

For having transfer competence, the translator is demanded to have enough linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge, especially which is relevant with the text content is being translated. It seems like transfer competence will be assumed as the highest competence demanded for all translators in this world; translators are demanded to be able to transfer not only words, or grammatical and semantic aspects of language, but also mental images implied in the text, to make the produced text makes sense as well as hoped.

Transfer competence is heavily supported by four other competencies have been elaborated before. The transfer competence is needed mostly in the while-translation process rather than pre and post-translation. The translator may have to analyze the source text to attain the text type, the purpose and the function of the text before start to translate the text. Furthermore, the translator needs to consider for whom this text is translated to. In the process of consideration, the translator's competencies (linguistic, textual and subject) really work, if the translator has enough. In the translating process, the transfer competence is more demanded, again, with support by other competencies.

Transfer, finally becomes one of the translation procedures named transference. Newmark (1988:81) mentions that transference is the process of transferring a source language word to a target language text as a translation procedure. Until this time, I personally believe that transfer is the suitable term rather than translate, because people use word as their conventional creation (table is not a translation from meja, vice versa). People give everything name without considering what name given to the thing by other people with their linguistic convention. Therefore, in translating a text, it is actually transferring. A translator explains how certain language users say or express certain phenomenon.

As mentioned before, some words may be unknown or unfamiliar or not suitable or irrelevant from source language to target language. When the translator has to decide whether or not to transfer a word unfamiliar in the target language, which in principle should be a source language cultural word whose referent is peculiar to the source language culture then he usually complements it with transliteration. In principle, the

names of source language objects, inventions, devices, processes to be imported into the target language community should be creatively, preferably ‘authoritatively’ translated, if they are neologisms, although brand names have to be transferred (Newmark, 1988).

Considering those all, transfer competence is very crucial for a translator. Some words may have to be borrowed from source language to avoid misunderstanding, dysfunction, or even wasting time. Finally, those are the competencies the translator must have or at least to learn. Those competencies promise a successful translation, if a translator does not have enough competencies as explained, the translated text will be dysfunction or even it is better to do nothing than wasting time to translate a text.

- Duration: 2 hours

Activities (3 hours)

<i>Activities</i>	<i>Techniques and strategies</i>	<i>Duration</i>
(Activity 1) <i>Familiarity with language functions</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	30 minutes
(Activity 2) <i>Linking language functions with structures</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	1 hour
(Activity 3) <i>Familiarity with common notions</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	30 minutes
(Activity 4) <i>Building up short dialogues based on common notions</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	30 minutes
(Activity 5) <i>Competency in language components (grammatical structures)</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	30 minutes

Activity (1): Name of the activity: Familiarity with language functions

- Outcomes:
Trainees are expected to be familiar with language functions
- Content: trainees are divided into groups and asked to identify common language functions
- Duration: (30) minutes
- Techniques: Group work and discussion
- Post implementation: reporting and PowerPoint presentation.

Activity (2): Name of the activity: Linking language functions with structures

Outcomes:

- Trainees are expected to be match language functions with structures
Content: trainees are divided into groups and asked to
 - a- write a function for given structures
 - b- write structures for a given function
- Duration: (30) minutes
- Techniques: Group work and discussion
- Post implementation: reporting and PowerPoint presentation.

Activity (3): Name of the activity: Familiarity with common notions

Outcomes:

- Trainees are expected to recognize common notions
Content: trainees are divided into groups and asked to identify the most common notions in language teaching
- Duration: (30) minutes
 - Techniques: Group work and discussion
 - Post implementation: reporting and PowerPoint presentation.

Activity (4): Name of the activity: Building up short dialogues based on common notions

Outcomes:

- Trainees are expected to build up short dialogues based on common notions
Content: trainees are divided into groups and asked to write short dialogues based on given notions
- Duration: (30) minutes
 - Techniques: Group work and discussion
 - Post implementation: reporting and PowerPoint presentation.



Activity (5): Name of the activity: Competency in language components (grammatical structures)

Outcomes: Trainees are expected to recognize and use basic grammatical structures

Content: Trainees are divided into groups and asked to identify sentence modes, sentence types, clause types, phrase types and word formation. Then they are asked to use some of these structures in meaningful sentences.

- Duration: (30) minutes
- Techniques: Group work and discussion
- Post implementation: reporting and PowerPoint presentation.

