

Balance in the Classroom

*Martin Sketchley
MA PGCert BA (Hons)
British Council Bucharest,
Romania*

Abstract

Since the introduction of Dogme ELT, there have been no previous studies or research into this proposed technique of language teaching. The talk at the Romanian American University looked at the three key tenets of Dogme ELT, the basis of Dogme ELT in relation to action led research which focused on teacher and student opinions of Dogme ELT, whether teachers were unknowingly incorporating any of the three basic principles of this technique with finally the talk questioning whether teacher focused classes were the way forward in the English language classroom and recommended best practice with a 'balanced approach' with language teaching, dependent upon student expectation. Language Teaching, Methods & Approaches to Second Language Acquisition, Second Language Learning, Dogme ELT, & English Language Teaching

Keywords

Language Teaching, Methods & Approaches to Second Language Acquisition, Second Language Learning, Dogme ELT, & English Language Teaching

Dogme ELT: Key Constructs

Dogme ELT was initially coined by Scott Thornbury, as a consequence of a group of Danish film makers deciding to cleanse any film production from unnecessary artificiality (fittingly termed Dogme 95) during the 1990s. Thornbury (2000) noted that with Dogme 95, any filming “must be done on location” (Von Trier & Vinterberg 2005 p. 88) with relevant props only suitable if they are located where the filming is taking place. Thornbury related the principles of Dogme 95 to the teaching of English as a Foreign Language (henceforth EFL), reflecting that teaching should be accomplished “using only the resources that teachers and students bring to the classroom ... and whatever happens to be in the classroom” (Thornbury 2000 p. 2) with the expectation of a room containing chairs, a board, a teacher and some students. Furthermore, Thornbury (2000) stated that ‘imported methods’, such as the Silent Way, Natural Approach or Communicative Language Teaching (henceforth CLT), should not interfere with “the free flow of participant-driven input, output and feedback” (ibid p.2). As there has been very

little published on Dogme ELT (per se) and is regarded as a relatively new concept of teaching, the literature review will focus on the three key tenets of teaching unplugged and its relation to SLA theory and teaching methodology.

Conversation driven

The most important tenet of Dogme ELT, proposed by Meddings & Thornbury (2009), is that the classroom should focus on a ‘*conversation driven*’ principle. Nonetheless, what is meant by the term ‘*conversation*’? Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2008) defines ‘*conversation*’ as the “talk between two or more people in which thoughts, feelings and ideas are expressed, questions are asked and answered, or news and information are exchanged” (ibid p. 306). Conversation is also described by Thornbury & Slade (2006) as “the kind of speech that happens informally, symmetrically and for the purposes of establishing and maintaining social ties” (ibid p. 25). It is interesting to note that there is an association of informality related to the term ‘*conversation*’, as the most important tenet of Dogme ELT requires the incorporation and practice of a ‘*conversation driven*’ attitude. Naturally, one would question the suitability of incorporating ‘*conversation*’ within the classroom due to its ‘*informal*’ association. Nevertheless, Farrington (1981) noted that a ‘*conversation class*’ would be more popular among intermediate to advanced levels of adult students (ibid p. 241). Due to Farrington’s observation, this raises the question whether the conversation driven element of Dogme ELT is suitable for only students which have the language ability of intermediate or above. Farrington (1981) also observed that any form of unplanned conversation would encourage particular students to speak with other remaining learners bored, shy or irritated (ibid p. 241). However, the principle of a ‘*conversation driven*’ approach within Dogme ELT emphasises that:

1. Conversation is language at work.
2. Conversation is discourse.
3. Conversation is interactive, dialogic and communicative.
4. Conversation scaffolds learning.
5. Conversation promotes socialisation.

(Meddings & Thornbury 2009 p.8)

The origins of teaching ‘*interactive, dialogic and communicative*’ conversation, through “language functions and communication” (Hall 2011 p. 93), was initially introduced with the use of Communicative Language Teaching (henceforth CLT).

