7. Adult learners – teaching language skills

There are four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) which are traditionally divided into two categories, one being receptive skills (listening, reading) and the other productive skills (speaking and writing).

7.1. Teaching listening

In ELT, listening has a quite recent history. Earlier, it was treated as a part of teaching grammar and grammar explanations. When new grammar was presented, students listened to short and sometimes very contrived dialogues, which provided a context for the structure that was being introduced and practiced. Such skill-focused activities took the form of low-level word and phoneme recognition using dictation or ear training. It was not until the late 1960s that listening was fully recognized as a skill to be practiced in its own right. The development was supported by the increasing availability of tape and later cassette recordings. In this respect, L2 listening lagged behind L2 reading.[1]

Typically, a listening lesson conducted by an experienced teacher follows the following format:

Pre-listening: A brief (5 to 10 minute) introductory phase. Goals: to set the scene: to motivate the learners to listen: to turn learners' thinking toward the topic of the recording to be heard. It may sometimes also be necessary to pre-teach up to four or five critical words of vocabulary without which the recording cannot be understood.
Extensive listening: First playing of the recording, followed by general questions. (How many speakers? What are they talking about?) Goals: to enable learners to normalize (adjust) to the voices of the speakers and to orient themselves in terms of where in the recording different types of information is mentioned. Preset questions or task: Introduced ahead of the main listening phase to ensure that learners will listen in a focused way and to check that the questions/task have been fully understood.
Intensive listening: A second playing of the recording, this time to enable learners to obtain answers. The accuracy of the responses is then checked, with the teacher replaying relevant passages where comprehension levels appear to be low.
Language of the recording: One follow-up activity is for teachers to replay sentences containing unknown lexical items, asking learners to infer their meaning from context. A second is to replay extracts in order to draw attention to the functional language they contain (way of threatening, offering, refusing, inviting etc.)
Final play: Done with learners following a typescript, it enables learners to deconstruct any sections of the recording that they have found difficult. It also provides a long-term reminder of what was heard in the lesson.

---

[1] BURNS, A., RICHARDS, C. R.: Pedagogy and Practice in Second Language Teaching, Cambridge University Press 2012

Various purposes of listening situations

Listening situations happen in various communicative contexts and various types of surrounding. Richards, in his Key Issues in Language teaching (2015)[2] outlined some types of situations which he calls types of listening, the purpose of listening and the listener role as follows:

Type of listening	Purpose	Listener role
Casual conversations	- To exchange social and personal information	- Listen and respond
- Telephone conversations	- To exchange information - To take a message - To obtain goods and services	- Listen and respond - Listen for specific details - Listen and give specific details
- Lectures	- To expand knowledge - To learn about various topics	- Listen for main points and details - Listen and make inferences - Follow the development of a topic and take notes
- Class lessons	- To expand knowledge - To learn about various topics - To interact with others	- Listen for instructions - Listen for key content and main points - Listen and respond
- Movies, drama, songs	- To entertain and to gain pleasure	- Listen to follow plot - Listen to get gist of song - Listen to learn the words of the song
- Announcements	- To gain information - To act on information	- Listen for specific items - Listen to do something
- Instructions	- To carry out a task	- Listen or steps in task - Listen to do something

In ELT classes, the listening situations and listening activities are mostly adjusted to the students' level. However, in authentic situations, there is a number of challenges students are prepared for in the class. Among others, these features of spoken discourse may cause difficulties (suggested by Richards 2015)[3]

Speed

One of the most common observations second language learners make is that fluent speakers, particularly native speakers, seem to speak very fast. Speech rates used by fluent speakers, in fact, vary considerably. Radio monologues may contain 160 words per minute, while conversation can consist of up to 220 words per minute. However, the impression of faster or slower speech generally results from the amount of intra-clausal pausing that speakers make use of.