Chapter Three : Communicative Competence

- **Educational Content:** (concepts and key words)

Communicative competence, Language variation

Communicative competence

Language teaching in the United States is based on the idea that the goal of language acquisition is communicative competence: the ability to use the language correctly and appropriately to accomplish communication goals. The desired outcome of the language learning process is the ability to communicate competently, *not* the ability to use the language exactly as a native speaker does.

Communicative competence is made up of four competence areas: linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic.

- *Linguistic competence* is knowing how to use the grammar, syntax, and vocabulary of a language. Linguistic competence asks: What words do I use? How do I put them into phrases and sentences?
- *Sociolinguistic competence* is knowing how to use and respond to language appropriately, given the setting, the topic, and the relationships among the people communicating. Sociolinguistic competence asks: Which words and phrases fit this setting and this topic? How can I express a specific attitude (courtesy, authority, friendliness, respect) when I need to? How do I know what attitude another person is expressing?
- *Discourse competence* is knowing how to interpret the larger context and how to construct longer stretches of language so that the parts make up a coherent whole. Discourse competence asks: How are words, phrases and sentences put together to create conversations, speeches, email messages, newspaper articles?
- *Strategic competence* is knowing how to recognize and repair communication breakdowns, how to work around gaps in one's knowledge of the language, and how to learn more about the language and in the context. Strategic competence asks: How do I know when I've misunderstood or when someone has misunderstood me? What do I say then? How can I express my ideas if I don't know the name of something or the right verb form to use?

In the early stages of language learning, instructors and students may want to keep in mind the goal of communicative efficiency: That learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. They should try

to avoid confusion in the message (due to faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary); to avoid offending communication partners (due to socially inappropriate style); and to use strategies for recognizing and managing communication breakdowns.

Language variation

Language use varies in many dimensions. Three major dimensions are the following:

1. Regional: dialect variation.
2. Social: sociolect or class dialect variation.
3. Functional: register or functional style variation.

The term `lect', a back-formation from `dialect', is sometimes used to cover the notion of language variant.

Language users move around in the `variety space' defined by these three dimensions, and the `territory' in variety space which is covered by a single user is known as his `idiolect'.

The movement of language users along the dimensions of regional and dialect variation is relatively restricted. Few speakers command more than a couple of dialects or languages. But, in contrast, the variation of language with different functional contexts of use is startlingly varied - formal and informal, public and private, written and spoken, professional and trade languages.

The dimension of functional variation is quite dominant, though speakers are often quite unaware of it, and respond more immediately to dialectal and sociolectal variation. Speakers tend to have a language, a dialect and a sociolect which is associated with the circumstances of their birth and upbringing. But switches in language and dialect or sociolect tend to correlate closely with switches in functional context, in addition to the basic indexical function of social classification.

At the level of languages, an instructive example is English in the late 20th century. English is used by a large community of native speakers in well-to-do Western societies, who accept that they fundamentally speak the same language, though different areas are associated with different dialects, and some of these dialects have become accepted as standard languages (south-eastern educated British; mid-West American; Canadian; Australian; South African. English is also used as a native language, and non-native standard language, in ex-colonies of the British empire. English is also used as a trade language by non-native speakers, in the form of

pidgin language and, in societies for which a pidgin has become a native language in the course of two or more generations, also *creole* languages.

Some of these characterisations of the varieties of English point to the notion of 'register', the variation of language with type of *use*, rather than with the origin-marking features *user*.

Duration: 2 hours

- Activities (3 hours)

<i>Activities</i>	<i>Techniques and strategies</i>	<i>Duration</i>
(Activity 1) <i>Text type and genres</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	30 minutes
(Activity 2) <i>Examples of text type and genres</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	1 hour
(Activity 3) <i>Basic structure of speech</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	30 minutes
(Activity 4) Writing an essay following basic structure of speech	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	1 hour

Activity (1): Name of the activity: Text type and genres

Outcomes:

Trainees are expected to be familiar with text types and genres

- Content: Trainees are divided into groups and asked to classify which items are text type and which ones are genres
- Duration: (30) minutes
- Techniques: Group work and discussion
- Post implementation: reporting and PowerPoint presentation.

Activity (2): Name of the activity: Examples of text type and genres

Outcomes:

Trainees are expected to classify texts according to types and genres

Content: Trainees are divided into groups and asked to read examples of texts and identify their type and genre

Duration: (1) hour

- Techniques: Group work and discussion
- Post implementation: reporting and PowerPoint presentation.