Communicative Language Teaching

CLT originated during the 1960s and 1970s in response to Situational Language Teaching (henceforth SLT), whereby SLT “was taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities” (Richards & Rodgers 2001 p. 153). It has been noted that the communicative approach to language teaching can mean “many different things to different people” (Savignon & Berns 1983 p. 2) with the adoption of various materials, approaches and styles of teaching (ibid). Furthermore, the perception of ambiguity within CLT, whereby it means “a multitude of different things to different people” (Harmer 2003 p. 289), causes teachers to misunderstand or misapply CLT within the classroom (Scrivener 2011 p. 31). Nonetheless, CLT “makes use of real-life situations that necessitate communication” (CAL, 1993) with teachers preparing activities that learners are likely to encounter outside the classroom. However, the incorporation of authentic materials, with anticipated ‘*real-life*’ encounters, within the classroom is not without contention. Swan (1985b) proposes that authenticity provides learners the opportunity to have “a taste of ‘real’ language in use” (p.85) whilst Tennant (2011) regard the use of authentic materials, which have been imported into the classroom away from their original context, could lose their authenticity (ibid p. 13). Nonetheless, Sayer (2005) noted that with CLT, students are “guided through the conversations aided by the use of role cards, diagramming, or other types of prompts” (ibid p. 14), with the objective to prompt learners to improve their communicative skills. Furthermore, Sayer (2005) also observed that once learners’ levels improve, students require less prompting and are able to communicate more effectively. CLT also “refers to both processes and goals in classroom learning” (Savignon 2002 p. 1) with a primary aim of ‘*communicative competence*’ (ibid). ‘*Communicative competence*’ was first referred to by sociolinguistics (Hymes 1971 in Savignon 2002) and is regarded as “the ability to make language relevant to the context and ... sustain the context through language” (Duranti 2001 p. 39). Sociolinguistics considers “language use in communication is central to the linguistic process and to development” (Owens 2008 p. 45). It is important to note that a “communicative movement in ELT encompasses all modes of language use” (Hedge 2000 p. 45), either spoken or written English, with CLT incorporating either of these productive skills. However, the aim of teaching CLT is to focus on ‘*real-life*’ language (Hall 2011 p. 93) with the use of materials and prompting. Interestingly, Richards & Rodgers (2001) noted that a communicative teaching approach could incorporate elements of task-based material if “activities have been prepared to support Communicative Language Teaching classes” (ibid p. 169).

Task-Based Learning

The first point of a ‘*conversation driven*’ principle is considered by Meddings & Thornbury (2009) that conversation is ‘*language at work*’ which attempts to focus on the naturalistic attitude to language acquisition, such as “a ‘fluency-first’ approach” (ibid p. 9). Task-based learning (henceforth TBL), also recognised as task-based teaching or task-based instruction, “refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching” (Richards & Rodgers 2001 p. 223). TBL ensures learners focus on completing a task or problem, rather than focus on the structure of language (Harmer 2007 p. 71). Interestingly, TBL considers conversation and spoken communication as the primary focus of language learning and the foundation for language acquisition (Richards & Rodgers 2001 p. 228) which respects the ‘*conversation driven*’ principle of Dogme ELT and also supports the assertion from Meddings & Thornbury (2009) that a “Dogme approach shares many of the beliefs and features of a task-based approach” (ibid p. 9). Although, TBL share similar pedagogical principles of language learning towards CLT (Richards & Rodgers 2001 p. 228), there are additional principles which are considered important for TBL. As Richards & Rodgers (2001) highlight, these additional principles for TBL include the observation that task-based activities provide learners both Input and Output processing necessary for language acquisition, task achievement is intrinsically motivating for language learners and also provides learners the opportunity to learn specific aspects of language which have originated from particular tasks (ibid pp. 228-229). Nonetheless, the definition of ‘*task*’ can vary among teachers yet “there is a commonsensical understanding that a task is an activity or goal that is carried out using language” (Richard & Rodgers 2001 p. 224). The pedagogical approach for TBL is split between three stages: ‘***Pre-task***’, ‘***Task cycle***’ as well as ‘***Language focus***’ (please see Figure 1 below).