Many students may have had little exposure to authentic speech, if their exposure to English has been confined to the teacher's language (which is often carefully monitored or simplified) or to recordings accompanying their textbooks (which may make use of professional actors

---

[2] RICHARDS, J. C.: Key issues in Language teaching, Cambridge University Press 2015

[3] RICHARDS, J. C.: Key issues in Language teaching, Cambridge University Press 2015

reading carefully from prepared scripts), hence, when they encounter natural "unscripted" discourse, they may have difficulty following it. Several responses to this situation are possible that may be of help to students:

Play recordings of natural or fluent speech several times, and on first listening, stop the recording briefly at intervals to give students more processing time. On subsequent plays, make fewer stops. Gradually increase the length of texts you use in this way.

Give the students the text of a listening script but delete every second word. Read the text, or play a recording of it, and have students follow the text and try to identify the missing words.

The unplanned nature of spoken discourse

While the discourse which learners hear often reflects attention to comprehensibility (e.g. the prepared scripts often used in teaching materials), two-way spoken discourse is usually unplanned and often reflects the processes of construction, such as hesitations, reduced forms, fillers, false starts and repeats. Spoken texts, too, are often context-dependent and personal, often assuming shared background knowledge (Brown and Yule, 1983, Lynch 2009, Richards 2015, 374)

Example:

> **Jenny:** *And then she had…I can't think what else, I know…eye shadow and the whole bit and then she had this old stick with a star on it. Um, and she had this stick thing…this stick thing that had a star on it, and then she had a cape around her shoulder or something and went "poof" or something to people and then started …laughing*
> **Brenda:** *Yeah, here's something. You'd just go and break off a tree and stick a star on it.*
> **Judy:** *Reminds me of my mum with a Christmas tree every year. We've got pine trees along the back fence. Mum get up the Barbie or whatever she can stand on, she just yanks off a branch and there's the tree.*

Some of the features of this exchange can be classified as follows:

Grammar	
- Chaining, rather than subordination - Ellipsis (omission) - Unfinished utterances, false starters.	- And then…and then…and she had… - (That/it) reminds me of… - And then she had…I can't think what else
Vocabulary	
- General words rather than specific terms - Idioms - Colloquialisms - Fillers - Fixed expressions - Vague language	- This stick thing - The whole but - Barbie - Um - Here's something - Her shoulder or something
Information	
- Looser information structure	- And then she had…I can't think what else, I know…eye shadow and the whole bit and then she had this old stick with a star on it. Um, and she had this stick thing…this stick thing that had a star on it.

Accent

Learners of English will typically encounter many different English accents including those of their teachers and other learners, as well as other speakers of English they hear – either in face-to-face contexts or through technology and the media. Some unfamiliar accents may initially make comprehension difficult. The below instructions may help students cope with different accents:

Comparing speakers: Students listen to a recording containing speakers with different accents, and students listen to identify any distinctive features of the speakers' English, such as speech rate, accent and pitch.

Same text, different voices: Students listen to the same text recorded by speakers with different accents.

Blends and reductions

Words in spoken discourse often sound very different from the way learners expect to hear them, due to the fact that words are often reduced to accommodate to the rhythms of spoken English and are also blended together, sometimes leading to problems of recognition. Activities that draw students' attention to the blends and reductions that occur in natural speech include:

Dictation: The teacher reads short sentences with natural blends and reductions.

Noticing: The teacher plays a recording of natural speech, and students mark blends and reductions on the transcript. They then compare with others.

Gap filling: The teacher plays a text containing chunks that contain blended or "missing" sounds and syllables (e.g. *should have gone, need to go, must have been, saw her leave*). Students have a transcript with the chunks omitted. They listen and complete the missing chunks.