Activity (3): Name of the activity: Basic structure of speech

Outcomes:

Trainees are expected to identify basic structure of speech

Content: Trainees are divided into groups and asked to identify the components of the structure of speech

- Duration: (30) minutes
- Techniques: Group work and discussion
- Post implementation: reporting and PowerPoint presentation.

Activity (4): Name of the activity: Writing an essay following basic structure of speech

Outcomes:

Trainees are expected to write an essay following basic structure of speech

Content: Trainees are divided into groups and asked to write an essay following basic structure of speech

- Duration: (1) hour
- Techniques: Group work and discussion
- Post implementation: reporting and PowerPoint presentation.

Chapter Four: Culture of the Target Language

- **Educational Content:** (concepts and key words)

Culture of the target language, knowledge of English literature and cultural history

Culture of the Target Language

The National Center for Cultural Competence defines culture as an “integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communications, languages, practices, beliefs, values, customs, courtesies, rituals, manners of interacting and roles, relationships and expected behaviors of a racial, ethnic, religious or social group; and the ability to transmit the above to succeeding generations” (Goode, Sockalingam, Brown, & Jones, 2000). This means that language is not only part of how we define culture, it also reflects culture. Thus, the culture associated with a language cannot be learned in a few lessons about celebrations, folk songs, or costumes of the area in which the language is spoken. Culture is a much broader concept that is inherently tied to many of the linguistic concepts taught in second language classes.

Through initiatives such as the national standards for foreign language learning, language educators in the United States have made it a priority to incorporate the study of culture into their classroom curricula. Cultural knowledge is one of the five goal areas of the national standards:

Through the study of other languages, students gain a knowledge and understanding of the cultures that use that language; in fact, students cannot truly master the language until they have also mastered the cultural contexts in which the language occurs. (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1996, p. 27)

The Importance of Culture in Language Teaching

Linguists and anthropologists have long recognized that the forms and uses of a given language reflect the cultural values of the society in which the language is spoken. Linguistic competence alone is not enough for learners of a language to be competent in that language (Krasner, 1999). Language learners need to be aware, for example, of the culturally appropriate ways to address people, express gratitude, make requests, and agree or disagree with someone. They should know that behaviors and intonation patterns that are appropriate in their own speech community may be perceived differently by members of the target language speech community. They have to understand that, in order for communication to be successful, language use must be associated with other culturally appropriate behavior.

In many regards, culture is taught implicitly, imbedded in the linguistic forms that students are learning. To make students aware of the cultural features reflected in the language, teachers can make those cultural features an explicit topic of discussion in relation to the linguistic forms being studied. For example, when teaching subject pronouns and verbal inflections in French, a teacher could help students understand when in French it is appropriate to use an informal form of address (tu) rather than a formal form of address (vous)—a distinction that English does not have. An English as a second language teacher could help students understand socially appropriate communication, such as making requests that show respect; for example, “Hey you, come here” may be a linguistically correct request, but it is not a culturally appropriate way for a student to address a teacher. Students will master a language only when they learn both its linguistic and cultural norms.

Teaching Culture Without Preconceptions

Cultural information should be presented in a nonjudgmental fashion, in a way that does not place value or judgment on distinctions between the students’ native culture and the culture explored in the classroom. Kramsch (1993) describes the “third culture” of the language classroom—a neutral space that learners can create and use to explore and reflect on their own and the target culture and language.

Some teachers and researchers have found it effective to present students with objects or ideas that are specific to the culture of study but are unfamiliar to the students. The students are given clues or background information about the objects and ideas so that they can incorporate the new information into their own worldview. An example might be a cooking utensil. Students would be told that the object is somehow used for cooking, then they would either research or be informed about how the utensil is used. This could lead into related discussion about foods eaten in the target culture, the geography, growing seasons, and so forth. The students act as anthropologists, exploring and understanding the target culture in relation to their own. In this manner, students achieve a level of empathy, appreciating that the way people do things in their culture has its own coherence.

It is also important to help students understand that cultures are not monolithic. A variety of successful behaviors are possible for any type of interaction in any particular culture. Teachers must allow students to observe and explore cultural interactions from their own perspectives to enable them to find their own voices in the second language speech community.

Instructional Strategies for Teaching Language and Culture

Cultural activities and objectives should be carefully organized and incorporated into lesson plans to enrich and inform the teaching content. Some useful ideas for presenting culture in the classroom are described in this section.