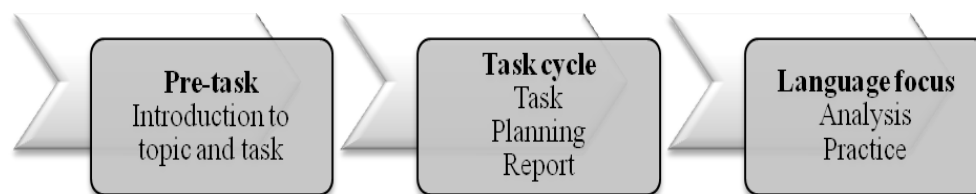


**Figure 1: The Willis TBL framework
(adapted from Harmer 2007 p. 71)**

Willis (1996) noted that the tasks and activities incorporated within the TBL approach promotes learner awareness of ‘*language form*’ which encourage language learners to become more “conscious of particular language features” (ibid p. 16) and are also considered more beneficial than ‘*form-focused*’ activities. ‘*Form-focused*’ activities have primarily been regarded as “uncontextualized grammar exercises, substitution drills, and pronunciation drills” (Littlewood 2004 p. 322). Littlewood (2004) also noted that there were two dimensions in association with ‘*tasks*’ with one end of the continuum which focuses on forms whilst the opposite concentrated on the focus of meaning (ibid pp. 321-322). Therefore, one can note that there is a constant shift between the two dimensions of ‘*form-focused*’ and ‘*meaning-focused*’ activities. Figure 2 below highlights the pedagogical implications when teachers pursue focus on forms and focus on meaning activities.

Focus on forms		←	→	Focus on meaning
Non-communicative learning	Pre-communicative language practice	Communicative language practice	Structured communication	Authentic communication
Focusing on the structures of language, how they are formed and what they mean, e.g. substitution exercises, ‘discovery’ and awareness-raising activities	Practising language with some attention to meaning but not communicating new messages to others, e.g. ‘question-and-answer’ practice	Practising pre-taught language in a context where it communicates new information, e.g. information-gap activities or ‘personalized’ questions	Using language to communicate in situations which elicit pre-learnt language, but with some unpredictability, e.g. structured role-play and simple problem-solving	Using language to communicate in situations where the meanings are unpredictable, e.g. creative role-play, more complex problem-solving and discussion
‘Exercises’	←	(Ellis)	→	‘Tasks’
‘Enabling tasks’	←	(Estaire and Zanon)	→	‘Communicative tasks’

Figure 2: The continuum from focus on forms to focus on meaning
(Littlewood 2004 p.322)

Ellis (2000) suggested that learners which participate with form-focused ‘*exercises*’ are “primarily engaged in producing correct linguistic forms” (ibid p. 196), while meaning-focused ‘*tasks*’ are “primarily engaged in trying to communicate content” (ibid p. 196). Furthermore, when one considers the two distinctions between ‘*form*’ and ‘*meaning*’, in the communicative sense, it is

closely related to aspects of conversational learner production skills: ‘*accuracy*’ and ‘*fluency*’. The term ‘accuracy’ has been defined as “the ability of the learner to perform in accordance with target language norms” (Ellis 2000 p. 202), whereas ‘fluency’ is regarded as “the capacity of the learner to mobilize his/her system to communicate in real time” (ibid p. 202). There is some suggestion that teachers, within the classroom, are constantly switching between tasks that focus on fluency and accuracy (Harmer 2007 pp. 142-142 & Scrivener 2011 pp. 224-245). However, Scrivener (2011) suggests that there are some lessons that work “on both accuracy and fluency in relatively equal measures” (ibid p. 224). Interestingly, Ellis (2000) suggests a third distinction in relation to TBL which is regarded as communicative ‘*complexity*’ which is described as “the utilization of interlanguage structures that are ‘cutting edge’, elaborate and structured” (ibid p. 202). Nonetheless, it is important to note, in relation to Dogme ELT, a ‘*conversation driven*’ principle should encourage focus on meaning (as demonstrated above) and the ‘*tasks*’ proposed in “Teaching Unplugged” (2009) are expected to develop, train and improve a student’s overall fluency. When one considers ‘*accuracy*’ and ‘*fluency*’ within the context of SLA theory, there is a close relationship with ‘*competence*’. Chomsky primarily referred to ‘*competence*’ as the “abstract and hidden representation of language knowledge” (Mitchell & Myles 2004 p. 10) with a competent communicator “able to conceive, formulate, modulate, and issue messages” (Owens Jr. 2008 p. 9) successfully. Nevertheless, the question arises how teachers are able to improve a learner’s communicative competency in their second language.