> Other points from the previous classes to revise:
> - Listening processes: bottom-up and top-down approach
> - Teaching listening skills and listening strategies
> - Planning and organizing a listening class

7.2. Teaching Speaking

Since the late nineteenth century, oral skills have been an important goal in language programmes. Under the influence of audiolingualism and similar grammar-based methods, by the 1960s, speaking usually meant "repeating after the teacher, reciting a memorized dialogue, or responding to a mechanical drill. The emergence of communicative language teaching in the 1970s highlighted the importance of fluency as a goal in teaching spoken English. The nature of fluent language use seemed to be well understood, until research began to focus on the nature of authentic oral interaction. Discourse analysis, conversation analysis and corpus analysis led to a new understanding of oral proficiency and, within language teaching, the need for teaching the specific features of spoken English and oral interaction was realized. This research, which recognized that approaches to teaching spoken English should be informed by the analysis of authentic spoken interaction, highlighted features such as the following:

- The clausal nature of spoken language, with clauses linked together through simple coordination (and, but, because), rather than the use of complex sentence constructions as are common in written English.
- The use of incomplete sentences, such as *"Saw a great movie last night."*
- The use of chunks or multi-word units, such as *"what I'm thinking is"*
- The use of fixed utterances or routines, such as *"Nice to meet you", "How have you been?"*
- The use of idioms and colloquial expressions, such as "make a move", "pig out"
- The use of discourse markers, such as "the thing is", "by the way"...etc.
- The interactive and negotiated nature of oral interaction, involving such processes as turn-taking, feedback and topic management.
- The differences between different genres of spoken English, such as small talk, conversations and transactions
- The difference between formal and casual speech
- The difference between written grammar and spoken grammar.

Speaking skills are applied to different genres different speaking situations. Richards (2015) introduced the following genres and provided hints on how to teach speaking in these situations.[4]

Small talk
Small talk refers to a communication that primarily serves the purpose of social interaction. Small talk consists of short exchanges that usually begin with a greeting, move to back-and-forth, exchanges on non-controversial topics etc.

Skills involving mastering small talk include:
- Acquiring fixed expressions and routines used in small talk.
- Using formal or casual speech depending on the situation
- Developing fluency in making small talk around predictable topics
- Using opening and closing strategies
- Using back-channelling.

Back-channelling involves the use of expressions such as *really, mm, Is that right?, yeah*, etc...nodding of the head, and, very commonly, short rhetorical questions, such as *Do you? Are you? Or Did you?* Such actions and expressions reflect the role of an active interested and supportive listener. The use of expressions that show exaggeration, such *awesome* or *fantastic*, is usually a sign that the two participants are friends.

Echo responses are another type of back-channelling and involve echoing something the speaker said. For example:
A: So where are you from?
B: Chicago.
A: Chicago. That's interesting.

Teaching small talk

Ways of teaching small talk include:
Modelling and creating: Students study examples of small-talk exchanges and create similar exchanges on the same topic.

---

[4] RICHARDS, J. C.: Key issues in Language teaching, Cambridge University Press 2015

Class mingles: Each student has one or two topics on a card. The class mingles students greet, introduce their topic, make small talk for one or two exchanges, close the conversation and move on to a different student.

Question sheets: Students have a worksheet with ten different small-talk questions. They move around the class and take turns asking questions and responding to their exchanges in small-talk format.

Conversation

Conversation involves longer exchanges that may follow on from small talk and is the more meaningful type of interaction that results from small talk.

Targets for conversational proficiency in a foreign language are described in the Common European Framework of Reference as follows:[5]

