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Applied Linguistics Course

1. Enseignant :

Nom	Mehiri	**Prénom**	Ramdane	**Grade**	Professeur
Université de rattachement		Mohamed Khider de Biskra			

2. Identification du Cours :

Intitulé du cours	Applied Linguistics: Semester 2: **2023-2024**
Matière	Applied Linguistics (*A.L*)
Niveau	☐ L1 ☐ L2 ☐ L3 √☐ M1 ☐ M2
Domaine	FL - English
Spécialité	/

3. Thèmes du Cours :

Theme (IV): Teacher's Roles and Learner's Styles	4.1 Teacher's Roles 4.2 Learner Differences 4.3 Learner's Styles 4.4 Learning strategies
Theme (V): Feedback and Error Correction	5.1 Theoretical Background 5.2 Types of Errors 5.3 Should teachers correct their students' errors? 5.4 Feedback 5.4.1 Forms of Feedback
Theme (VI): Course and Syllabus Design	6.1 An Overview 6. 2 Definitions 6. 3 Main Principles of Syllabus Design 3. 1 Main Types of Syllabi 6. 4 Course Design

NB: The themes suggested above do not comprise an exhaustive list of items; i.e. omissions or additions may take place (compared with the syllabus chapters), depending on the students' needs and course development.

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Theme 4: Teacher's Roles and Learner's Styles

Duration: 4 sessions (06 hours)

Contents

   4.1 Teacher's Roles
   4.2 Learner Differences
   4.3 Learner's Styles
   4.4 Learning strategies
   4.5 Gardner's (1983) Multiple Intelligences Theory

4.1 Teacher's Roles

According to Harmer (2007, p. 108) the term facilitator is used to refer to all teachers without exception because each and every teacher is supposed to facilitate learning; i.e. to help learners to be autonomous through group work, pair work, and other techniques. However, the teachers 'effectiveness in the classroom cannot be clearly understood unless their roles are indentified and described in more detail. The latter are as follows (ibid, p. 108-111):

* **Controller:** when teachers act as controllers, they are in charge of the class and of the activity taking place and are often 'leading from the front'. Controllers take the register, tell students things, organize drills, read aloud and in various other ways exemplify the qualities of a teacher fronted classroom.

* **Prompter:** sometimes, when they are involved in a role-play activity for example, students lose the thread of what is going on, or they are 'lost for words' (i.e. they may still have the thread but be unable to proceed productively for lack of vocabulary). They may not be quite sure how to proceed. What should teachers do in these circumstances? Hold back and let them work things out for themselves or, instead, 'nudge' them forward in a discreet and supportive way? If we opt for the latter, we are adopting some kind of a 'prompting' role.

* **Participant:** the traditional picture of teachers during student discussions, role-plays or group decision-making activities, is of people who 'stand back' from the activity, letting the learners get on with it and only intervening later to offer feedback and/or correct mistakes. However, there are also times when we might want to join in an activity not (only) as a teacher, but also as a participant in our own right.

* **Resource:** in some activities it is inappropriate for us to take on any of the roles we have suggested so far. Suppose that the students are involved in a piece of group writing, or that they are preparing for a presentation they are to make to the class. In such situations, having the teacher take part, or try to control them, or even turn up to prompt them might be entirely unwelcome. However, the students may still have need of their teacher as a resource. They might need to ask how to say or write something or ask what a word or phrase means. They might want to know information in the middle of an activity about that activity or they might want information about where to look for something - a book or a website, for example. This is where we can be one of the most important resources they have.

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* Tutor: when students are working on longer projects, such as process writing or preparation for a talk or a debate, we can work with individuals or small groups, pointing them in directions they have not yet thought of taking. In such situations, we are combining the roles of prompter and resource - in other words, acting as a tutor.

The teacher's role varies according to the ultimate objective of the lecture. Sometimes, it depends on the type of activity and a lot depends on the type of the learners themselves. "What we can say, with certainty, is that we need to be able to switch between the various roles we have described here, judging when it is appropriate to use one or other of them. And then, when we have made that decision, however consciously or subconsciously it is done, we need to be aware of how we carry out that role, how we perform" (Harmer, 2007, p. 111).

4.2 Learner Differences

The fact that some learners are better than others in learning language gives the idea that these individuals are endowed with special potentials or are naturally born with better capacities and preparedness. "The reason probably is that people are not homogenous! They have different personalities and styles. Thus, each individual is different from the other" (Zafar and Meenakshi, 2012). The individual differences which affect language, in a way or another, second language acquisition are age, sex, aptitude, motivation, learning styles, learning strategies, and personality (ibid). These differences or variables, though they are signs of rapid or slow achievement in second language acquisition, are interlocked and influential on each other. Hurd (2006) states that "Whether classified as cognitive or affective, fixed or modifiable, variables are generally considered to have some bearing on the ways in which a learner is likely to interpret, relate and respond to the learning materials. They also interact with each other in a variety of different ways"(p. 2).

