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ENGLISH TEACHING METHODOLOGY

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O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI
OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI

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*O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o'rta maxsus ta'lim vazirligi
tomonidan o'quv qo'llanma sifatida tavsiya etilgan*

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Ushbu o'quv qo'llanmada til o'qitishning maqsadi, tamoyillari, metod va vositalari, dars mazmuni bo'lgan metodikaning asosiy tushunchalarining ma'nosi ochib berilgan va dars hamda o'quv jarayonini tashkillashtirish bo'yicha ko'rsatmalar berilgan.

Qo'llanma pedagogik va lingvistik oliy o'quv yurtlari talaba va o'qituvchilari uchun ingliz tilini chet tili sifatida o'qitish metodikasi bo'yicha o'quv qo'llanma sifatida mo'ljallangan. Bundan tashqari, kitob maktab, litsey va kollej o'qituvchilariga katta yordam beradi.

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В данной книге раскрывается значение базовых методических понятий, таких, как цели, принципы, методы и средства обучения, содержание урока, даются особенности организации уроков и планирования учебного процесса.

Книга предназначена для использования в качестве учебного пособия по методике преподавания иностранных языков (на примере английского языка) в педагогических и лингвистических высших учебных заведениях. Она также окажет неоценимую помощь преподавателям школ, лицеев и колледжей.

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This book reveals the importance of teaching basic concepts, such as the objectives, principles, methods and means of instruction, lesson content and other features of the organization of lessons and curriculum planning.

The book is destined for use as a textbook by the method of teaching foreign languages (English) for teachers in pedagogical and linguistic universities. It also will provide invaluable assistance to teachers of schools, lyceums and colleges.

Taqrizchilar:
I.A. Siddiqova – filologiya fanlari doktori;
D.A.Abduazizova – filologiya fanlari nomzodi.

INTRODUCTION

Years of independence began to Uzbekistan with one hand over the years changes in all spheres of life of both the state and society, years of full social, political and economic reforms, and on the other hand, over the years the search for new crucial decisions in all areas of social life, making unexpected, and decisions in complex situations over the years fresh approaches to various problems. One such critical perspective of the national state and public construction issues was the question of the education system. The «Law on Education» and the National Program for Training were adopted with the purpose.

Under the auspices of the Education Reform has been divided into a basic school education (9 years), which is then substituted training in academic lyceums and colleges (3 years). In universities was introduced multilevel system of training - Bachelor's (4-year) and Master (2 years). System of postgraduate education included scientific and intellectual education (Doctorate - 3 years), training and retraining. At the reception in the universities, with the entrance exams in secondary special education test system was introduced assessment.

One of the areas of reform in the education system of the country was the question of a foreign language. This issue was one of the most difficult issues, as it was inextricably linked with all the difficulties and complex at the time of socio-political changes and transformations happened in society. First of all, the Uzbek language was declared the state language, so that all the other languages, including Russian, acquired the status of a foreign language, in relation to the national language.

New conditions for the socio-political system and new requirements for the arrangement of society demanded certain changes and new solutions also in respect of foreign languages. This also applies to the status of a foreign language to the allocated hours

for learning foreign languages, and to the question of preferences and prerogatives of various languages, which is reflected in the production of educational and other interactive fiction, training. It was necessary to shift the emphasis that has been made.

Priority of helpful English, but not because of its training was to provide special conditions, knowledge of English has become a pressing urgency. English proficiency promised prospective employment and high-paying jobs; for admission to most universities applicants had to pass tests in English (or other Western) language, requiring specific language skills. Moreover, after independence, many young people have the opportunity to study abroad, which required examinations based on the new requirements. These exams were TOEFL and IELTS. All the young people in emergency mode begin to learn English.

December 10, 2012 the Resolution of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan «On measures on further improvement of the learning of foreign languages», which deals mainly talked about the status of the English language.

However, analysis of the current system of organization of learning foreign languages shows that educational standards, curricula and textbooks do not fully meet modern requirements, especially in the use of advanced information and media technologies.

Training is conducted primarily by traditional methods. Require further improvement of continuity of learning foreign languages at all levels of the education system, as well as work to improve the skills of teachers and the provision of modern teaching materials.

In order to radically improve the system of education of the younger generation of foreign languages, training, fluent in them, through the introduction of advanced teaching methods with the use of modern pedagogic and information and communication technologies and on this basis to create the conditions and opportunities for wider access to the achievements of world civilization and world information resources, international cooperation and communication, it was found that since 2013/2014 school year:

The study of foreign languages, mainly English, in stages throughout the country will begin in the early grades of secondary schools in the form of gaming lessons and lessons in speaking, and since second grade - with the assimilation of the alphabet, reading, and grammar;

Teaching in higher education institutions of certain special items, especially on the technical and international specialties, will be conducted in foreign languages (English, Russian, Italian, or other).

Unit 1. AIMS AND PROBLEMS OF METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING MAIN FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Uzbekistan education is given prior importance in the nation equally for every child irrespective of gender. Education in Uzbekistan is supervised by two national agencies, namely the Ministry of People's Education who looks after the primary, secondary education; and the Ministry of Higher and secondary Specialized Education, supervising the vocational and higher.

Education at any age is encouraged in Uzbekistan. New methods and technologies are created based on the national needs. The basic principles of Education in Uzbekistan are democratization and humanization. Education of Uzbekistan helps the Government to solve many economical and social problems. The teachers of Uzbekistan have tremendously contributed towards Uzbekistan Education. According to official sources, about 60 percent of Uzbekistan's population is covered under the system of education. The earlier educational system required 11 years of compulsory schooling for both men and women. In 1992 the policy decision was made to change from 11 to 9 years of compulsory education. After nine years of compulsory schooling, students can prepare for higher education in tenth or eleventh grade or turn to vocational training. After graduating from any type of secondary education, an individual can enter a higher education institution to obtain a bachelor's degree and continue study toward a master's or doctoral degree. When viewed in general, the Uzbekistan educational system includes:

• Preschool training (preprimary-from three to 6 years old)
• General secondary education (from 6 to 15 years old)
• Secondary vocational education (from 15 to 18 years old)
• Higher education (undergraduate and graduate-from 18 years old).

Girls and boys are legally considered equal and study in the same classes and schools. Schools are open to all ethnic groups, and minorities in schools are rarely an issue.