Characteristics of conversation as described in the Common European Framework of Reference	
C2	- Can converse comfortably and appropriately, unhampered by any linguistic limitations in conducting a full social and personal life.
C1	- Can use language flexibly and effectively for social purposes, including emotional allusive and joking usage.
B2	- Can engage in extended conversation on most general topics in a clearly participatory fashion, even in a noisy environment - Can sustain relationships with native speakers without unintentionally amusing or irritating them or requiring them to behave other than they would with a native speaker - Can convey degrees of emotion and highlight the personal significance of events and experiences.
B1	- Can enter unprepared into conversation of familiar topics. - Can follow clearly articulated speech directed at him/her in everday conversations, though will sometimes hae to ask for repetitionof particular words and phrases. - Can maintain a conversation or discussion, but may sometimes be difficult to follow when trying to say exactly what he/she would like to. - Can express and respond to feelings such as surprise, happiness, sadness, interest and indifference.
A2	- Can establish social contact: greetings and farewells, introductions, giving thanks. - Can generally understand clear, standard speech on familiar matters directed at him/her, provided he/she can ask for repetition or reformulations from time to time. - Can participate in short conversation in routine contexts on topics of interest. - Can express how he/she feels in simple terms, and express thanks
	- Can handle very short social exchanges but is rarely able to understand enough to keep conversation going of his/her own accord, though he/she can be made to understand if the speaker will take the trouble. - Can use simple everyday polite forms of greeting and address. - Can make and respond to invitations, suggestions and apologies and say what he/she likes and dislikes
A1	- Can make an introduction and use basic greeting and leave-taking expressions - Can ask how people are and react to news. - Can understand everyday expressions aimed at the satisfaction of simple needs of a concrete type, delivered directly to him/her in clear, slow and repeated speech by a sympathetic speaker.

Teaching conversation

Ways of teaching conversation include:

---

[5] Common European Framework of Languages

Awareness-raising activities: Students examine examples of conversation, either recorded (audio or video) or transcribed examples, and look for examples of how openings, topic introductions, back-channelling, etc. are realized, and for indicators of casual or formal speech.
Dialogue completion: Students are given transcripts of conversations with selected features removed (such as openings, closings, clarification requests) and asked to try to complete them. They then listen to or read the completed dialogues, compare and practise
Planning tasks: Students are given topics to include in a conversation and asked to write dialogues that include them and that also include personal recounts. They then compare and practise
Improvisations: Students are given skeleton dialogues or dialogue frames (e.g. containing a sequence of topics or functions they should use in a conversation) and use them to improvise conversations.

Transactions

A transaction is an interaction that focuses on getting something done, rather than maintaining social interaction. In communicative language teaching, transactions are generally referred to as functions, and include such areas as requests, orders, offers, suggestions etc. A transaction may consist of a sequence of different functions.

Transactional activities can be thought of as consisting of a sequence of individual moves or functions which, together, constitute a "script". For example, when people order food in a restaurant, they usually look at the menu, ask any necessary questions and then tell the waitperson what they want. The waitperson may ask additional questions and then repeat their order to check. When people check into a hotel, the transaction usually starts with a greeting, the clerk enquires if the person has a reservation, the client confirms and provides his or her name and so on.

Teaching transactions

Approaches to teaching transactions include:
Awareness raising: Studying examples of how typical transactions occur (e.g. buying a cinema ticket) and what moves are involved.
Learning expressions and routines: Modelling the language needed for different transactions and comparing different linguistic options (e.g. comparing different ways of performing requests in formal and informal situations).
Modelling: The teacher demonstrates different ways of completing transactions.
Planning: Students plan how they would carry out specific transactions and what language they would use and might need to anticipate
Practice: Students practise transactions in both controlled and freer formats (e.g. using model dialogues and role plays).[6]

Discussions

A discussion is an interaction focusing on exchanging ideas about a topic and presenting points of view and opinions. Of course, people often discuss topics in casual conversation, such as the weather or recent experiences, but discussions of that kind are often merely "chit-chat". They do not usually lead to "real" discussions where more serious topics of interest and importance are talked about. The Common European Framework of Reference identifies several areas

---

[6] RICHARDS, J. C.: Key issues in Language teaching, Cambridge University Press 2015

speakers need to master to take part in formal discussions. Here are the descriptors for levels B2, C1 and C2[7]

Formal discussions and meetings	
C2	- Can hold his/her own in formal discussion of complex issues, putting forth and articulate and persuasive argument, at no disadvantage to native speakers.
C1	- Can easily keep up with the debate, even on abstract, complex, unfamiliar topics. - Can argue a formal position convincingly, responding to questions and comments and answering complex lines of argument fluently, spontaneously and appropriately.
B2	- Can keep up with animated discussion, identifying accurately arguments supporting and opposing points of view. - Can express his or her ideas and opinions with precision (and) present and respond to complex lines of argument convincingly.
	- Can participate actively in routine and non-routine formal discussions. - Can follow the discussion on matters related to his/her field, understanding in detail the points given prominence by the speaker. - Can contribute, account for and sustain his/her opinion, evaluate alternative proposals and make and respond to hypotheses.