The above notes can be summarized by saying "It is important for teachers to know variables such as physical characteristics, intelligence, perception, gender, ability, learning styles, which are individual differences of the learners. An effective and productive learning-teaching process can be planned by considering these individual differences of the students. Since the learners' own learning speeds and interests vary, these characteristics should be taken into consideration by the teacher" (Kubat, 2018, p. 30). In other words, "The lack of knowledge on such differences amongst students may cause students not to participate in the learning-teaching process and thus academic failure. Discipline problems in the class can be reduced when the students are directed to meaningful activities and directed to their own interests and abilities" (ibid, 31).

4.3 Learner's Styles

Awla (2014) endorsed the idea that it is very crucial to understand students' learning styles and preferences because they benefit both partners in the classroom. Teachers may adjust their teaching styles to the existing learning styles in their classrooms so as to enhance the teaching learning process. Awla (ibid, p.242) lists the following types:

* Visual versus verbal
Visual learners prefer to think in pictures and obtain information through visual means such as diagrams and videos. In contrast verbal learners gain more information through verbal explanations (either spoken or written) (Ldpride, n.d; Felder, 1993).

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* Auditory learners

Auditory learners gain information through aural channels such as verbal discussions and listening to others speech. These learners understand meaning by concentrating on the pitch, tone and speed of voice. They benefit from reading text out loud and they may not make use of written information (Ldpride, n.d.).

* Kinesthetic or tactile learners: they like movement and work with touchable objects. They enjoy regular breaks and move around the room (Oxford, 2001).

* Intuitive (random) versus Sensing (sequential)

Intuitive learners prefer information that originates from their imagination, reflection and internal memory. They think in futuristic, no-sequential and large-scale ways and enjoy creating new theories and possibilities. Conversely, sensing learners prefer information that arises from senses. They think about here and now, and prefer facts to theories. They would like to be guided and instructed by teachers (Felder, 1993; Oxford, 2001).

* Global versus analytic

Global learners concentrate on the big picture and follow their instincts or guess the main idea of a text. They like short answers rather than long explanations. On the other hand, analytic learners focus on logical analysis and thinking to tackle problems. They break ideas apart and tend to place more emphasis on grammar rules (Dornyei, 2005).

* Active versus Reflective

Active learners enjoy doing tasks directly by applying and discussing them with others, while reflective learners understand and remember information best by reflecting on it in advance. Active learners prefer to work in groups, while reflective learners enjoy working alone or in pairs (Felder, 1993)

4.4 Learning strategies

Learning strategies are defined as the tactics used by people to control their learning process. Enhancing these strategies for language learners in the classroom has become one of the teachers' crucial roles so that they keep their mission which is to facilitate the students' learning and boost their thinking. Teachers, in this case, are required to be aware of the learners' learning styles and needs to employ the most appropriate methodologies that help students in using strategies which enhance their L2 learning process (Montaño-González, 2017). Below are some definitions as listed by Lessard-Clouston (1997, p. 2):

* Tarone (1983) defined a LS as "an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language -- to incoporate these into one's interlanguage competence" (p. 67).

* Rubin (1987) later wrote that LS "are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly" (p. 22).

* In their seminal study, **O'Malley and Chamot (1990)** defined LS as "the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (p. 1).

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Many researchers and scholars have provided many definitions of language learning strategies (LLSs). So much the same goes for their classification, especially in terms of the approaches used. Chang and Liu (2013) mention that in the scheme proposed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) there are cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies. According to them, cognitive strategies are used by learners to process information; metacognitive strategies are higher order executive skills which involve planning, monitoring, or evaluating language learning activities; and social/affective strategies are involve interactions with others. In addition, Oxford (1990) produced a classification which included: **(1)Cognitive strategies:** processing information and structuring it, for example, analyzing, summarizing; **(2)Memory strategies:** remembering information by making connections, for example, grouping, and using keywords; **(3)Metacognitive strategies:** managing the learning process and dealing with the task, for ex-ample, planning, identifying and selecting resources; **(4)Compensation strategies:** compensating for knowledge gaps, for example, guessing, gesturing; **(5)Affective strategies:** identifying one's affective traits and knowing how to manage them, for example, reducing anxiety, encouraging one's self; and **(6)Social strategies:** learning from and/or with others, for example, asking for cooperation, working with peers (197).

The choice of LLSs, on the other hand, requires a lot of attention on the part of both teachers and students. There are factors which may directly influence the strategy choice made by learners. Some of the factors suggested by Willing (1987, cited in Martinez, 1996, pp. 107-108) are: personality traits (extroversion vs. introversion); motivation level (highly motivated learners adopt a positive attitude towards teaching and learning); learners' expectations and purpose (for learning the language); sex (male learners use different strategies from those of females); task requirements (some activities are very demanding); age (adults do not use the same strategies as young learners); and stage of learning (advanced learners use different strategies from more elementary ones).