Scaffolding Language

In respect for the first tenet of Dogme ELT, as well as the improvement of an English learner’s language competence, which also supports the ‘*conversation driven*’ principle, is related to ‘*scaffolding*’. Ellis (1997) has described ‘*scaffolding*’ as the “the process by which learners utilize discourse to help them construct structures that lie outside their competence” (ibid p. 143). From an interactional perspective, ‘*scaffolding*’ offers language learners the opportunity to improve relevant input and offer instances of negotiation of meaning, conversational repair, etc. (Mitchell & Myles 2004 p. 210). An interactional approach is related to pedagogical methodologies such as a Task-Based Approach, Whole Language or Content Language Learning to name a few (Richards & Rogers 2001 p. 22). Nonetheless, ‘*scaffolding*’ provides language learners the chance to improve ‘*communicative competence*’ through the assistance of interaction. Interestingly,

there are some preconceptions that ‘*scaffolding*’ occurs between the language learner and the teacher, yet Harris (2007) suggests that language learners can assist each other with ‘*scaffolding*’. However, as Harris (2007) highlights, student-to-student ‘*scaffolding*’ techniques are available and require greater learner training and awareness. Nevertheless, ‘*scaffolding*’ is related to sociocultural theory of language acquisition which is considered “a collaborative process whereby learners appropriate the language of the interaction as their own” (Ohta 2000 p. 51). Scaffolding in the language classroom is related to Vygotsky’s concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (henceforth ZPD) which suggests that this model “is the difference between what a learner can do without help and what they can do with the help of the teacher” (Wisniewska 2010 p. 18). Additionally, as mentioned previously by Harris (2007), the scaffolding of language for learners can occur between the learners themselves. Nonetheless, Wisniewska (2010) notes that a particular role for a teacher, although in a one-to-one learning context, which complements the theory of ZPD, is that of a ‘conversation partner’ (pp. 18-20). However, there are challenges with the sociocultural opinion of interactional language acquisition and this is demonstrated below:

- a) “Some individuals are able to achieve a relatively advanced level of L2 proficiency without the benefit of any interpersonal communication or opportunity to negotiate meaning in the language with others.”
- b) “Some individuals engage in extensive interaction with speakers of another language without learning that language to any significant degree.”

(Saville-Troike 2006 p. 116)

The examples above might be related to the culture and previous learning experience for particular language learners. Ellis (1996) suggests that there are several teacher roles expected by language learners and that the cultural appropriacy of learning relates to correct selection of teaching methods and approaches (pp. 213-214). Furthermore, interaction has to be culturally appropriate for the target learner otherwise the development of motivation or ‘communicative competence’ would be less successful (Ellis 1996 pp. 213-218).

Materials Light

The second tenet for Dogme ELT is the emphasis on ‘*materials light*’ which suggests that textbooks are primarily used to “promote the delivery and consumption of ‘grammar McNuggets’” (Meddings & Thornbury 2009 p. 12) with,

to some degree, “an over-reliance on [imported] materials” (Thornbury & Meddings 2003 p. 15) by language teachers. However, the term ‘*materials light*’ is something that is largely related to the banishment of coursebooks from the ELT classroom (Meddings & Thornbury 2009 pp. 11-16). Nevertheless, within “Teaching Unplugged” (2009), there is no explicit explanation of the term ‘*materials*’ yet Thornbury (2006) defines the term ‘*materials*’ as the inclusion of “coursebooks, workbooks, visual aids, charts, board games, Cuisenaire rods, audio and video materials, as well as the software that is run by computers, data projectors and interactive whiteboards” (ibid p. 127). One major criticism regarding an over-emphasis of materials with language learners is highlighted below:

“Drumming material in through practice activities runs the risk that all the compliant and talented learners will do is learn to produce what the teacher wants, under classroom conditions, and that such learning may not truly take root”.