The academic year begins on 2 September (the first of September is the Independence Day) or the first working day of September. The academic year ends in June for secondary schools and in July for higher education.

1.1. Aims and Principles of Foreign Language Teaching

It is a common knowledge that there are lots of languages in the world, and some of them fall into the category of international languages or languages of wider communication groups, such as English, French, German, Spanish, Russian, Italian and Arabic. All these languages are the official languages of the UN.

English language is very important nowadays. More and more people need English to attend universities and colleges, because now we have an opportunity to get higher education abroad. New ideas in science and medicine happen so quickly that it is impossible to translate everything into different languages. Most articles are published in English. English is the language of international communication in many areas of life: trade, air and sea transport, tourism and sport. Uzbekistan is establishing closer economic, political, scientific, and cultural relations with various peoples of the world. International relations are extended and strengthened through the exchange of scientific, technical, and cultural information. In this situation foreign language teaching is a matter of state significance.

In modern society language is used in two ways: directly or orally, and indirectly or in written form. Thus we distinguish oral language and written language. Direct communication implies a speaker and a hearer, indirect communication implies a writer and a reader. Hence the practical aims in teaching a foreign language are four in number: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Aims are the first and most important consideration in any teaching. Hence the teacher should know exactly what his pupils are

expected to achieve in learning his subject, what changes he can bring about in his pupils at the end of the course, at the end of the year, term, month, week, and each particular lesson, he should know the aims and objectives of foreign language teaching.

The changes the teacher must bring about in his pupils may be threefold: *practical* —pupils acquire habits and skills in using a foreign language; *educational* — they develop their mental abilities and intelligence in the process of learning the foreign language; *cultural* — pupils extend their knowledge of the world in which they live. Therefore there are three aims, at least, which should be achieved in foreign language teaching: practical, educational, and cultural.

1.2. Practical aims

The foreign language as a subject differs from other subjects of the school curriculum. Whereas the teaching, for instance, of history is mostly connected with the imparting of historical laws and facts which pupils are to learn and the teaching of the mother tongue leads to the mastery of the language as a system (which is already used for exchanging thoughts and feelings) so that pupils will be able to use it more effectively in oral and written language, the teaching of a foreign language should result in the pupil's gaining one more code for receiving and conveying information; that is, in acquiring a second language for the same purpose as the native language: to use it as a means of communication.

The nature of the language should also be taken into consideration in determining the aims of language teaching. Learning a living language implies using the language of sounds, that is, speaking. Scientific research gives a more profound insight into the problem. It is not so much the ability to speak that is meant here but rather the oral treatment; in other words, the language of sounds, not of graphic signs (which is usually the case when a dead language is studied) should serve as basic means of teaching. The length of the course, the frequency of the lessons, the size of groups should also be taken into consideration in adopting practical aims. The amount

of time for language learning is one of the most decisive factors in mastering and maintaining language proficiency since learners need practice. The more time is available for pupils' practice in the target language, the better results can be achieved. Moreover, for the formation of speech habits frequency of lessons is a more essential condition than the length of the course.

It is not necessary to prove (it has already been proved) that intensive courses are more effective than extensive ones, for example, six periods a week for three years are more effective for language learning than three periods a week for six years.

In foreign language learning all forms of work must be in close interrelation, otherwise it is impossible to master the language. However, attention should be given mainly to practice in hearing, speaking, and reading. Thus pupils must achieve a level in their knowledge of the language which will enable them to further develop it at an institute or in their practical work. The achievement of practical aims in foreign language teaching makes possible the achievement of educational and cultural aims.

1.3. Educational aims

Learning a foreign language is of great educational value. Through a new language we can gain an insight into the way in which words express thoughts, and so achieve greater clarity and precision in our own communications. Even at the most elementary level learning a foreign language teaches the cognizance of meaning, furnishes a term of comparison that gives us an insight into the quality of language. When learning a foreign language the pupil understands better how language functions and this brings him to a greater awareness of the functioning of his own language.

Since language is connected with thinking, through foreign language study we can develop the pupil's intellect. Teaching a foreign language helps the teacher develop the pupils' voluntary and involuntary memory, his imaginative abilities, and will power. Indeed, in learning a new language the pupil should memorize words, idioms, sentence patterns, structures, and keep them in long-

term memory ready to be used whenever he needs them in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Teaching a foreign language under conditions when this is the only foreign language environment, is practically impossible without appealing to pupils' imagination.

The lack of real communication forces the teacher to create imaginary situations for pupils, to speak about making each pupil determine his language behavior as if he were in such situations.

Teaching a foreign language contributes to the linguistic education of the pupil, the latter extends his knowledge of phonic, graphic, structural, and semantic aspects of language through contrastive analysis of language phenomena. In teaching a foreign language the teacher is called upon to inculcate in pupils the scientific outlook, to prepare the young people for an active participation in production and other types of useful activities.

Teachers of foreign languages make their contribution to the education of pupils, to their ideological education. Their role in the upbringing of the younger generation cannot be overestimated.

1.4. Cultural aims

Learning a foreign language makes the pupil acquainted with the life, customs and traditions of the people whose language he studies through visual material (such as post cards with the views of towns, countryside, and people; filmstrips, for example, «Great Britain», «What Tourists Can See in London», «Disney Land» films) and reading material dealing with the countries where the target language is spoken. Foreign language teaching should promote pupils' general educational and cultural growth by increasing their knowledge about foreign countries, and by acquainting them with progressive traditions of the people whose language they study. Through learning a foreign language the pupil gains a deeper insight into the nature and functioning of language as a social phenomenon.

It should be said that practical, educational, and cultural aims are intimately related and form an inseparable unity. The leading role belongs to practical aims, for the others can only be achieved

through the practical command of the foreign language. But to achieve any aim it is necessary to remember about the Methods of teaching. Methods of foreign language teaching is understood as a body of scientifically tested theory concerning the teaching of foreign languages in educational institutions. It covers three main problems as: content of teaching, i. e. what to teach to attain the aims, methods and techniques of teaching, i. e. how to teach a foreign language to attain the aims in the most effective way to meet modern requirements.