4.5 Gardner's (1983) Multiple Intelligences Theory

Howard Gardner proposed a theory in 1983 which advocates that human beings have various intelligences. The Multiple Intelligences Theory (MIT) attempted to explain how people process, learn, and remember information in seven ways (later on the eighth and ninth intelligences were added), indicating that each individual is different from the other individuals in terms of the degree possessed in each intelligence. These intelligences are linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalistic and existential. Knowing the students' diverse intelligences gives teachers the opportunity to prepare the appropriate individualized environments for learners (Maftoon and Sarem, 2012, 1234). One of the pedagogic implications of MIT, according to Gardner, is that:

> …educational methods should be created and adjusted to be more flexible for students who have different intellectual capacities, and should be redesigned and rearranged to use the multiple intelligences effectively so that those changes would benefit students, teachers and society. Multiple intelligence theory suggests that there is not just one concrete measure of intelligence and by implication a single way of teaching (ibid).

Below are some of Gardner's (1983) intelligences interpretations or meanings as cited in a number of research papers.

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Hasanudin and Fitrianingsih, (2020) stated that "verbal-linguistic intelligence is a verbal ability that has been well developed and sensitive to the sounds, meanings, and rhythms of words (p. 118)

Arum, Kusmayadi, and Pramudya (2018) argued that "logical-mathematical intelligence is the ability of students to identify and classify objects, perform mathematical calculations, solve the problems, think logically and critically, and make conclusions" (p. 2).

According to Safranj and Zivlak (2018) "Visual/Spatial intelligence is the ability to visualise space and objects within the mind´s eye. People who prefer to use this kind of intelligence would rather draw a picture than write a paragraph. They notice colour, shapes and patterns and how light falls on the object, and comprehend mental models" (p.72). "Bodily-Kinaesthetic intelligence is the ability to use one´s body and mimic another´s actions. People with a preference for this kind of intelligence generally have skills such as strength, balance endurance, flexibility and coordination. They use the body skilfully to express ideas and feelings to solve problems, create products or present emotion" (ibid).

"Interpersonal intelligence is one of the intelligences in Gardner's multiple intelligences. This intelligence is related to respond information, understand information, and build social connections/interactions to others" (Dien and Wustqa, 2018).

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Theme 5: Feedback and Error Correction

Duration: 4 sessions (06 hours)

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5.1 Theoretical Background
5.2 Types of Errors
5.3 Should teachers correct their students' errors?
5.4 Feedback
   5.4.1 Forms of Feedback

5.1 Theoretical Background

When humans come to learn language, they tend to commit errors. The latter were forbidden in the past (behaviourism) because only correct forms of language were desired. In the last four decades, however, this attitude has changed (cognitivism). Errors have come to be viewed "as evidence for a creative process in language learning in which learners employ hypothesis testing and various strategies in learning a second language"(Touchie, 1986, p. 75). According to Selinker (1969),

> errors are significant in three respects: (1) errors are important for the language teacher because they indicate the learner's progress in language learning; (2) errors are also important for the language researcher as they provide insights into how language is learnt; and (3) finally, errors are significant to the language learner himself/herself as he/she gets involved in hypothesis testing (ibid, p. 76)

Accordingly, based on Corder (1967) and (Ellis, 1994), Hamid and Doan (2014) stated that "in Second language (L2) errors are of significance because errors: (1) are "red flags" that signal learners' L2 knowledge status; (2) serve as "tools" by which learners figure out L2 rules; and (3) help teachers and researchers bring to light learners' L2 learning processes" (p. 123). Therefore, studying the errors committed by Second Language Learners (SLLs) has become an integral part of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research. In the past, experts and researchers used to think that the source of Second language (L2) Learners' errors was their first language (L1) interference in the process of L2 learning, later on (Selinker, 1974) they discovered that the cause was the preliminary form of L2 (interlanguage) which is an essential component of L2 learners' language acquisition (Ali, 2011,p. 131-132)

5.2 Types of Errors

According to Touchie (1986), there are two major types of errors: performance errors which are due to fatigue or inattention and which can be corrected by the learner himself, and competence errors which are serious because they reflect inadequate learning. The former are sometimes called mistakes and the latter are known as errors (Jing, Xiaodong and Yu, 2016). Burt and Kiparsky (1972) classified errors into two main divisions: "global errors, which affect overall sentence organization and significantly hinder communication, and local errors, which affect a single part of the sentence and are only a minor "irritability" (Johansson, 1975) to communication" (Cited in Shaffer, 2005). Errors could also be classified into interlingual (transfer errors) or intralingual (overgeneralizations)

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errors. The former class results from the influence of the first language (L1) on the learning of the second one (L2) and they may be phonological, morphological, syntactical, or lexical. The latter class, however, is due to the learner's misunderstanding or wrong use of the L2 rules such as the problem of overgeneralization (Atmaca, 2016).

