PART I. Write a short summary, about 50 words, of the following passage.* *(20 points)*

The crisis that burst on the world on September 11th had some uncanny echoes of the confrontation with Iraq a decade earlier. Then, Saddam Hussein was America's Public Enemy Number One. But this time he was glowering from the sidelines. And he was blatantly out of step with other government leaders in the Middle East; he alone did not condemn the levelling of the World Trade Center and the killing of thousands of people. On the contrary, Saddam Hussein clearly relished the situation. His attitude was elaborated by the Baghdad newspaper, *Al-Iraq*. 'America is on fire, and fear and horror have overtaken it... We are not gloating,' the editorial said repeatedly and unconvincingly, but the message was plain: American arrogance had been humiliated.

These sentiments were extreme. Ordinary Arabs were as stunned as anyone else around the world seeing those unbelievable television images; but for many, mixed in with the shock and sympathy for the victims, was a grim satisfaction that the invulnerability of the United States had been shattered. When asked why they felt this way, Arabs pointed to biased American support for Israel. But as we shall see, the reasons for the pervasive Arab and Muslim hostility to the United States are more complex than at first appear.

There were other responses too in the early days. Many denied that Arabs could possibly have been responsible for so appalling an attack. An odder and more revealing argument was that the Arabs were too disorganized to have carried out such a sophisticated and co-ordinated operation. If it was not the work of American fanatics, some said, then Mossad, the Israeli intelligence service, must have done it.

Middle Eastern governments reacted promptly to the September 11th attacks and—Iraq excepted—spoke with one voice. Egypt described the attacks as heinous and unimaginable; Saudi Arabia said they were inhuman and against all religious values; Jordan spoke of its sorrow at such horrible terrorist acts. These are America's allies, their reaction unsurprising.

But more strikingly, there was strong condemnation from governments at odds with Washington for years, governments it describes as sponsors of terrorism. Syria offered its condolences, denouncing 'appalling attacks' on innocent civilians. Colonel Gaddafi said Libyans should 'console the American people' after horrific attacks that should 'awaken the conscience of humanity'. In his usual eccentric style, he also called for the despatch of humanitarian aid. A few days later, Gaddafi went further and said the Americans had the right to hit back and take revenge—though such action was unlikely to do any good. Even in the Islamic Republic of Iran, where the United States is seen as the Great Satan, the atrocities seemed at first to have transformed the atmosphere. President Muhammad Khatami expressed deep regret at the terrorist killing of large numbers of defenceless American people; some people in Teheran lit candles in the street to mourn them.

The overwhelming majority of religious scholars and Islamic groups in the Middle East also condemned the massacre as contrary to Islamic teaching. Sheikh Mohammed Fadlallah, the spiritual leader of Lebanese Hezbollah, which the Americans class as a terrorist group, said the attacks were not compatible with sharia law.

So the scale of the disaster inflicted on the Americans momentarily transcended politics. The states condemning it included monarchies, theocracies, secular republics still proclaiming a worn-out Arab nationalist revolution, out-and-out tyrannies and less malevolent despotisms, one-party states and multi-party fake democracies....

*Taken from Mason, B. (2001). The street, the state, and the mosque—A Middle East dilemma. In J. Baxter & M. Downing (Eds.), *The day that shook the world: Understanding September 11th*. London: BBC News.

PART II. Write a short summary, about 50 words, of the following passage.* *(20 points)*

An issue of increasing importance in the study of second language acquisition is the role of second language anxiety. For the past three decades, a growing body of research has been devoted to examining learners' self-reported anxiety in relation to second language achievement or performance. However, as pointed out by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) and Scovel (1978), studies conducted in the 1970s were difficult to interpret because of contradictory results. For example, in their study of English-speaking French immersion

children, Swain and Burnaby (1976) found a significant negative correlation between anxiety and one measure of the children's proficiency in French, but no significant correlation with any other measures of proficiency. Chastain (1975) reported that the correlation between test anxiety and course grades was significant and negative for the audio-lingual French class, significant and positive for the traditional Spanish class, marginally positive for the traditional German class, and not significant for the traditional French class. No significant correlation was found between trait anxiety and course grades for the audio-lingual French class, traditional French class, and traditional German class although a small but significant positive correlation was found for the traditional Spanish class. Many researchers have attributed the discrepant findings in part to the use of general measures of anxiety and to the inadequate conceptualizations of second language anxiety, which did not take into consideration the unique nature of second language learning...

Since the mid 1980s, most researchers have adopted a situation-specific approach to second language anxiety and conceptualized it as a distinct form of anxiety expressed in response to second language learning rather than a manifestation of other more general types of anxiety... Gardner and MacIntyre (1993: 5) further defined second language anxiety as a stable personality trait and more specifically, "as the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient." Several anxiety measures developed in correspondence with this situation-specific perspective have been widely used among second language anxiety researchers, including Gardner and his colleagues' French Class Anxiety Scale and French Use Anxiety Scale.

With advances in measurement and theory of second language anxiety, the deleterious role of anxiety in second language acquisition has been established. Many studies have shown a negative correlation of second language anxiety with second language achievement and performance... Furthermore, the interfering effect of second language anxiety on the processes of second language learning has been supported by several experimental investigations that have tried to induce anxiety in a controlled environment... Because anxiety may have a debilitating effect on the acquisition of a second language, it is important to help learners to cope with and reduce second language anxiety.

*Taken from Cheng, Y.-S. (2001). Learners' beliefs and second language anxiety. *Concentric: Studies in English Literature and Linguistics, 27*(2), 209-223.