Authentic Materials

Using authentic sources from the native speech community helps to engage students in authentic cultural experiences. Sources can include films, news broadcasts, and television shows; Web sites; and photographs, magazines, newspapers, restaurant menus, travel brochures, and other printed materials. Teachers can adapt their use of authentic materials to suit the age and language proficiency level of the students. For example, even beginning language students can watch and listen to video clips taken from a television show in the target language and focus on such cultural conventions as greetings. The teacher might supply students with a detailed translation or give them a chart, diagram, or outline to complete while they listen to a dialogue or watch a video. After the class has viewed the relevant segments, the teacher can engage the students in discussion of the cultural norms represented in the segments and what these norms might say about the values of the culture. Discussion topics might include nonverbal behaviors (e.g., the physical distance between speakers, gestures, eye contact, societal roles, and how people in different social roles relate to each other). Students might describe the behaviors they observe and discuss which of them are similar to their native culture and which are not and determine strategies for effective communication in the target language.

Proverbs

Discussion of common proverbs in the target language could focus on how the proverbs are different from or similar to proverbs in the students' native language and how differences might underscore historical and cultural background (Ciccarelli, 1996). Using proverbs as a way to explore culture also provides a way to analyze the stereotypes about and misperceptions of the culture, as well as a way for students to explore the values that are often represented in the proverbs of their native culture.

Role Play

In role plays, students can act out a miscommunication that is based on cultural differences. For example, after learning about ways of addressing different groups of people in the target culture, such as people of the same age and older people, students could role play a situation in which an inappropriate greeting is used. Other students observe the role play and try to identify the reason for the miscommunication. They then role play the same situation using a culturally appropriate form of address.

Culture Capsules

Students can be presented with objects (e.g., figurines, tools, jewelry, art) or images that originate from the target culture. The students are then responsible for finding information about the item in question, either by conducting research or by being given clues to investigate. They can either write a brief summary or make an oral presentation to the class about the cultural relevance of the item. Such activities can also serve as a foundation from which teachers can go on to discuss larger cultural, historical, and linguistic factors that tie in with the objects. Such contextualization is, in fact, important to the success of using culture capsules.

Students as Cultural Resources

U.S. schools are more culturally and ethnically diverse than they have ever been. Exchange students, immigrant students, or students who speak the target language at home can be invited to the classroom as expert sources. These students can share authentic insights into the home and cultural life of native speakers of the language.

Ethnographic Studies

An effective way for students to learn about the target language and culture is to send them into their own community to find information. Students can carry out ethnographic interviews with native speakers in the community, which they can record in notebooks or on audiotapes or videotapes. Discussion activities could include oral family histories, interviews with community professionals, and studies of social groups (Pino, 1997). It is important to note that activities involving the target-language community require a great deal of time on the part of the teacher to help set them up and to offer ongoing supervision.

Literature

Literary texts are often replete with cultural information and evoke memorable reactions for readers. Texts that are carefully selected for a given group of students and with specific goals in mind can be very helpful in allowing students to acquire insight into a culture. One study compared the level and quality of recollection when two different groups of students learned about Côte D'Ivoire (Scott & Huntington, 2000). One group studied a fact sheet and a second studied a poem about colonialism in Côte D'Ivoire. The researchers found that group that studied the fact sheet retained very little information about the Côte D'Ivoire culture, whereas the group that read the poem showed a capacity to empathize with the personal history of the Côte D'Ivoire people.

Film

Film and television segments offer students an opportunity to witness behaviors that are not obvious in texts. Film is often one of the more current and comprehensive ways to encapsulate the look, feel, and rhythm of a culture. Film also connects students with language and cultural issues simultaneously (Stephens, 2001), such as depicting conversational timing or turn-taking in conversation. At least one study showed that students achieved significant gains in overall cultural knowledge after watching videos from the target culture in the classroom (Herron, Cole, Corrie, & Dubreil, 1999).

Conclusion

The idea of teaching culture is nothing new to second language teachers. In many cases, teaching culture has meant focusing a few lessons on holidays, customary clothing, folk songs, and food. While these topics may be useful, without a broader context or frame they offer little in the way of enriching linguistic or social insight—especially if a goal of language instruction is to enable students to function effectively in another language and society. Understanding the cultural context of day-to-day conversational conventions such as greetings, farewells, forms of address, thanking, making requests, and giving or receiving compliments means more than just being able to produce grammatical sentences. It means knowing what is appropriate to say to whom, and in what situations, and it means understanding the beliefs and values represented by the various forms and usages of the language.