5.3 Should teachers correct their students' errors?

According to Corder (1967), errors are very important because

> First, errors tell the teacher how far the learner has progressed towards the goal and consequently, how much he still has to learn. Second, errors provide researchers with evidence on how language is acquired (i.e., they reveal the strategies or procedures the learner employs in the process). Third, errors are indispensable to the learner himself because they can be regarded as a device in order to learn; they are a way for the learner to test his or her hypotheses about the Second Language (Cited in Carranza, 2007, p. 84)

Other scholars, however, are against error correction. This seems to stem out of their belief that the ultimate goal of teaching and learning language is communication; i.e. there is an emphasis on understanding the received messages and on being understood through the messages sent. Examples of these approaches are the Natural Approach and Suggestopedia (Botha, 1987). In many previous researches errors were addressed in two different ways or contexts: communication and accuracy. That is, some teachers in the classroom tend to implement activities which target students 'engagement and free language production, while other teachers use activities which highlight discrete syntactic, morphological, or semantic structures. So, in communication activities, teachers should correct the errors which hinder communication and in accuracy activities teachers should correct the errors which have to do with the language structure (Carranza, 2007, p. 85). In addition, aiming to encourage students to communicate, the way of correcting errors is also another important aspect; that is,

> Advocates of communicative teaching argue that explicitly correcting students' errors detracts from language learning, on the grounds that communication rather than accuracy is the goal of language teaching, that acquisition of language form occurs through a focus on meaning rather than through a focus on form, and that correction produces negative psychological consequences in the learner (Woods, 1989, p. 60-61)

In fact, teachers should not only avoid communication hindrance in the classroom, but they should also consider "the difference between a mistake and an error, how much correction should be made, at what phases the teacher should correct the error and how the teacher can correct the learner without de-motivating him/her"(Amara, 2018, p. 45)

5.4 Feedback

To be competent in a second language means to be able to speak and write well in that language. Yet, being competent requires a lot of efforts and a long process. Both students and teachers should be prepared to encounter situations and face problems such as the errors that the students commit. Both of them should play the right role. In this same line of thought, Klimova (2015) mentions that:

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Enthusiastic ELT teachers are always looking for new and effective approaches and methods which would contribute to the overall improvement of their students' learning and their performance. One of the most effective ways of discovering this is collecting students' responses in the form of feedback. Such responses can provide critical and constructive information about the current course, teacher performance, difficulties or challenges students experience/have experienced during the course and indicate steps which should be taken for the improvement of one's performance in future (p. 172)

Feedback is considered "as information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding. A teacher or parent can provide corrective information, a peer can provide an alternative strategy, a book can provide information to clarify ideas, a parent can provide encouragement, and a learner can look up the answer to evaluate the correctness of a response. Thus, Feedback is a "consequence" of performance" (Hattie and Timperley, 2007, p. 81). That is, feedback is the information that a student may receive from many people on his performance. The aim of feedback is to show, explain, correct, or suggest something for the student.

Because feedback has been associated with assessment (formative assessment) and with the role students are supposed to play to discover their strengths and weaknesses, feedback is considered to be "the way to enhance the students 'self-evaluated accuracy. Feedback can be provided by various sources, for example, instructor, classmate, parents, and even the individual.

Certainly, feedback can be provided by various methods (oral presentation, and paper-based instruction)" (Masantiah, Pasiphol and Tangdhanakanond, 2018, 2018, p. 1). Here, it is clear that there are ways that the teacher can use to give feedback, and the aim of feedback is to indicate whether or not the student is on the right path.

5.4.1 Forms of Feedback

An example of describing the types of feedback was provided by Noor, Aman, Mustaffa, and Seong (2010) in the introduction of a study (article) entitled "Teacher's Verbal Feedback on Students' Response: A Malaysian ESL Classroom Discourse Analysis". They mentioned that "In the context of teaching and learning languages, various definitions of the term feedback have been proposed. Most of these definitions indicate that feedback refers to informing learners about their work in progress" (Noor, Aman, Mustaffa, and Seong, 2010, p. 399). Below are three types of feedback which have been taken from this source:

"Feedbacks can be identified as positive or negative. Positive feedback confirms a correct response from the learner….Examples of teacher's positive feedback include, 'good', yes, and 'well done'. …. In contrast, negative feedback refers to immediate oral feedback which aims at mistake correction (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)" (ibid)

"Feedbacks have also been categorized based on the functions they provide. For example, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) focus on the "evaluative feedback" used by the teacher in classroom discourse, which usually consists of the acts of accepting, evaluating and commenting. Richards and Lockhart's (1994) classification includes saying that something is correct or incorrect, praising, modifying a student′s answer, repeating, summarizing and criticizing" (ibid)

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Ur (2003) indicated that there are two types of feedback: the first is formative and refers to the immediate correction and assessment of students'writing assignments. The second is summative and is used in evaluating students'writing at the end of a term (Cited in Rahman, 2017, p. 66).