(Skehan 2002 p. 290)

Essentially, materials, particularly coursebooks, could hinder the possibility and potential to focus, with learners, on exploratory teaching. Thus, the paradigm with materials should be re-focused towards the learners with less emphasis on top-down grammar based lessons. However, Meddings & Thornbury (2009) are suggesting that they are not ‘anti-materials’ but they reject materials which appear unconventional towards the other principles of Dogme ELT. Materials which could support a ‘*conversation driven*’ principle, with a focus on ‘*emergent language*’, could include prompts, role cards or other suitable materials which promote “talk-mediated learning opportunities that are so crucial for learning” (Meddings & Thornbury 2009 p. 12). Nevertheless, coursebooks essentially, whether preferred or not, represents “the visible heart of any ELT programme” (Sheldon 1988 p. 238). It is recognised that coursebooks provide teachers with material which can be used if there are time constraints and the coursebooks can foster ‘*unit-by-unit*’ progression as well as provide materials for learners to review at a later date (Harmer 2007 p. 181). Conversely, there are a number of reservations with the use of coursebooks which include prescribing and imposing specific learning styles on the students in class (Harmer 2007 pp. 181-182). Furthermore, coursebooks “give little opportunity or encouragement to adapt ... to the needs, wants, personalities, or styles of the learners or teachers” (Tomlinson et al 2001 p. 83). Hall (2011) also noted that if decisions are solely based on coursebooks, rather than decision based solely on the learners, teachers could become ‘de-skilled’ (p. 214). Thus, this raises the question: “What material supports Dogme ELT?”

Learner-Based Teaching

Learner-based teaching proposes methods to avoid over-dependence with coursebooks (Cambell & Kryszewska 1992 p. 7). It is proposed, that materials include the learners, pens, papers as well as classroom furniture (Cambell & Kryszewska 1992 p. 7). This assertion is related to a '*materials light*' principle of Dogme ELT, whereby the classroom is "simply a room with a few chairs, a blackboard, a teacher and some learners" (Meddings & Thornbury 2009, p. 12). Essentially, both Dogme ELT and learner-based teaching incorporate more humanistic aspects of language acquisition: providing learners with 'space' to interact and communicate in language. For example, humanistic teaching "engages the whole person, including the emotions and feelings ... as well as linguistic knowledge and behavioral [sic] skills" (Richards & Rodgers 2001 p. 90). Cadorath & Harris (1998) noted the importance to provide learner space to allow conversation to flourish in the classroom with unplanned and unpredicted interactions. Notwithstanding, materials which support the principles of Dogme ELT are suggested as newspapers, magazines, objects, photos as well as text messages (Meddings & Thornbury 2009 pp. 48-59). All these materials, it is proposed, provide stimuli to prompt 'real-life' conversation among learners and teachers. However, are there any differences between learner-based teaching and a learner-centred curriculum? Interestingly, teachers preparing materials and planning lessons based upon the learners' communicative goals is one of the key proponents of, not just learner-based teaching, but a principle of a learner-centred curriculum (Nunan 1988 p. 62). With learner-responsive material, students would expect material to support "what they need to be able to do outside [of the classroom]" (Nunan 1988 p. 99) with some respect towards authenticity. It is recognised that "authentic materials motivate learners because they are intrinsically more interesting" (Peacock 1997 p. 144). However, as previously highlighted with CLT and TBL, if one imports authentic material away from their context it could become unauthentic and inappropriate for learners. In some respects, Dogme ELT is seeking to support '*learner authenticity*' with material that is recognised by students so that it relates "to his [or her] interests, background knowledge and experience, and through these, stimulate genuine communication" (Nunan 1988 p. 102). Yet, it must be recognised, with a learner-centred curriculum as well as Dogme ELT, that various materials are incorporated to prompt genuine conversation and develop natural language that emerges with classroom interaction. Nonetheless, although one of the principles of Dogme ELT proposes a '*materials light*' emphasis, appropriate materials, in some form or other, can offer learners the possibility to prompt and encourage natural conversation.