Teaching discussions

Approaches to teaching discussions may include the following:
Choosing topics: Topics may be chosen by students or assigned by the teacher. Both options offer different possibilities for student involvement.
Forming groups: Small groups of four to five allow for more active participation, and care is needed to establish groups of compatible participants. For some tasks, roles may be assigned (e.g. group leader, note-taker, observer).
Preparing for discussions: Before groups are assigned a task, it may be necessary to review background knowledge, assign information-gathering tasks (e.g. watching a video) and teach some of the specific ways students can present a viewpoint, interrupt, disagree politely, etc.
Giving guidelines: The parameters for the discussion should be clear so that students are clear how long the discussion will last, what the expected outcomes are, roles of participants, expectations for students input and acceptable styles of interaction.
Evaluate discussions: Both the teacher and the students can be involved in refection on discussions. The teacher may want to focus on the amount and quality of input from participants and give suggestions for improvement. Some review of language used may be useful at this point. Students may comment on their own performance and difficulties they experienced and give suggestions for future discussions.

Presentations

Presentations are public talks, that is, talk which transmits information before an audience, such as public announcements and speeches. These uses of spoken language are often thought of as "performances". Presentations tend to be in the form of monologues, rather than dialogues, often follow a recognizable format (e.g. a welcome speech) and are closer to written language than conversational language. Examples of presentations are:
Giving a class report about a school trip
Giving a welcome speech

---

[7] Common European Framework of Languages

Making a sales presentation
Making a poster presentation about a chosen topic.
Thanking a speaker who visited the class.

Teaching presentations

Teaching students how to make presentations often reflects the principles of text-based teaching, in which a five-part sequence of activities is uses:
1. building the context (students examine the context in which a text occurs and consider its purposes and the expectations of the participants)
2: modelling and deconstructing the text (the text is examined in terms of its language and discourse features)
3: joint construction (the teacher guides the students through the development of a new presentation text, during which they focus on an effective opening, transitions between points and other features)
4: independent construction of a presentation text (students work on a new presentation, either individually or in small groups
5. presentation (students now make their presentations and receive feedback from peers and the teacher.

> Other points from the previous classes to revise:
> - Speaking micro-skills
> - Fluency and accuracy

7.3. Teaching Reading

Reading comprehension has been a part of classroom as long as there have been schools, text, students who desired to read them and teachers wanting both to promote and access students' understanding. However, it was not until well into the 20th century that comprehension arrived as a model index of reading competence and performance. There are two plausible explanations for the relatively late arrival of comprehension as an indicator of reading accomplishment. First, the default indicator of reading prowess in the 17 to 19th centuries was definitely oral capacity, indexed by either accuracy or expressive fluency, in the tradition of declamation and oratory. Second, within ecclesiastical circles, comprehension, at least in the sense of personal understanding, was not highly value, if it mattered, it mattered largely as a stepping-stone to

the more valued commodity of text memorization.[8] After WWII, the need for spoken language held back reading comprehension skills. Audiolingual method which flourished in that time was also one of the assumptions which gave priority to spoken language. However, with the decline of audio-lingual method in 1960s, teaching English started to take a direction towards a skill-balanced approach where all four language skills were treated more or less equally.