Khan (2003) collected many types or forms of feedback (Cited in Rahman, 2017, pp. 67-69) from various studies which are listed as follows:

Error Correction (Alwright, 1975: Norish, 1983; Hendrickson, 1984; Chaudron, 1988 cited in Khan 2003): It is a very common and traditional approach of feedback to the teachers which implies coded sign to indicate mistakes and errors in students'writing.

Peer Feedback (Lynch, 1988; Robinson, 1991; Arndt, 1993; Keh, 1996 cited in Khan 2003): This is comparatively a new concept in our context since it employs students to check and give feedback to each other.

Conferences (Freedman & Sperling, 1985; Hedge, 1988; Keh, 1996; Arndt, 1993 cited in Khan 2003): It is a ―face to face meeting between the teacher and the student, and can be arranged individually and or in groups (p.7).

Written Comments (Rairnes, 1983; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Leki, 1990 cited in Khan 2003): Following this approach, teachers give feedback in written comments either ―in the margins or between the lines or at the end (p.9)

Reformulation (Cohen, 1982; Alwright, 1988 cited in Khan): Reformation focuses on global errors rather than local errors and applies rewriting strategy keeping the original idea intact.

Text Approximation (Holes, 1984 cited in Khan 2003): This is a process oriented feedback giving method which focuses on multiple drafts and revisions to ―approximate an English text of similar type‖ (p. 11).

Taped Commentary (Hyland, 1990; Schriver, 1991; Boswood & Dwyer, 1995 cited in Khan): Following this method, teachers'remarks are recorded on tape. In addition, to make the identifying process easy for the students, numbers are written on students' written text along with teacher's comment.

Grades/Numbers (Khan 2003): This is the most common method for giving feedback where teachers evaluate students' writing giving different grades (A, B, C) or number (7/10, 9/10).

Regardless of its different types, as mentioned earlier, feedback should be weighed in terms of what it offers to both teachers and students. What should also be done is to consider what constitutes a good feedback practice. According to Nicol (2007), good feedback practice should:

1. Help clarify what good performance is (goals, criteria, standards).To what extent do students in your course have opportunities to engage actively with goals, criteria and standards, before, during and after an assessment task?

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2. Encourage 'time and effort' on challenging learning tasks. To what extent do your assessment tasks encourage regular study in and out of class and deep rather than surface learning?

3. Deliver high quality feedback information that helps learners self-correct. What kind of teacher feedback do you provide – in what ways does it help students self-assess and self-correct?

4. Encourage positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem. To what extent do your assessments and feedback processes activate your students' motivation to learn and be successful?

5. Encourage interaction and dialogue around learning (peer and teacher student. What opportunities are there for feedback dialogue (peer and/or tutor-student) around assessment tasks in your course?

6. Facilitate the development of self-assessment and reflection in learning. To what extent are there formal opportunities for reflection, self-assessment or peer assessment in your course?

7. Give learners choice in assessment – content and processes. To what extent do students have choice in the topics, methods, criteria, weighting and/or timing of learning and assessment tasks in your course?

8. Involve students in decision-making about assessment policy and practice. To what extent are your students in your course kept informed or engaged in consultations regarding assessment decisions?

9. Support the development of learning communities. To what extent do your assessments and feedback processes help support the development of learning communities?

10. Help teachers adapt teaching to student needs. To what extent do your assessment and feedback processes help inform and shape your teaching?

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Université Mohamed Khider- Biskra
Faculté : LETTRES ET LANGUES
Département : LANGUE ET LITERATURE ANGLAISE

جامـعة مـحمد خيضر بسكـرة
كلـية : ادب و لغات
قـسم : اللغة و الادب الانجليزي

Theme 6: Course and Syllabus Design

Duration: 4 sessions (06 hours)

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6.1 An Overview

Before one tackles what a course is and how it is designed, introducing what learning is and how it is perceived seems to be worth mentioning. Learning is viewed as a process which takes place in the mind and which is reflected by the students' performances. Learning is then supposed to make changes in students' knowledge, beliefs, behaviours, and in the way they think and act. In other words, learning rests heavily on what students do; i.e. it results from the way they act and react through their own experiences (Ambrose et al., 2010, p. 3). The principles of learning are also worth mentioning here. From a holistic perspective, there are seven principles which work together to highlight various issues related to student learning (ibid, pp. 4-6). These principles are:

Students' prior knowledge can help or hinder learning: Students come into new courses with previous knowledge. When they use this knowledge to deal with a different situation, it influences their learning of new items. If students' prior knowledge is firm and appropriate, it provides facilitates the building new knowledge and vice versa.