In recent years, quite often we can hear the term «linguistic education», but at the same time among the scholars and practitioners there is no single point of view on its contents. Under the linguistic form it is often understood as a process of assimilation of ordered knowledge, skills and abilities that allows foreign-language speech activity. In other cases, language teaching is interpreted as a result of this process, or as a system of educational institutions, which provides training for non-native languages. Such differences in views on the essence of the term «language education» indicates, on the one hand, its variability, and on the other - the desire of didactics and curriculum to draw attention only on separate sides of language education functioning, which, of course, lets not to see the essential characteristics of the phenomenon as a whole. Therefore, in our view, it would be correct to consider the «language education» as: 1) value, 2) the process, 3) outcome, 4) system.

Role of any language is determined by its status in society, country. Language can be the means of international communication. It is primarily about the languages and the global spread of human culture, performing the maximum amount of public functions. These languages include, for example, English, French and German. If the language is spoken in a number of countries in a particular region (eg. German - in German speaking countries), this language gets the status of international language. Language may play the role of the state or a local language. It is obvious that in terms of value formation of orientation of specific identity in the modern world, extensions of educational and social

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opportunities are most important languages for world communication. But this idea does not mean that, in addition to the languages of international communication local languages shouldn't be learned and that the state and society should not create for these favorable conditions. As you know, the state and society are not identical notions. The society may require the study of modern foreign languages. For example, the daily reality of recent years shows the fact that the status of foreign languages in the society has increased. Today, no one doubts that the dynamics of the social life of the country and the associated new goals and direction of reforms cause social need for a large number of citizens, almost speaking one or more modern foreign languages. Languages, especially languages of international importance, as a rule, allow the person to get real chances to take in more prestigious position in the society both socially and materially. Moreover, methodology of teaching FL and modern pedagogical technologies is the subject that helps future teachers to learn teaching principles and tips.

The content of portfolio on the subject

The students should make a portfolio based on following items or material:
1. Material gathered on new pedagogical technologies.
2. Material on interactive methods of teaching.
3. Material on communicative methods of teaching.
4. Material on intensive methods of teaching.
5. Material on phonology, vocabulary, grammar.
6. Material on listening, speaking and to make exercises on these skills.
7. To make exercises on reading and writing.
8. To make tests for 5-9 grades.
9. To make syllabus for 5-9 grades. To write one lesson plan.
10. To make portfolio holding visual tools.

Unit 2. LESSON PLANNING AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Classroom Management

Planning is often viewed as a key aspect of teaching a successful lesson. During the planning phase, the teacher makes decisions about goals, activities, resources, timing, grouping, and other features.

Ever though a lesson may have already been planned, a teacher will still need to make decisions that relate to the needs of his or her specific class, adapting the lesson from the book in different ways to make it better suit the class.

This process of planning and adaptation is a crucial dimension of teaching because during this process the teacher makes many decisions that are essential for a successful lesson. Planning can be regarded as a process of transformation during which the teacher creates ideas for a lesson based on understanding of learners' needs, problems, and interests, and on the content of the lesson itself. This does not necessarily result in a detailed, written lesson plan. Many teachers teach successful lessons based on mental plans or on brief lesson notes. What is important is not the extent and detail of the teacher's plan but the extent to which the teacher has developed ideas for turning a potential lesson (such as a textbook lesson) into the basis for an engaging and effective lesson.

2.1. Lesson planning

Lesson planning involves decisions about the pedagogical dimensions of the lesson. But another important aspect of a lesson concerns the management of learners during the lesson. This includes eliciting students' attention, maintaining their engagement

in the lesson, and organizing them into pairs or groups. If these aspects of a lesson are not well handled by a teacher, much of the time available for teaching can be lost in nonproductive activity. Classroom management refers to the ways in which teachers manage a class in order to make it maximally productive for language learning.

At the planning stage, teachers need to think about questions such as what the objective(s) of the lesson will be, what materials and activities will be used, what type of interaction will be encouraged, and how the learning will be monitored. At the implementation stage, the teacher's job is not simply to carry out the lesson as previously planned. During the lesson, interactive and evaluative decisions will often have to be made in response to the dynamics of the class. It may be necessary for teachers to adjust or even change the original plan when the lesson is not going well. Having implemented the lesson, the teacher must evaluate the success or failure of the lesson. This phase is important as it provides an opportunity for the teacher to reflect on what has gone on in the lesson vis-a`-vis the objectives of the lesson. Important questions to ask at this phase include what the pupils learned in the lesson, which tasks were successful, whether the material was appropriate, whether the pace of the lesson was right, and what changes need to be made in future lessons. Farrell concludes by saying that carefully thought-out lesson plans are likely to result in more efficient use of instructional time and more fruitful teaching and learning opportunities.

Teachers may wonder "which way they ought to go" before they enter a classroom. This usually means that teachers need to plan what they want to do in their classrooms. Most teachers engage in yearly, term, unit, weekly, and daily lesson planning[1]. Yearly and term planning usually involve listing the objectives for a particular program. A unit plan is a series of related lessons around a specific theme such as "The Health". Planning daily lessons is the end result of a complex planning process that includes the yearly, term, and

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[1] Yinger R. A. Study of teacher planning. Elementary School Journal. 80(3), 1980. P.107–127.

unit plans. A daily lesson plan is a written description of how students will move toward attaining specific objectives. It describes the teaching behavior that will result in student learning.

Language teachers may ask themselves why should they bother writing plans for every lesson. Some teachers write down elaborate daily plans; others do the planning in their minds.

Some teachers say they write daily lesson plans only because the authorities require them to do so. After they graduate, many teachers give up writing lesson plans. However, not many teachers enter a classroom without some kind of plan. Lesson plans are systematic records of a teacher's thoughts about what will be covered during a lesson. Lesson plans help the teacher think about the lesson in advance to "resolve problems and difficulties, to provide a structure for a lesson, to provide a 'map' for the teacher to follow, and to provide a record of what has been taught"[2] .

There are also internal and external reasons for planning lessons[3]. Teachers plan for internal reasons in order to feel more confident, to learn the subject matter better, to enable lessons to run more smoothly, and to anticipate problems before they happen. Teachers plan for external reasons in order to satisfy the expectations of the principal or supervisor and to guide a substitute teacher in case the class needs one. Lesson planning is especially important for pre-service teachers because they may feel more of a need to be in control before the lesson begins.

Daily lesson planning can benefit English teachers in the following ways:

• A plan can help the teacher think about content, materials, sequencing, timing, and activities.

• A plan provides security (in the form of a map) in the sometimes unpredictable atmosphere of a classroom.

• A plan is a log of what has been taught.