PART III. Read the following passage and then
1. **Summarize it in approximately 150 words** *(20 points)*, **AND**
2. **Write a detailed and persuasive response to it. You could, for example, challenge the general idea or some particular aspect of it, provide supporting evidence or arguments for the author's proposals, or apply the ideas to a particular teaching context. Be original; you should not simply restate the author's points.** *(40 points)*

What Is Task-based Language Teaching?* by David Nunan
(a condensed version)

Introduction and overview

Syllabus design is concerned with the selection, sequencing and justification of the content of the curriculum. Traditional approaches to syllabus development were concerned with selecting lists of linguistic features such as grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary as well as experiential content such as topics and themes. These sequenced and integrated lists were then presented to the methodologist, whose task it was to develop learning activities to facilitate the learning of the prespecified content.

In the last twenty years or so an alternative to traditional syllabus models has been proposed. This is known as task-based language teaching. It is the latest stage in the evolution of communicative language teaching, which was first realized at a practical level with functional-notional syllabuses and materials.

In this presentation I want to look at some of the elements that one needs to take into consideration when embracing a task-based approach to language teaching.

Questions that I want to explore include: What are tasks? What is the role of a focus on form in language learning tasks? Where do tasks come from? What is the relationship between communicative tasks in the real

world outside the classroom and pedagogical tasks? What is the relationship between tasks and language focused exercises?

Task-based syllabuses represent a particular realization of communicative language teaching. Instead of beginning the design process with lists of grammatical, functional-notional, and other items, the designer conducts a needs analysis which yields a list of the target tasks that the targeted learners will need to carry out in the 'real-world' outside the classroom. Examples of target tasks include:

Taking part in a job interview.
Completing a credit card application.
Finding one's way from a hotel to a subway station.
Checking into an hotel.

Any approach to language pedagogy will need to concern itself with three essential elements: language data, information, and opportunities for practice. In the rest of this piece I will look at these three elements from the perspective of task-based language teaching.

Language data

By language data, I mean samples of spoken and written language. I take it as axiomatic that without access to data, it is impossible to learn a language. Minimally, all that is needed to acquire a language is access to appropriate samples of aural language in contexts that make transparent the relationship between form, function and use.

In language teaching, a contrast is drawn between "authentic" and "non-authentic" data. Authentic data are samples of spoken or written language that have not been specifically written for the purposes of language teaching. "Non-authentic" data are dialogues and reading passages that HAVE been specially written.
...

Proponents of task-based language teaching have argued for the importance of incorporating authentic data into the classroom, although much has been made of the fact that authenticity is a relative matter, and that as soon as one extracts a piece of language from the communicative context in which it occurred and takes it into the classroom, one is "de-authenticating" it to a degree. However, if learners only ever encounter contrived dialogues and listening texts, the task of learning the language will be made more difficult...

The reality is, that in EFL contexts, learners need both authentic AND non-authentic data. Both provide learners with different aspects of the language.

Information

In addition to data, learners need information. They need experiential information about the target culture, they need linguistic information about target language systems, and they need process information about how to go about learning the language. They can get this information either deductively, when someone (usually a teacher) or a textbook provides an explicit explanation, or they can get it inductively. In an inductive approach, learners study examples of language and then formulate the rule.
...

Practice

The third and final essential element is practice. Unless you are extraordinarily gifted as a language learner, it is highly unlikely that you will get very far without extensive practice.

In designing practice opportunities for my learners, I distinguish between tasks, exercises and activities. A task is a communicative act that does not usually have a restrictive focus on a single grammatical structure. It also has a non-linguistic outcome. An exercise usually has a restrictive focus on a single language element, and has a linguistic outcome. An activity also has a restrictive focus on one or two language items, but also has a communicative outcome. In that sense, activities have something in common with tasks and something in common with exercises.

I distinguish between real-world or target tasks, which are communicative acts that we achieve through language in the world outside the classroom, and pedagogical tasks, which are carried out in the classroom. I

subdivide pedagogical tasks into those with a rehearsal rationale and those with a pedagogical rationale.
…

Steps in designing a task-based program

The point of departure for communicative language teaching are the three macrofunctions of language identified by Halliday (1985), namely

1. Obtaining goods and services
2. Socializing
3. Aesthetic…

The macrofunctions are elaborated as microfunctions such as:

Introducing self and others
Talking about the family
Talking about likes and dislikes
Etc.

Functional communication is then developed through pedagogical tasks. While there is a large degree of overlap between functions and tasks, the two concepts differ in that tasks are concrete and context-bound. Functions, being more general, can underpin numerous tasks.…

Pedagogically, tasks are supported by enabling skills (mastery of language systems: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation) which are developed through language exercises.

Having specified target and pedagogical tasks, the syllabus designer analyzes these in order to identify the knowledge and skills that the learner will need to have in order to carry out the tasks. The next step is to sequence and integrate the tasks with enabling exercises designed to develop the requisite knowledge and skills. As I have already indicated, one key distinction between an exercise and a task, is that exercises will have purely language related outcomes, while tasks will have non-language related outcomes, as well as language related ones.

These are the steps that I follow in creating task-based language programs:

1. Specify relevant microfunctions
2. Select and sequence real-world/target tasks
3. Create pedagogical tasks (rehearsal/activation)
4. Identify enabling skills: create communicative activities and language exercises
5. Sequence and integrate pedagogical tasks, communicative activities and language exercises

…

*In *Selected papers from the Tenth International Symposium on English Teaching* (pp. 66-72). Taipei: English Teachers' Association, Republic of China, 2001.