Culture must be fully incorporated as a vital component of language learning. Second language teachers should identify key cultural items in every aspect of the language that they teach. Students can be successful in speaking a second language only if cultural issues are an inherent part of the curriculum.

Knowledge of English literature and cultural history

1. Aims/Objectives of the Study of English Literature

The general objectives of teaching English Literature at the secondary level are as follows:

- "to develop the students' intellectual and emotional maturity through engagement with, and response to, literature.
- to increase students' personal cultural awareness, through the study of a range of texts drawn from different literary' traditions and periods.
- to increase the students' understanding of how English language functions, especially in its figurative mode, through such devices as simile, metaphor, personification, alliteration and onomatopoeia
- to develop a critical appreciation of the writers' craft, through close textual study and wide reading
- to extend students' knowledge of the major literary genres such as drama, poetry, novel, essays and short story
- to equip students with a vocabulary, and a simple conceptual framework, for discussing these genres, for example, lyric, sonnet, rhythm, rhyme and meter in poetry, tragedy, comedy, plot, character, soliloquy in prose or drama to develop an appreciation for, and an ability to produce, imaginative and creative Writing.
- to promote the use of library books to inculcate reading habits.
- to read to form ethical and social values and precepts (humanism, tolerance, patience, patriotism).

Cultural History

The term cultural history refers both to an academic discipline and to its subject matter.

Cultural history, as a discipline, at least in its common definition since the 1970s, often combines the approaches of *anthropology* and *history* to look at popular cultural traditions and cultural interpretations of historical experience. It examines the records and narrative descriptions of past knowledge, customs, and arts of a group of people. Its subject matter encompasses the continuum of events occurring in succession leading from the past to the present and even into the future pertaining to a culture.

Cultural history records and interprets past events involving human beings through the social, cultural, and political milieu of or relating to the arts and manners that a

group favors. Cultural history studies and interprets the record of human societies by denoting the various distinctive ways of living built up by a group of people under consideration. Cultural history involves the aggregate of past cultural activity, such as ceremony, class in practices, and the interaction with locales.

- **Duration: 2 hours**

Activities (3 hours)

<i>Activities</i>	<i>Techniques and strategies</i>	<i>Duration</i>
<i>(Activity 1)</i> <i>Definition and types of conventions</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	1 hour
<i>(Activity 2)</i> <i>Examples of social conventions</i>	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	1 hour
(Activity 3) Importance of English language	Group work Discussion reporting PowerPoint presentation	1 hour

Activity (1): Name of the activity: Definition and types of conventions

Outcomes:

Trainees are expected to define the term “convention” and list the most common types of conventions

Content: Trainees are divided into groups and asked to define the term “convention” and then list the main types of conventions

Duration: (1) hour

- Techniques: Group work and discussion
- Post implementation: reporting and PowerPoint presentation.

Activity (2): Name of the activity: Examples of social conventions

Outcomes:

Trainees are expected to be familiar with some examples of social conventions

Content: Trainees are divided into groups and asked to give examples of social conventions

Duration: (1) hour

- Techniques: Group work and discussion
- Post implementation: reporting and PowerPoint presentation.

Activity (3): Name of the activity: Importance of English language

Outcomes:

Trainees are expected to be aware of the importance of English language

Content: Trainees are divided into groups and asked to discuss the fields which make English important

Duration: (1) hour

- Techniques: Group work and discussion
- Post implementation: reporting and PowerPoint presentation.

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Suggested Reading

- “cultural studies in Foreign Language Education”, Michael Byram
- “Developing Second Language Skills”, Kenneth Chastain
- “How Languages are Learned”, Patsy M. Lightbown and Nina Spada.
- “ Testing for Language Teachers” , Arthur Hughes
- “Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching” H.H.Stern
- “Language Two”, Heidi Dulay, Marina Burt, Stephen Krashen
- “Language Teaching Methodology” David Nunan
- “An Introduction to Second Language Research”,
Diane Larsen-Freeman and Michael Long



Procedures of Implementation:

The learning package consists of four chapters. The allocated time for implementing them is 20 hours. Each chapter will be discussed within 5 hours: two hours for the theoretical domain, and three hours for the practical one. The theoretical part focuses on knowledge transmitted to the trainees through handouts discussed with them. Lecturing is a proposed strategy to deal with this domain. The practical domain is implemented through workshops where the trainees carry out activities in groups. In this way, they have the opportunity to discuss, argue, and report their conclusions.