[2]Richards. J. C. What's the use of lesson plans? Beyond training. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998. p. 103

[3] McCutcheon, G. How do elementary school teachers plan? The nature of planning and influences on it. Elementary School Journal, 81(1), 1980. P.4–23.

• A plan can help a substitute to smoothly take over a class when the teacher cannot teach. [4]

Daily planning of lessons also benefits students because it takes into account the different backgrounds, interests, learning styles, and abilities of the students in one class.

2.2. The Ways of shaping Lesson Plans

There are different kinds of ways of making lesson planning. As usual a good and working lesson plan starts with detailed and thoroughly written objectives. An objective is a description of a learning outcome. Objectives describe the destination we want our students to reach. Clear, well-written objectives are the first step in daily lesson planning. These objectives help state precisely what we want our students to learn, help guide the selection of appropriate activities, and help provide overall lesson focus and direction. They also give teachers a way to evaluate what their students have learned at the end of the lesson. Clearly written objectives can also be used to focus the students.

For English language lessons effective objectives "describe what students will be able to do in terms of observable behavior and when using the foreign language"[5]. Hence, the language a teacher uses for stating objectives is important. After writing the lesson objectives, teachers must decide the activities and procedures they will use to ensure the successful attainment of these objectives. Planning at this stage means thinking through the purposes and structures of the activities.

There are five phases of the generic lesson plan:

I. *Perspective or opening.* The teacher asks the students (or himself or herself) the following questions: What was the previous activity (what was previously learned)? What concepts have they learned? The teacher then gives a preview of the new lesson.

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[4] Purgason, K. B. Planning lessons and units. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.); Teaching English as a second or foreign language (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle. 1991. P. 419–431

[5] Shrum J.L., Glisan, E. Teacher's handbook: Contextualized language instruction. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle. 1994. p. 48

II. *Stimulation.* The teacher (*a*) poses a question to get the students thinking about the coming activity; (*b*) helps the students to relate the activity to their lives; (*c*) begins with an attention grabber: an anecdote, a little scene acted out by peer teachers or lay assistants, a picture, or a song; and (*d*) uses it (the response to the attention grabber) as a lead into the activity.

III. *Instruction/participation.* The teacher presents the activity, checks for student understanding, and encourages active student involvement. Teachers can get students to interact by the use of pair work and/or group work.

IV. *Closure.* For this phase the teacher checks what the students have learned by asking questions such as "What did you learn?" and "How did you feel about these activities?" The teacher then gives a preview about the possibilities for future lessons.

V. *Follow-up.* The last phase of the lesson has the teacher using other activities to reinforce some concepts and even to introduce some new ones. The teacher gives the students opportunities to do independent work and can set certain activities or tasks taken from the lesson as homework. Of course, teachers can have variations on this generic model. English language teachers should also realize that language lessons may be different from other content lessons because the same concepts may need to be reinforced time and again using different methods. The following questions may be useful for language teachers to answer before planning their lessons:

• What do you want the students to learn and why?

• Are all the tasks necessary - worth doing and at the right level?

• What materials, aids, and so on, will you use and why?

• What type of interaction will you encourage - pair work or group work - and why?

• What instructions will you have to give and how will you give them (written, oral, etc.)? What questions will you ask?

• How will you monitor student understanding during the different stages of the lesson?

The lesson plan should not be seen as a prescription or "how to," because each teaching context will be different. After writing the plan, the next step is to implement it by teaching the class.

When the lesson is not succeeding, teachers should make immediate adjustments to the original plan. This is difficult for beginning teachers because they may not have the necessary experience to recognize that things are going badly. They may also lack sufficient knowledge to develop contingency plans to substitute in such cases. No teacher's guide can anticipate what problems might occur during a lesson however, they must be dealt with quickly. Teachers can build up this professional knowledge with experience.

When implementing their lesson plan, teachers might try to monitor two important issues, namely, lesson variety and lesson pacing. Variety in lesson delivery and choice of activity will keep the class lively and interested. To vary a lesson, teachers should frequently change the tempo of activities from fast-moving to slow. They can also change the class organization by giving individual tasks, pair work, group work, or full class interaction.

Activities should also be chosen according to the level of difficulty, some easy and others more demanding. The activities should be interesting not only for the teacher but for the students also.

Pace is linked to the speed at which a lesson progresses, as well as to lesson timing. In order for teachers to develop a sense of pace they should mean the following guidelines: (1) activities should not be too long or too short; (2) various techniques for delivering the activities should "flow" together; (3) there should be clear transitions between each activity. If teachers remember to work for the benefit of their students rather than their own, then they can avoid falling into the trap of racing through different activities just because they have been written on the lesson plan[6].

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[6] Brown H. D. Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents, 1994

The following questions may also be useful for teachers to reflect on after conducting a lesson (answers can be used as a basis for future lesson planning):

- What do you think the students actually learned?
- What tasks were most successful? Least successful? Why?
- Did you finish the lesson on time?
- What changes (if any) will you make in your teaching and why (or why not)?

2.3. Classroom Management

When it comes to creating a classroom climate for language learning, Williams and Burden point to three levels of influence: national and cultural influences on the language being learned, the education system where the language is being learned, and the immediate classroom environment.[7] Influences on the language being learned are already determined, as is the education system. School policy, the textbook, and a national curriculum all influence the way students feel about language learning in general and about learning English in particular. However, teachers do influence the classroom environment by motivating unmotivated students. There are many ways in which students can be "off-task": They fail to take part by sitting in silence, they distract other students by talking off the topic, and they provide "non language" entertainment. All of these call for teachers' management skills. The teacher should consider some of the class management tips as the following shows:

Control your voice

Your voice is a valuable tool. Using it effectively can encourage students to behave positively, as well as making lessons lively and interesting.

Jo Palmer-Tweed, course director at the Thames Primary Consortium, recommends that if you haven't received voice coaching as part of your teacher training, you should organize this

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[7] Williams and Burden. Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice. Cambridge University Press. 2002

as soon as possible, but ensure it is provided by companies tailored to training teachers' voices.

"You wouldn't put someone in an orchestra, give them an instrument and expect a virtuoso performance. You've got to learn how to play that instrument first, which is why voice training is probably the best investment you could make in your teaching career," she says[8].

Shouting is a normal and natural reaction when trying to assert your authority, but this can undermine what you are trying to achieve, warns Stanley[9]. "When faced with disruption it's tempting to make your voice louder. But if you are constantly shouting, students may switch off. Sometimes it is better to speak quietly or even stop talking to get students' attention," he says.