How students organize knowledge influences how they learn and apply what they know: Naturally, when they learn, students build meaningful and organized structures of knowledge which they use to retrieve and process new information effectively and efficiently. If these structures are accurate or deliberate, students will succeed in the new course or class. However, if these structures are inaccurate or random, they may fail to pursue the new experience.

Students' motivation determines, directs, and sustains what they do to learn: Motivation plays a crucial role in guiding the students' leaning and in producing the quality of the learned behaviours or performances. If students are motivated by the learning goal or activity and by the environment, they will achieve better. Motivation determines their actions and reactions.

To develop mastery, students must acquire component skills, practice integrating them, and know when to apply what they have learned: Students must not only focus on the skills and knowledge which help them to perform the classroom tasks, but they must also benefit from these skills and knowledge to develop greater fluency and automaticity. Then, it is the teachers' responsibility to raise the students' awareness about how to learn more effectively.

Goal-directed practice coupled with targeted feedback enhances the quality of students' learning: The practice that focuses on a specific goal or criterion is more beneficial for students.

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This type of practice is better reinforced by the teacher's feedback because students may need explicit guidance and explanation which allow them to perform the tasks required.

Students' current level of development interacts with the social, emotional, and intellectual climate of the course to impact learning: While learning, students continue to develop their intellectual, social, and emotional skills. The intervention o teachers here could be at the level of shaping the intellectual, social, emotional, and physical aspects of the classroom climate. The learning climate which teachers may improve or, at least, ameliorate can strengthen students' learning.

To become self-directed learners, students must learn to monitor and adjust their approaches to learning: Despite the fact that they not easy to fulfill, students need to develop the skills which enable them to engage in such processes as monitoring and controlling their learning, employing various strategies, and assessing and evaluating the level of their achievement. If they endeavour to do so, they gain intellectual habits that improve both their performance effectiveness as learners.

Based on the above principles, teachers can develop a clear picture of how to design a course or syllabus. Simply stated, designing a course should start by designing real learning experiences on the part of teachers. Larry Spence (2001) stated that" We won't meet the needs for more and better higher education until professors become designers of learning experiences and not teachers" (Cited in Fink, 2013, p. 1). Many studies have shown that the basic problem is that students are required to achieve higher kinds of learning; i.e. officials want to produce students who are able to retain information, develop an ability to transfer knowledge, develop skill in thinking or problem solving, achieve affective outcomes, but teachers are still using traditional and ineffective forms of teaching (ibid, p. 3). Also, it must be perceived that because any act of teaching is preceded by planning, "the most successful teaching begins, therefore, with clarity about desired learning outcomes and about the evidence that will show that learning has occurred"(Wiggins and McTighe,2011p.7). On the other hand, the success of the course is not only determined by the plan and objectives, but by the syllabus which offers more details. According to Slattery and Carlson (2005),

> The success of the course is determined by how well the objectives and the outline are designed. A carefully planned, clearly written, comprehensive syllabus is one of the most important and valuable resources which can be provided to the students. It may prevent the misunderstandings in terms of course goals and objectives, assessment and evaluation standards, grading policies, student or faculty behavior, assignments, readings, and activities (Cited in Tokatlı and Keúli, 2009, p. 1492)

6. 2 Definitions

* **Programme of study:** A set of courses undertaken by a student towards a qualification and the requirements a student must comply with to gain that qualification.

(Centre for Academic Development and Academic Office, 2015, p. 1)

* **Course:** An individual unit of study towards a qualification, identified by a course code and title carrying a specified points value. (ibid)

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* **A curriculum** defines the learning that is expected to take place during a course or programme of study in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes. It specifies teaching, learning and assessment methods and indicates the learning resources required to support effective delivery. One of the

primary functions of a curriculum is to provide a framework or design which enables learning to take place. A syllabus is the part of a curriculum that describes the content of a program.

(Mckimm, J. and Barrow, J. M, 2009, p. 714)

* At the lowest level, **the syllabus** may simply be a reminder or a list of things to do for the busy teacher who has little classroom planning time. However, a good syllabus does much more than that. A well-written syllabus could provide a doorway into the pedagogical beliefs of the teacher (or the course writer).   (Murphy, S. R, 2018, p. 1)

* A course presentation or syllabus is written by an instructor and given to students at the beginning of a course. It contains information from the course outline and information specific to that particular section of the course. Typically it lists texts and materials, the precise evaluation scheme to be used, the instructor's policy on late assignments, the tentative schedule of topics, the instructor's office hours and ….   (Kwantlen Course Outline Manual, 2009, p.3)