Emergent Language

The third and final tenet of Dogme ELT is regarded as a focus on ‘*emergent language*’. However, what does ‘*emergent language*’ mean? When considering the distinction between traditional grammar-based methods and approaches compared to more recent communicative-based methods (such as the CLT), grammar accuracy practice, such as drills and repetition, have been replaced by fluency based activities (Richards 2006 p. 8). With a fluency-first approach to language acquisition, ‘*emergent language*’ is associated with usage-based descriptions of second language acquisition and connectionism (Thornbury 2006 pp. 47-48 & p. 235). It is noted that “emergentism is an alternative to both nativism and behaviourism and a subtle combination of the two” (Owens 2008 p. 51), whereby “language is an emergent phenomenon, driven by massive exposure and use” (Meddings & Thornbury 2009 p. 19). Obviously, critics raise concerns with ‘*emergent language*’ based upon an apparent lack of structure or predictable language learning (Meddings & Thornbury p. 18). However, EFL teachers should note that traditional language lessons, which follow a grammar-based syllabus, are not sufficient enough for language learners to gain appropriate proficiency in English (van Lier 1996 p. 42). Nonetheless, to promote ‘*emergent language*’ it is necessary to relate Vygotsky’s ZPD theory of scaffolding with language learning (Thornbury 2001 pp. 53-55). With this in mind, we can see how ‘*emergent language*’ and a ‘*conversation driven*’ approach to Dogme ELT are closely related, with both basic principles complementing one another. Nonetheless, there is a suggestion by Meddings & Thornbury (2009) that responsive teaching, during natural classroom interaction, provides further opportunities for teachers to scaffold ‘*emergent language*’ as well as offers possibilities for learners to ‘notice’ language. The role of ‘noticing’ in language learning offers learners the opportunity to distinguish between the “current state of their developing linguistic system, as realized in their output, and the target language system” (Thornbury 1997 p. 326). For example, teachers could incorporate a variety of techniques to increase learner ‘noticing’ opportunities such as drilling, dictation, restructuring or concordance exercises (Thornbury 2006 p. 144).

Balance in the Classroom

Dogme ELT, as highlighted, is considered to be the incorporation of various methods, approaches and techniques such as TBL, CLT or the Learner-based curriculum. As Dogme ELT employs various EFL methods, approaches and

techniques, teachers who might be unaware of teaching unplugged are, as confirmed by primary research, unknowingly incorporate aspects of Dogme ELT. Nevertheless, during the action led research, teacher participants suggested that a balance between Dogme ELT with more traditional, yet structured forms, of teaching would be more suitable. For example, there is a constant struggle between satisfying student demand with material and respecting student-to-student conversation. Thus, Dogme ELT could be considered suitable depending upon the situation in the classroom and that teachers should offer learners the opportunity for a Balanced Approach (please see Figure 3 below). An Equalised Approach to teaching would offer EFL teachers the best of both worlds: the prospect lessons that offer some resemblance of structure as well as having the opportunity to respond to learner participation as well as learning opportunities which could emerge via classroom interaction. For example, selected students and teachers that participated in the research indicated that they preferred structured lessons, yet if an unexpected or unpredicted event arose in the classroom, the teacher should be willing to take advantage of potential learning opportunities, such as a conversation that has arisen from the learners.