Lowering the pitch of your voice can help you to sound more authoritative. "There's a tendency, particularly when you're feeling stressed, to speak with a high tone. So you should try to lower your voice slightly, particularly when faced with confrontational situations with students, as this will help to show you're in control," says Wood[10].

Varying the intonation and pace of your speech can be an effective way of engaging students in your lesson. As with actors, teachers need to take care of their voice, so it is important to keep well hydrated by sipping water throughout the day, and avoid drinking too much tea or coffee.

Make the most of classroom space

Using classroom space effectively will help you to develop your presence as a teacher and to manage student behavior.

Thinking about where you can gain the most presence in the room at different points during the lesson will help it to go smoothly, says Stanley. To grab students' attention at the start of a class he warns against turning your back on them. "Don't do 'chalk and talk' when you begin a class. Instead, plan an activity that will immediately engage them," he explains.

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[8] Jo Palmer-Tweed newteachers.tes.co.uk/

[9] http://newteachers.tes.co.uk

[10] newteachers.tes.co.uk/

Although it may be tempting to stand behind a desk to create authority in the classroom, this can create an us-and-them atmosphere, suggests Wood[11].

"You need to share your knowledge with students, which isn't always possible if you are constantly leading from the front," she says.

Desks could be arranged in a horseshoe shape so that you can move easily around the class.

This approach allows you to sometimes teach students from the back of the class and also to monitor their behavior, including those who are not on task.

Effective use of space in the classroom also involves distributing your attention fairly between students. While it is tempting to ignore disruptive pupils and give your attention to those who are engaged with the lesson, you need to make time for all those in your class.

Teaching observations are an ideal opportunity to make sure all students are getting a fair share of your attention, advises Wood[12]. "If someone is observing you, don't be afraid to ask them to look at how you could improve your presence in the classroom, such as where you're standing at different times during the lesson, and if your attentions are being fairly distributed between those who want to learn, and those who are less willing," says Wood.

Is your voice in control? What sound does your voice make? What kind of impression does your voice make? Lesley Hendy explains how the way you move can affect the quality of your voice. You will also discover more about how to use the acoustics of a room to your advantage and how to vary the tone and pitch of your voice to increase your vocal 'tool box'.

When working with teachers on their voices, classroom management is always an issue. Young people's listening skills appear to be a common problem and teachers struggle to make themselves heard in some classrooms. Difficulties in class management can result from the lack of knowledge teachers have

[11] newteachers.tes.co.uk/
[12] newteachers.tes.co.uk/

about the effect of their voice on their pupils. A voice and body that appear uncontrolled can often lead to uninvited chatter and 'irritating misbehavior'.

Posture and body language

Your posture whilst you are teaching can have an impact on the richness of your voice and the way it projects in the classroom. As well as considering the impact that your body position has on your voice, you can also use body language to give messages to the children as you teach and therefore rely less on your voice, removing some of the potential strain. *Here are some tips.*

1. It is important not to lift the chin up or push your face forward, as this affects the position of the larynx. Teachers do have a tendency to push their face and neck towards the back of the room

We erroneously think those at the back will hear better! In fact it raises the larynx and makes your voice thinner and more difficult to hear.

2. When turning to write on a whiteboard, avoid talking at the board. Turn to address the class and tell them your intention before re-turning to write it up. Unless you have an extremely powerful and well-articulated voice, pupils will not hear what you are saying when you are facing away from them. Also resist writing and twisting to talk to the class at the same time, as this puts your larynx under great pressure.

3. Too much movement while you are speaking makes what you are saying difficult to process. A good principle to follow is: stand still to speak and move in the silence.

4. To gain pupils' respect, don't just rely on your voice. You also need to look the part. Always try to occupy your space so that your presence in the room demands attention. To do this, make sure your stance gives you the most grounded base.

5. Your feet should be in alignment with your hip bones (those bones that stick out when you sunbathe). Placing a clenched fist between the knees usually gives the right width for the feet. You also need to have relaxed shoulders. Lift up your shoulders to your ears, round them backwards and melt them downwards to release tension.

6. You can help yourself by already being in a classroom before the pupils enter. If you are lucky enough to have your own room, always make sure you are there before the class arrives.

Allowing pupils of whatever age to colonize the space first makes it their territory. It is far more difficult to gain their attention and it puts more pressure on your voice if you have to enter the room after the class has taken up residence.

7. When using gestures, make sure they have a focus. Hand movements with your elbows tight against your waist lack authority. Flapping hands cause confusion. Whenever possible, make your gestures are from the shoulder. If you are pointing something out on the whiteboard/chalkboard or on a wall chart, your hand should be strong and focused on what you want the students to see.

8. Think carefully about where you stand in the room. Try to avoid standing or sitting for long periods of time in a position where you cannot see the whole class. Standing silhouetted against a window also causes problems. This is not always easy if you teach in a classroom with two or three window walls, but even those of us who do not wear glasses will to some extent lip-read. Most people, including youngsters, find it easier to hear when they can see the whole of a person's face. Very young pupils in particular need to read expression as well as hear what you are saying.

All of the above tips will directly or indirectly impact on the use and care of your voice.

Environment and acoustics

It may be worthwhile to take time to look at your teaching environment and the acoustics of the room(s) in which you teach. Some spaces are difficult to speak in, e.g. classrooms with too much glass, metal chairs and tables scraping on synthetic flooring, echoing corridors, PE and games situations, laboratories, swimming pools and computer suites. In swimming pools, for example, the chemicals used to clean the water may irritate the vocal folds. Chemistry labs have similar problems, as does the ozone-laden air surrounding a bank of computers. Felt-tip pens for whiteboards, or chalk used on chalkboards, can also have adverse effects on a

In other words, they hear 'there is more to come'. A falling glide indicates to the ear that you have finished. You need to develop a tonal range that never gives away that you do not mean what you say. Are you opening your mouth wide enough to be heard? Are you missing the consonants off the ends of words or trailing away at the ends of sentences? Pupils cannot process words or sentences that lose their endings. You need to pay attention to your formation of vowels and consonants. It is often the lack of a correct consonant at the end of a word that leads to confusion. Consonants can only be formed if the tongue is flexible and agile, the lips are mobile, the jaw has the ability to release and the nasal passages are clear and open.