* Allen (1984) defines **'Curriculum'** is a very general concept, considering philosophical, social and administrative factors in view of planning of an educational programme. Then 'Syllabus' is referring to the subpart of a curriculum, concerned with the specification of what units will be taught. According to Noss and Rodgers (1976), a language syllabus is a set of justifiable, educational objectives specified in terms of linguistic content. Here the specification of objectives must have something to do with language form or substance, such as the use of language in situations, or language as a means of communication.   (Cited in Sekhar and Swathi, 2019, p. 4)

6. 3 Main Principles of Syllabus Design

One of the most important definitions of 'SYLLABUS' in which there is a clear distinction between curriculum and syllabus, and between the "what to teach" (content) and the "how to teach it "(methodology) was given by Allen (1984, p. 61). It says:

> . . . curriculum is a very general concept which involves consideration of the whole complex of philosophical, social and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an educational program. Syllabus, on the other hand, refers to that subpart of curriculum which is concerned with a specification of what units will be taught (as distinct from how they will be taught, which is a matter for methodology)(Cited in Nunan, 1988,p. 6)

This definition undoubtedly gives the idea that there are many conflicting definitions of syllabus and that there is sometimes confusion between syllabus and curriculum. Equally important, it indicates that some scholars consider the syllabus to be only the content to be taught; while, other scholars see that the syllabus involves the content to be taught and the way it is going to be taught. The former has been known as the narrow view about syllabus design and the latter as the broad one. One example of the elements which constitute the syllabus (van Ek, 1975, pp. 8-9) was presented by Nunan (1988, p. 7) as follows:

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1. The situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics which will be dealt with;
2. The language activities in which the learner will engage;
3. The language functions which the learner will fulfill;
4. What the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic;
5. The general notions which the learner will be able to handle;
6. The specific (topic-related) notions which the learner will be able to handle;
7. The language forms which the learner will be able to use;
8. The degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform.

According to Nunan (ibid), some of the above components may go beyond the scope of syllabus design, because seem to be derived from both the narrow and the broad view about syllabus design. He concludes (ibid, p. 12) this point by saying:

> A given syllabus will specify all or some of the following: grammatical structures, functions, notions, topics, themes, situations, activities, and tasks. Each of these elements is either product or process oriented, and the inclusion of each will be justified according to beliefs about the nature of language, the needs of the learner, or the nature of learning

6.4 Main Types of Syllabi

Sabbah (2018, p. 129) mentions that according to Long and Crookes (1992) and Long and Robinson (1998) there are two major types of syllabi: Product-Oriented Syllabi and ProcessOriented Syllabi. The former relies on a selection of graded items to be learned and focuses on the students' knowledge as an ultimate objective (reaching a product); whereas, the latter focuses on the pedagogical processes of the outcomes of both teaching and learning (experiencing things). Thakur (2013) explains that "The grammatical, lexical, situational, and notional-functional are the example of synthetic/product-oriented syllabus…..Procedural, process and task syllabuses are examples of analytic/process-oriented syllabi" (p. 207). Below are a few examples of syllabi as described by Thakur (ibid, pp. 209-212)

* Structural/formal Syllabus: The structural syllabus is, doubtless, the most familiar of syllabus types (Krahnke, 1987). The underlying assumption behind grammatical syllabus is that language is system which consists of a set of grammatical rules; learning language means learning these rules and applying them to practical language use. The learner is expected to master each structural step and add it to his/her grammar collection…

* The Lexical Syllabus: Wills et al, 1990 pleads that "taking lexis as a starting point enabled us to identify the commonest meanings and patterns in English and to offer students a picture which is typical of the way English is used". The emergence of lexical syllabus was a reaction against traditional structural syllabus. The basic principle on which the syllabus is based is that students must be able to understand and use lexical phrases….

* Situational Syllabus: The situational syllabus appeared as an alternative to the grammatical syllabus. Palmer and Hornby believed that a grammatical or structural syllabus was neither efficient, nor effective for language learning since this model offers language sample outside their social and

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cultural contexts which makes transfer of learning from the classroom to the real world quite difficult…. It is based on the view that language always occurs in a social context and the teaching of language should not be isolated from its context. With this type of syllabus, the essential component of organization is a non-linguistic category i.e. the situation….

* The Procedural Syllabus: The procedural syllabus is based on a "learning centered" approach to language teaching. The syllabus was proposed by Prabhu (1980) in the 'Bangalore Project' in India. His work is based on the principles that the learning is best carried out when attention is concentrated on meaning. The focus shifts from the linguistic aspect to the pedagogical one focusing learning or the learner….The learners are expected to do is to solve problems and complete their tasks by using English. In due course, it is supposed that the grammatical system of the language will be covered through a meaningful interaction between the teacher and the learners. ……

* The Process Syllabus: The design of this syllabus is based on how learners approach learning. It provides a bridge between content and method. This syllabus is designed for classroom work. It explicitly attends to teaching and learning and particularly the interrelationship between subject matter, learning and the potential contributions of a classroom. It gives the participants opportunity to do these things by themselves and create their own syllabus in the classroom (Breen, 1987).