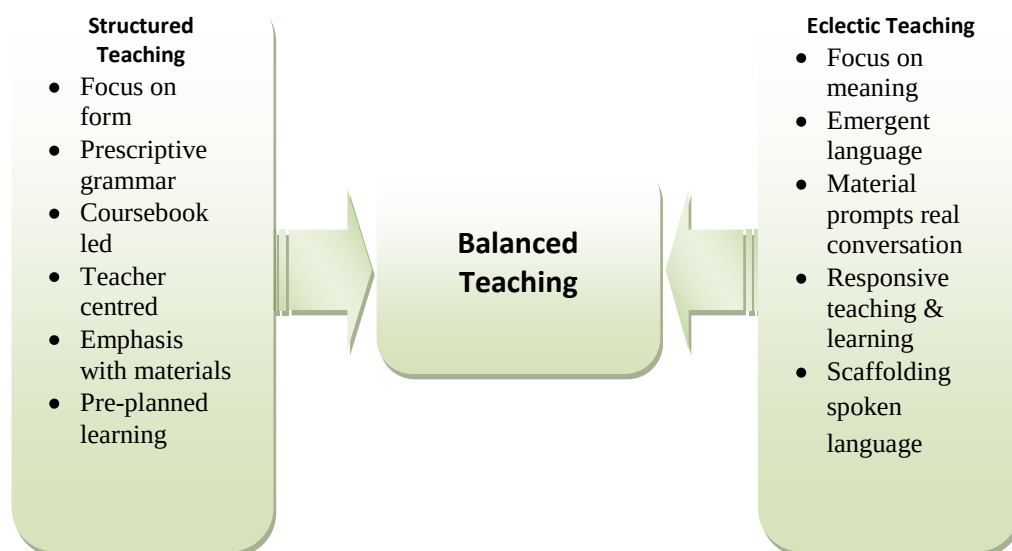


Figure 3: Suggestion of Incorporating a Balanced Approach

Recommended Reading List

1. Alden, E. (2009). 'From ZPD to ZMD'. *English Teaching Professional*, Issue 61, pp. 17-18.
2. Borg, S. (2009). 'English Language Teachers' Conceptions of Research'. *Applied Linguistics*, 30(3), pp. 358-388.
3. Brown, J. D. (1988). *Understanding Research in Second Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
4. Brown, J. D. & Rodgers, T. S. (2002). *Doing Second Language Research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
5. Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary 3rd Edition (2008). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
6. Campbell, C. & Kryszewska, H. (1992). *Learner-based Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
7. Canagarajah, A. S. (2006). 'TESOL at Forty: What Are The Issues?'. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), p. 9-34.
8. Center for Applied Linguistics (1993). *Communicative Language Teaching: An Introduction And Sample Activities*. Available from: <http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/gallow01.html> (accessed 18 July 2011).
9. Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research* 2nd Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, in Richards, K (2009) 'Trends in qualitative research in language teaching since 2000'. *Language Teaching*, 42(2), p. 147-180.
10. Dörnyei, Z. (2010). *Questionnaires in Second Language Research* 2nd Edition. Abingdon: Routledge.
11. Duranti, A. (2001). *Linguistic Anthropology: A Reader*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.
12. Ellis, G. (1996). 'How culturally appropriate is the communicative approach?'. *ELT Journal*, 50(3), pp. 213-218.
13. Ellis, R. (1997). *Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
14. Ellis, R. (2000). 'Task-based research and language pedagogy'. *Language Teaching Research* 4(3), pp. 193-220.
15. Farrington, O. (1981). 'The 'Conversation Class''. *ELT Journal*, XXXV(3), pp. 241-243.
16. Hall, G. (2011). *Exploring English Language Teaching*. Abingdon: Routledge.
17. Harmer, J. (2003). 'Popular culture, methods, and context'. *ELT Journal*, 57(3), pp. 288-294.
18. Harmer, J. (2007) *The Practice of English Language Teaching* 4th Edition. Harlow: Pearson Longman.
19. Harris, S. T. (2007) 'Scaffolding'. *English Teaching Professional*, Issue 51, pp. 17-19.
20. Hedge, T. (2000) *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