Teacher talk is greatly enhanced by using a variety of pause, pace and inflection. Rapid speech excludes variation and is very difficult to understand.

Think about good examples of speaking that you have recognized among professional voice users, on radio or television for instance. This does not include actors, who operate in an artificial situation, not using their own words. Are there any role-models among your colleagues? Whose voice is comfortable to listen to and makes you want to hear more of what they have to say? Do they have the same effect in all circumstances?

Think carefully about why this is so and increase your awareness of the effects –good and detrimental – that a speaker's voice can have on the listener. We must learn to listen to our own voices and to pay attention to our body language.

Top Tips
- turn and face the class before you speak
- drink two liters of water per day
- develop an interesting tone range
- slow your speech in large rooms
- use good breath support and never raise the pitch
- open your mouth wide enough to be heard.

2.4. Motivation

Another effective factor in language learning, motivation is more specific than in a content-based subject. The history teacher can motivate students to take an interest in the subject, but the language teacher is looking for more than interest. Language is a skill, and a skill needs to be applied, not just stored in the head or admired at a distance.

Teachers encourage language use through both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Some students have strong intrinsic motivation, they know the benefits of learning a particular language. Others need to be reminded of where success could lead. For example, in societies where studying literature is an important part of the education system, teachers emphasize the benefits of being able to read English poetry, short stories, and novels in the original. In other contexts, teachers build on the career and commercial benefits to students: Fluent speakers of English are employed as interpreters, they travel abroad on business, and they work in tourism. Reminding students about the jobs waiting for fluent language speakers can be an important part of motivation.

Extrinsic motivation can come through rewards. Teachers supply interesting additional reading materials, they show a video to follow a difficult language task, or they invite guest speakers so that students can use the new language in an authentic way. In monolingual classes teachers report particular difficulty in persuading students to speak English. The following ideas have worked in small and large classes in different countries:

➢ Role-play, with one student taking the role of a foreigner
➢ Native-speaking visitors answer questions on specific topics
➢ Pen friends, by mail or E-mail
➢ Group presentations of topics students have researched
➢ Interclass debates
➢ Speech competitions
➢ Concerts with plays and singing

Although the ultimate goal is to speak English, in classes where students speak different first languages, it can help

motivation to allow limited use of the first language in class for specific purposes. For example, the L1 helps in clarifying a difficult point or planning the organizational part of projects, particularly when the teacher does not speak the languages of all the students.

An ongoing aspect of motivation is dealing with the behavior of particular students. Experienced teachers usually have a scale of responses to off-task behavior, which helps them decide whether to ignore or attend to the problem. Here are three examples of how a teacher might move through stages in managing a particular type of behavior.

The back-row destructor
The same student always sits at the back and distracts others.
➢ Use eye contact while continuing to speak.
➢ Stop mid-sentence and stare until the student stops.
➢ Talk with the student after class to investigate the cause.

The nonparticipants
Several students are not taking part in the assigned activity.
➢ Ignore them if they are not distracting others.
➢ Walk past their desks and ask if there is a problem.
➢ Ask colleagues how the same students participate in other classes.

The over exuberant student
In a language class, teachers want students to speak. Sometimes, though, the pleasure of hearing the language in use sours when one outgoing student dominates question time, comment time, and all the rest of the talking time. This calls for tact, because the person is often a good language model for others.

Interrupt with "Thanks for that" and call on someone else to continue. Remind the student that there will be more talking time soon in groups. Talk to the student individually later.

Teachers also know that if large numbers of students are failing to attend to the lesson, there could be a problem with the lesson itself. The task may be too difficult, or it may have continued for too long, or the content may be boring. On the other hand, the problem may not be within the class at all. A forthcoming sports match or

even unusual weather can change the mood of a class and signal to the teacher the need for a change of activity.

In summary we can suggest support the ideas of Stevick E.W., who brings a lifetime of teaching to his six-point summary of what he hopes for in a classroom. He has three hopes for students and three for teachers. He wants students to be involved, to feel comfortable while involved in intellectual activity, and to be listening to one another as well as to the teacher. He wants teachers to be in general control, to allow and encourage originality in students, and to look "relaxed and matter-of-fact ... giving information about ... appropriateness or correctness ..., rather than criticizing or praising."[14]

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. How is important a lesson plan to be a successful lesson? What features do you think a lesson plan should include?

2. Do you think it is a good idea to strictly follow a lesson plan? Why?

3. Some people think that lesson plans limit teachers' creativity. Do you agree? Explain your answer.

4. Should teachers review the lessons they have just taught? Why?

5. What are the goals of classroom management? What do you think are the most important principles of classroom management?

6. What techniques do teachers always use to get students on task in class?

7. How can teachers limit learners' use of L1 in their class?

8. Plan a lesson for a class you are familiar with. Describe how you incorporate group work in your lesson and how you will deal with students who refuse to work in groups.

[14] Stevick E. W. Memory, meaning and method. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle. 1996. p. 250

Unit 3. THE COMMON EUROPEAN FRAMEWORK OF REFERENCE FOR LANGUAGES

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, abbreviated as CEFR, is a guideline used to describe achievements of learners of foreign languages across Europe and, increasingly, in other countries (for example, Colombia and the Philippines). It was put together by the Council of Europe as the main part of the project «Language Learning for European Citizenship» between 1989 and 1996. Its main aim is to provide a method of learning, teaching and assessing which applies to all languages in Europe. In November 2001 a European Union Council Resolution recommended using the CEFR to set up systems of validation of language ability. The six reference levels are becoming widely accepted as the European standard for grading an individual's language proficiency.

The CEFR divides general competences in knowledge (descriptive knowledge), skills, and existential competence with particular communicative competences in linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, and pragmatic competence. This division does not exactly match previously well-known notions of communicative competence, but correspondences among them can be made.

General and particular communicative competences are developed by producing or receiving texts in various contexts under various conditions and constraints. These contexts correspond to various sectors of social life that the CEFR calls domains. Four broad domains are distinguished: educational, occupational, public, and personal.

A language user can develop various degrees of competence in each of these domains and to help describe them the CEFR has provided a set of Common Reference Levels.