Types of knowledge in reading comprehension

According to Richards (2015) a good reader needs to have the following knowledge to be able to master reading texts:
Grammatical knowledge: the reader has to have good knowledge of syntax, since this forms the basis of sentence organization within texts. Syntactic knowledge is needed to determine the overall meaning of sentences. The syntactic complexity of a sentence will influence how easy it is to read, and the kinds of syntax the reader encounters will depend on the type of texts they read. Linguistic differences between the students' first language and English may also affect reading. Students from places where their first language is a Romance language (such as Spanish, French, Italian and Portuguese) tend to focus greater amount of attention on "the ends of the words, because there is more grammatical information there than in English, while readers whose first language is Chinese, Japanese and Korean will make greater use of visual processing than readers of English, because of the different orthographic conventions employed in their first language writing system.
Vocabulary knowledge: Good readers have a large vocabulary and continue to add to their vocabulary throughout their lives, mainly through reading. It is obviously not possible to teach students all of the words that they might encounter in their reading. Readers with smaller vocabularies will require a lot more instructional support. If there are too many unknown words in the text, comprehension may be virtually impossible. However, students still may use some strategies (e.g. identifying the context of the text) to determine the meaning of the words they do not understand.
Prior knowledge: Readers bring many different kinds of prior knowledge to reading, including knowledge about the topic of a text and the events featured in them. They recognize familiar text types (e.g. expository texts, information text, narrative texts). They also make use of their understanding of how such texts are usually organized, the kinds of information they contain and the contexts in which they typically appear. In processing texts, readers utilize different kinds of schema which serve to guide the reader through the processing of information related to a topic.

Levels of comprehension

Reading comprehension can also be described in terms of comprehension associated with reading, since comprehension can refer to understanding of details in a text, understanding of main ideas, understanding of implied meanings and so on. A widely cited taxonomy of levels of understanding is known as Barrett's taxonomy (Hudson 2007, 85 in Richards 2015, 451)[9] This taxonomy identifies five different levels of understanding. These are referred to as
1. literal comprehension (concern with information stated explicitly in the text)

---

[8] PEARSON, D. P. & CERVETTI, G. N. The Roots of Reading Comprehension Instruction, From Handbook of Research on Reading Comprehension, Second Edition. Edited by Susan E. Israel. Copyright © 2017 The Guilford Press.
[9] RICHARDS, J. C.: Key issues in Language teaching, Cambridge University Press 2015

2. reorganization (analysing, synthesizing and organizing information that has been stated explicitly)
3. inferential comprehension (using information explicitly stated, along with one's own personal experience, as a basis for conjecture and hypothesis)
4. evaluation (judgements and decisions concerning value and worth)
5. appreciation (psychological and aesthetic impact of the text on the reader).

Teaching reading comprehension

Teaching reading comprehension may be seen as going through several stages (Richards 2015)
Determining goals: reading can be taught as a separate skill or linked to the other skills, such as writing, whether the focus is on general reading improvement or reading for specific purposes, such as academic reading or business English, or whether the course is aimed to prepare students for the reading component of a test, such as IELTS, and so on.
Choosing materials: at the beginning it needs to be decided about authentic versus adapted materials.
Conducting a reading class: Like listening classes, reading classes often focus on three stages of the reading process: pre-reading (planning to read), while-reading (understanding and monitoring) and post-reading (evaluation).

7.4. Teaching Writing

In the past there was not much attention given to developing writing skills of EFL students. Writing skills previously focused strictly on syntactic structures, lexis and other linguistic items. More recently though, second language writing instruction has been influenced by a discourse and genre approach (Wennerstrom 2003 in Richards 2015). Genres are then defined as accepted conventions behind writing which is done for each of these purposes. Writing is seen as involving a complex web of relations between writer, reader and text. This approach looks at the ways in which language is used for particular purposes., in particular contexts.[10]

By the type of writing reflecting both genres and texts, Richards (2015) distinguishes the following genres and texts:

Type of classification	Examples
By genre	Detective story, mystery, advertisement, editorial, menu, essay, biography, song
By text type	Letters, reports, memos, text messages, forms, labels, signs, instructions
By type of paragraph development	Narration, exposition, definition, classification, description, process analysis, persuasion, comparison
By context	School, work, home
By audience	Self, friends, teacher, client
By purpose	To warn, inform, entertain, persuade, request.
By writer	Employer, employee, colleague, friend.