6.4 Course Design

One of the aspects that ensure quality in education is curriculum or course design. Many models, in fact, have so far been proposed to help teachers to teach better and students to reach the institution's or faculty's goals. A good example of these models which attempts to meet the needs of students and expectations of teachers was put forward by Narcisa (2014). It involves nine (9) steps as follows:

1. Identification of determinant factors for a successful design of a course (learning outcomes, course content and structure, teaching-learning processes and evaluation);

2. Establishing fundamental teaching-learning philosophy (student centered approach and/ teacher centered approach);

3. Establishing course goals and objectives according to general outcomes of the study program (Which are the outputs of the study program? Why should students take this course? What should students be able to do at the end of the course?) ;

4. Establishing content and course sequences (arrangement of the topics/subjects of the course in a natural and logical progression);

5. Developing the evaluation strategy of learning outcomes;

6. Designing the teaching and learning process;

7. Identification of possible configurations of the course;

8. Establishing final configuration;

9. Course evaluation (Criúan, 2012).

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Following this aim of designing a syllabus or a curriculum, Diamond (2008, p. 6) calls for keeping in mind the important relationship between goals, outcomes, and assessment. This relation is always true and valid, be it in a curriculum, a course, or a unit or element within a course (ibid):

1. The outcome statements that are produced for the curriculum will be the basis on which the primary goals of each course within that curriculum are determined.

2. The outcome statements that are produced at the course level will be the basis on which the primary goals of each unit or element within that course are determined.

3. As you move from the curriculum to the courses within it, and to the individual units or elements within each course, the goal and outcome statements become more specific.

4. The success of your effort will be determined by how well your students meet the criteria for success as defined in the outcome statements at the course and unit or course element level.

What could be noticed and understood from the above remarks is that teachers or experts need to identify goals before they tackle the aspects of content and assessment in curriculum or course design. In addition, these goals are characterized by a gradual move from general to specific, which goes hand in hand with the move from curriculum to course to units and elements. It could also be noticed that all efforts should be jointly made to facilitate effective learning in today's classrooms. This can also be ensured, besides the aforementioned elements, by the choice of the teaching methods. Taylor (n. d, p. 6) stated that:

> Essentially the curriculum is an interaction between aims and objectives, methods of assessment, teaching methods and content. With respect to the teaching methods to be incorporated into the programme, it is worth noting that the way in which students are taught affects the student experience. Choice, and varying teaching methods and assessment, may even be of greater significance to what students learn than the content that is being taught.

Another model of course and curriculum design was proposed by Stefani (2009, p. 50). It includes these steps:

1. Consider your general aims for the course/programme.

2. Write specific learning outcomes (objectives): what do you want the students to learn?•Plan the assessment framework to match your objectives.

3. Plan the content, i.e. sequence of topics/readings.

4. Plan the teaching/learning design – what kinds of activities will you and your students engage in together?

5. Compile a list of resources.

6. Write the course outline including readings.

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5. Consider evaluation of the course (formative and summative) and how best evaluation can be carried out.

Here, the author insists on the idea that the models of curriculum design described in this way "indicate that assessment strategies should be considered once the intended learning outcomes have been agreed upon and articulated. Designing the curriculum in this manner may be considered to be a 'logical' model of curriculum development as opposed to a chronological model." In the 'logical' model approach, assessment is integrated or included in the students' learning; while, in the 'chronological' approach, assessment is placed at the end; it is a fundamental part of the students' learning.

6.4.1 Elements of Course Design

Felder and Brent (2003) told us that course design requires efforts at three levels. First, course content and learning objectives must be identified. Next, the methods of content delivery must be selected and implemented. Finally, assessment and evaluation methods must be selected and employed to check whether the course objectives have been achieved (p. 8-9).

In a study entitled "Designing an EAP Course", Klimova advocated the idea that English for Academic Purposes (EAP) can play an important role in helping learners to acquire EAP skills. These teachers may start with analyzing their students' needs to select the appropriate content and to decide on the tasks and teaching methods which facilitate for them to achieve the desired goals.

To help teachers to design this course, the author suggests the procedure below:

1. Conduct needs analysis and set course objectives (data on students' specific needs must be collected);

2. Create syllabus design (a syllabus for an EAP blended writing course is recommended);

3. Develop course materials and tasks (no textbook or workbook are used and the materials and tasks strive to be as authentic as possible);

4. Deliver the course (Blended courses are undoubtedly suitable for the development of writing skills);

5. Set methods of assessment (In writing classes formative and summative assessments are used);

6. Perform the evaluation of the course (ibid, p. 635-636)

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