3.1. Common reference levels

The Common European Framework divides learners into three broad divisions that can be divided into six levels:

A *Basic User*

A1 Breakthrough or beginner

A2 Way stage or elementary

	CEFR LEVELS	Can Do Statements: overall general ability		
		Listening/Speaking	Reading	Writing
Advanced	C2	CAN advise on or talk about complex or sensitive issues, understanding colloquial references and dealing confidently with hostile questions.	CAN understand documents, correspondence and reports, including the finer points of complex texts.	CAN write letters on any subject and full notes of meetings or seminars with good expression and accuracy.
Advanced	C1	CAN contribute effectively to meetings and seminars within own area of work or keep up a casual conversation with a good degree of fluency, coping with abstract expressions.	CAN read quickly enough to cope with an academic course, to read the media for information or to understand non-standard correspondence.	CAN prepare/draft professional correspondence, take reasonably accurate notes in meetings or write an essay which shows an ability to communicate.
Intermediate	B2	CAN follow or give a talk on a familiar topic or keep up a conversation on a fairly wide range of topics.	CAN scan texts for relevant information, and understand detailed instructions or advice.	CAN make notes while someone is talking or write a letter including non-standard requests.
Intermediate	B1	CAN express opinions on abstract/cultural matters in a limited way or offer advice within a known area, and understand instructions or public announcements.	CAN understand routine information and articles, and the general meaning of non-routine information within a familiar area.	CAN write letters or make notes on familiar or predictable matters.
Beginning	A2	CAN express simple opinions or requirements in a familiar context.	CAN understand straightforward information within a known area, such as on products and signs and simple textbooks or reports on familiar matters.	CAN complete forms and write short simple letters or postcards related to personal information.
Beginning	A1	CAN understand basic instructions or take part in a basic factual conversation on a predictable topic.	CAN understand basic notices, instructions or information.	CAN complete basic forms, and write notes including times, dates and places.

B *Independent User*
B1 Threshold or intermediate
B2 Vantage or upper intermediate
C *Proficient User*
C1 Effective Operational Proficiency or advanced
C2 Mastery or proficiency

The CEFR describes what a learner is supposed to be able to do in reading, listening, speaking and writing at each level.

Unit 4. Learning Styles

Many people recognize that each person prefers different learning styles and techniques. Learning styles group common ways that people learn. Everyone has a mix of learning styles. Some people may find that they have a dominant style of learning, with far less use of the other styles. Others may find that they use different styles in different circumstances. There is no right mix. Nor are your styles fixed. You can develop ability in less dominant styles, as well as further develop styles that you already use well.

By recognizing and understanding your own learning styles, you can use techniques better suited to you. This improves the speed and quality of your learning.

Learning Styles Questionnaire

This questionnaire will help you determine how you prefer to learn. There are no right or wrong answers. The questionnaire has been designed to provide your tutor the information that they need to plan lessons that will suit the way that you like to learn. Read the questions below and select either a, b or c and put your answer into the Select answer column. Once you have finished total up your answers in the score box below and you will be able to work out your preferred learning style.

Questions	Options	Select answer
I spend my free time	a. watching TV	
	b. talking to friends	
	c. going out or making things	
When planning a holiday I	a. read lots of brochures	
	b. ask friends for recommendations	
	c. imagine what it would be like	
When cooking a new meal for the first time I	a. follow a recipe	
	b. watch a TV programme or ask a friend	
	c. get an idea of the recipe and make it yourself	
When needing directions I	a. look at a map	
	b. ask someone	
	c. just find it yourself	
When making a complaint about a broken item I	a. write a letter or email	
	b. phone them	
	c. send the item back	
When using a new gadget I	a. read the instructions	
	b. ask someone for help	
	c. have a go and use 'trial and error'	
I find it easier to remember	a. faces	
	b. names	
	c. things I have done	
If I am showing someone how to do something new I	a. write the instructions down	
	b. explain what to do	
	c. show them how to do it	
I remember things best by	a. taking notes	
	b. repeating words and saying them out loud	
	c. practising the activity or working out how it is done	
When learning a new skill I prefer	a. watching the teacher	
	b. talking through the activity with the teacher	
	c. trying it myself	

Choices	Score	Learning style
A		
B		
C		

4.1.Types of Learning Styles

The Seven Learning Styles

• **Visual (spatial):** You prefer using pictures, images, and spatial understanding.

• **Aural (auditory-musical):** You prefer using sound and music.

• **Verbal (linguistic):** You prefer using words, both in speech and writing.

• **Physical (kinesthetic):** You prefer using your body, hands and sense of touch.

• **Logical (mathematical):** You prefer using logic, reasoning and systems.

• **Social (interpersonal):** You prefer to learn in groups or with other people.

• **Solitary (intrapersonal):** You prefer to work alone and use self-study.

4.2. Activities according to the Learning Styles

Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence is about thinking in movements and includes the ability to use movements for either self-expression or precision to achieve a goal. It is crucial for surgeons, athletes, mimes, choreographers, and directors. This type of intelligence helps you retain information when it is associated with an activity, such as dance, acting, and sports.

Relating what you are trying to learn

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to one of these activities will help you retain information and gain understanding.

Sample activities:

- Perform a skit to show the action of the idea you are trying to learn.
- Make a game out of the materials.
- Apply what you are learning to hands-on models or in-practice examples.
- Stay active when you are in a situation in which you need to concentrate.
- You can squeeze a stress ball when talking with someone or walk around while reading.

Interpersonal intelligence is about social interaction and understanding the people around you and their motives, emotions, perspectives, and moods. This type of intelligence is important in managing relationships, understanding situations, and negotiating conflict.It is especially applicable in careers that require insight and a sensitivity to what someone else is thinking or feeling, such as teaching, psychology, or sales.

Sample activities:

- Give and receive feedback.
- Talk out problems.
- Work on large-group projects so you can use your social abilities to divide up tasks and understand all aspects of the project.
- Be a part of active learning through mentoring, tutoring, or an apprenticeship. This activity will reinforce your own knowledge or abilities.
- Intrapersonal intelligence has been said to be the road to achievement, learning, and personal satisfaction. It is about being connected to who you are and how you feel, and knowing your own limits and abilities.

Intrapersonal intelligence is involved in making decisions and setting goals for yourself, self-management, and self-reflection.

Sample activities:
- Study alone in a comfortable yet quiet environment.
- Set goals for yourself, and monitor your progress regularly.
- Reflect on what you have learned, and think through new material.
- Create a connection between new material and subjects you already know, and gain understanding by finding their similarities.