[10] RICHARDS, J. C.: Key issues in Language teaching, Cambridge University Press 2015

| By medium | Print, electronic |

The following aspects need to be considered regarding foreign language students' writing.

Use of grammar at the level of sentence and text: Writing calls upon the learner's grammatical knowledge and the ability to use grammar appropriate to different kinds of texts. In texts, some grammatical items link ideas and sentences together in order to contribute to the text's unity. This is known as cohesion. Cohesion refers to the linking relationships that are expressed explicitly in a text. These linking relationships are part of what makes a set of sentences hold together and form a text. A variety of grammatical as well as lexical means are used by writers to create cohesion in a text. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976)[11]. These cohesive devices are classified as reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical:

- **Reference:** *The children did not come because they wanted to stay inside.*
- **Substitution:** *We wanted to buy some glasses and finally bought some French ones.*
- **Ellipsis:** *They wanted to hear me sing another verse of the song, so I told them I knew two (verses) more*
- **Conjunction:** *I did not know she was in hospital. Otherwise, I would have sent some flowers.*
- **Lexical:** *Henry presented her with his own photo. As it happened, she had always wanted a photo of Henry.*

Organizing the content of writing: coherence

We mentioned that knowledge involves organizing texts into paragraphs, which gives the text a sense of unity. The ideas and information in a well-written text need to have an overall sense of unity and structure. This is referred to as coherence. Coherence reflects the following features of a text:

- **Development:** Presentation of information should be orderly and convey a sense of direction.
- **Continuity:** There should be a consistency of facts, opinions and writer perspective, as well as reference to previously mentioned ideas. Newly introduced information should be relevant.
- **Balance:** There should be a relative emphasis /main idea or supportive information) for each idea or topic.
- **Completeness:** The ideas presented should provide sufficient coverage of the idea or topic.

Using appropriate styles of writing

Good writers also use a style of writing that is appropriate to the kind of writing they are engaged in, whether this is institutional writing or personal writing. Written language has a different style from spoken language, even though new forms of writing that have emerged are closer to spoken language, such as emails and the language used in chat rooms. However, the style of writing that students are expected to use in academic writing in English may be unfamiliar to them, and they are not expected to use a personal informal style of writing in essay and other school assignments.

---

[11] HALLIDAY, M. A. K. & HASAN, R.: Language, Context and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social-Semiotic Perspective. Deakin University Press 1985

Ability to use writing strategies

Many of the features we have covered so far refer to product dimensions of writing, since they offer commentary on the finished form of a piece of writing. But students also need to develop strategies for the process of writing itself – a feature of the process approach. Writers differ in the way they approach a writing task, and some ways of completing a piece of writing may be more effective than others. Each writing is usually done within a set of steps:

Before writing	Think about the task and how to approach it.
	Use different ways of collecting necessary information, such as reading, the internet or taking notes.
During writing	Map out main points quickly
	Review and elaborate the points.
	Take time to let ideas develop
	Write and rewrite several times, reviewing tomake sure the main points are covered.
	Leave editing until later and concentrate on content.
After writing	Check to make sure the essay is coherent
	Revise content if necessary
	Check that a suitable style of language has been used
	Make any necessary corrections

Questions:

1. What are some of the purposes of listening situations?
2. EFL students encountered some challenges in listening. Name and describe these challenges. Give examples and suggest some ways of coping with these challenges.
3. What are the types of speaking situations?
4. What are some of the common characteristics of conversations as described by CEFR?
5. Describe and suggest some of the ways of teaching the listed speaking situations / purposes.
6. What are the types of knowledge in reading comprehension? Characterize each type.
7. What is the taxonomy of levels of listening comprehension?
8. Name some types of classifications of writing and give examples.
9. Comment on Use of grammar at the level of sentence and text
10. Comment on coherence in writing