21. Hymes, D. (1971). 'On Communicative Competence' in J. B. Pride and J. Holmes (eds.). *Sociolinguistics* quoted in Savignon, S. J. (2002) *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching: Concepts and Concerns in Teacher Education*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
22. Lantolf, J. P. (2000). *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
23. Littlewood, W. (2004). 'The task-based approach: some questions and suggestions'. *ELT Journal*, 58(4), pp. 319-326.
24. Meddings, L. & Thornbury, S. (2003). *Dogme still able to divide ELT*. London: Guardian News and Media Limited. Available from: www.guardian.co.uk/education/2003/apr/17/tefl.lukemeddings (accessed 11 July 2011).
25. Meddings, L. & Thornbury, S. (2009). *Teaching Unplugged*. Surrey: DELTA Publishing.
26. Mitchell, R. & Myles, F. (2004). *Second Language Learning Theories* 2nd Edition. London: Hodder Education.
27. Nitta, R. & Gardner, S. (2005). 'Consciousness-raising and practice in ELT coursebooks'. *ELT Journal*, 59(1), pp. 3-13.
28. Nunan, D. (1992). *Research Methods in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
29. Ohta, A. S. (2000). 'Rethinking interaction in SLA: Developmentally appropriate in the zone of proximal development and the acquisition of L2 grammar', in Lantolf, J. P. (ed.) *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 51-78.
30. Owens Jr., R. E. (2008). *Language Development: An Introduction*. London: Pearson.
31. Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative Language Teaching Today*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
32. Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* 2nd Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
33. Richards, K. (2009). 'Trends in qualitative research in language teaching since 2000'. *Language Teaching*, 42(2), p. 147-180.
34. Saunders, M, Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2003). *Research Methods for Business Students* 3rd Edition. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
35. Savignon, S. J. (2002). *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching: Concepts and Concerns in Teacher Education*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
36. Savignon, S. J. & Berns, M. S. (1983). *Communicative Language Teaching: Where Are We Going?* Available from: <http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED278226.pdf> (accessed 19 July 2011).
37. Sayer, P (2005). 'An intensive approach to building conversation skills'. *ELT Journal*, 59(1), p. 14-22.
38. Saville-Troike, M. (2006). *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

39. Scrivener, J. (2011). *Learning Teaching: The Essential Guide to English Language Teaching* 3rd Edition. Oxford: Macmillan Education.
40. Senior, R. (2008). 'Developing rapport'. *English Teaching Professional*, Issue 54, pp. 4-6.
41. Skehan, P. (2002). 'A non-marginal role for tasks'. *ELT Journal*, 56(3), pp. 289-295.
42. Sketchley, M. (2010). "*Teaching Unplugged*" – Book Review. Available from: <http://www.eltexperiences.com/2010/12/teaching-unplugged-book-review.html> (accessed 7 December 2010).
43. Swan, M. (1985a). 'A critical look at the Communicative Approach (1)'. *ELT Journal*, 39(1), pp. 2-12.
44. Swan, M. (1985b). 'A critical look at the Communicative Approach (2)'. *ELT Journal*, 39(2), pp. 76-87.
45. Tennant, A. (2011). 'Viewpoints: Adrian Tennant explains why 'authentic' is not always ... well, authentic!', *IATEFL Voices*, Issue 219, p. 13.
46. Thornbury, S. (2000). 'A Dogma for EFL'. *IATEFL Issues*, 153, p. 2. Available from: <http://www.thornburyscott.com/assets/dogma.pdf> (accessed 11 July 2011).
47. Thornbury, S. (2001). *Uncovering Grammar*. Oxford: Macmillan.
48. Thornbury, S. (2005). *How to teach speaking*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
49. Thornbury, S. (2006). *An A-Z of ELT: A dictionary of terms and concepts used in English Language Teaching*. Oxford: Macmillan.
50. Thornbury, S. (2011). *Twitter.com: @thornburyscott*. Thursday 1 September 2011. Available from: <http://twitter.com/#!/thornburyscott/status/109131094561001473> (accessed 1 September 2011).
51. Thornbury, S. & Slade, D. (2006). *Conversation: From description to pedagogy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
52. Tomlinson, B, Dat, B, Masuhara, H. & Rubdy, R. (2001). 'EFL courses for adults'. *ELT Journal*, 55(1), pp. 80-101.
53. Tudor, I. (1996) *Learner-centredness as Language Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
54. Van Lier, L (1996). *Interaction in the Language Classroom: Awareness, Autonomy & Authenticity*. Harlow: Longman Group Limited.
55. Von Trier, L. & Vinterberg, T. (2005). 'Dogme 95: The Vow of Chastity', in Utterson, A. (ed.) *Technology and Culture: The Film Reader*. Oxon: Routledge.
56. Willis, J. (1996). *A Framework for Task-Based Learning*. Harlow: Longman.
57. Wisniewska, I. (2010). *Learning One-to-One*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.