Logical-mathematical intelligence is about understanding complex problems and conceptualizing relationships between symbols, processes, and actions. This type of intelligence asks questions, finds solutions, and reflects on the problem solving process. *Sample activities:*

- Think about what you are trying to learn as a puzzle or a formula.
- Ask questions and allow yourself to experiment with your own hypotheses to find solutions or new answers.
- Concentrate on symbols, designs, and words to bridge mathematical and verbal logic.
- Create an outline to understand your subject step by step. Doing so will allow you to stay organized and track what you're learning in a logical sequence.

Musical intelligence is associated with enjoying music, singing, making music, and playing an instrument. It involves a sensitivity to sounds as well as the emotions music conveys.

Sample activities:
- Listen to music while you study to connect its patterns and sounds with the subject you are studying. Replay the same song just before a test.

- Create a rhyme, song, or chant for material you would like to memorize.
- Associate what you're learning with a song you like.
- Use your ability to distinguish sounds as well as hear the beat, tone, or chord in a song by learning an instrument or mixing sound.

Naturalistic learning is about understanding the patterns of living things, and applying scientific reasoning to the world. Nature intelligence is particularly applicable in careers such as farmer, naturalist, animal behaviorist, and scientist.

Sample activities:
- Recognize and classify different types of plants or animals.
- Observe and record data.
- Create a «living system» for the material you are trying to learn. Imagine the new material as an ecosystem or a pattern for you to figure out.
- Write about nature, daily life, or people as a topic so you become engaged in your assignment.

Verbal-linguistic intelligence (along with logical-mathematical intelligence) is often associated with doing well in school. It involves the ability to use words effectively for reading, writing, listening, and speaking. The poet has been described as the epitome of verbal-linguistic intelligence.

Sample activities:
- Use words to explain complicated subjects.

- Ask questions.
- Engage in the Socratic method, digesting information through a question-and-answer exchange.
- Hone your native ability to tell a story

Visual-spatial intelligence allows you to see and modify things in your mind. This kind of understanding of the visual world and its relation to physical items is valuable in solving spatial problems, designing, and doing crafts.

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. What might happen if you don't understand your learning style?

2. If you understand your individual learning style, what does this allow you to do?

3. What is your dominant learning style?

4. How will you define and expand your learning styles?

Unit 5. METHODS OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

5.1. Interactive methods

The Direct Method

In this method the teaching is done entirely in the target language. The learner is not allowed to use his or her mother tongue. Grammar rules are avoided and there is emphasis on good pronunciation.

The method relies on a step-by-step progression based on question-and-answer sessions which begin with naming common objects such as doors, pencils, floors, etc. It provides a motivating start as the learner begins using a foreign language almost immediately

Grammar-translation

Learning is largely by translation to and from the target language. Grammar rules are to be memorized and long lists of vocabulary learned by heart. There is little or no emphasis placed on developing oral ability.

Audio-lingual

The theory behind this method is that learning a language means acquiring habits. There is much practice of dialogues of every situations. New language is first heard and extensively drilled before being seen in its written form.

The structural approach

This method sees language as a complex of grammatical rules which are to be learned one at a time in a set order. So for example the verb «to be» is introduced and practiced before the present continuous tense which uses «to be» as an auxiliary.

Suggestopedia

The theory underlying this method is that a language can be acquired only when the learner is receptive and has no mental blocks. By various methods it is suggested to the student that the language is easy - and in this way the mental blocks to learning are removed.

Total Physical Response (TPR)

TPR works by having the learner respond to simple commands such as «Stand up», «Close your book», «Go to the window and open it.» The method stresses the importance of aural comprehension.

Communicative language teaching (CLT)

The focus of this method is to enable the learner to communicate effectively and appropriately in the various situations she would be likely to find herself in. The content of CLT courses are functions such as inviting, suggesting, complaining or notions such as the expression of time, quantity, location.

The Silent Way

This is so called because the aim of the teacher is to say as little as possible in order that the learner can be in control of what he wants to say. No use is made of the mother tongue. The Silent Way is a discovery learning approach, invented by Caleb Gattegno in the early 1970s. The teacher is usually silent, leaving room for the students to explore the language. They are responsible for their own learning and are encouraged to interact. The role of the teacher is to give clues, not to model the language.

Community Language Learning

In this method attempts are made to build strong personal links between the teacher and student so that there are no blocks to learning. There is much talk in the mother tongue which is translated by the teacher for repetition by the student.

Immersion

This corresponds to a great extent to the situation we have at our school. ESL students are immersed in the English language for the

whole of the school day and expected to learn math, science, humanities etc. through the medium of the target language, English.

Immigrant students who attend local schools find themselves in an immersion situation; for example refugee children from Bosnia attending German schools, or Puerto Ricans in American schools.

Task-based language learning

The focus of the teaching is on the completion of a task which in itself is interesting to the learners. Learners use the language they already have to complete the task and there is little correction of errors.

The tasks are subsumed in a major topic that is studied for a number of weeks. In the topic of ecology, for example, students are engaged in a number of tasks culminating in a poster presentation to the rest of the class. The tasks include reading, searching the internet, listening to taped material, selecting important vocabulary to teach other students etc.)

The Natural Approach

This approach, propounded by Professor S. Krashen, stresses the similarities between learning the first and second languages. There is no correction of mistakes. Learning takes place by the students being exposed to language that is comprehensible or made comprehensible to them.

The Lexical Syllabus

This approach is based on a computer analysis of language which identifies the most common (and hence most useful) words in the language and their various uses. The syllabus teaches these words in broadly the order of their frequency, and great emphasis is placed on the use of authentic materials.

Brainstorming is a group or individual creativity technique by which efforts are made to find a conclusion for a specific problem by gathering a list of ideas spontaneously contributed by its member(s). The term was popularized by Alex Faickney Osborn in the 1953 book *Applied Imagination*. Osborn claimed that brainstorming was more effective than individuals working alone in generating ideas, although more recent research has questioned this

conclusion.[1] Today, the term is used as a catch all for all group ideation sessions.

Brainstorming encourages creativity and generates many ideas quickly. It can be used for solving a specific problem, answering a question, introducing a new subject, raising interest, and surveying knowledge and attitudes.

Most brainstorming sessions follow this procedure:

1. Introduce a question, problem, or topic both orally and in writing on chart paper;

2. Invite participants to respond with as many ideas or suggestions as possible, ideally in single words or short phrases. Encourage everyone to participate but do not proceed in any set order;

3. Explain that until the brainstorm is complete, no one may repeat or comment on any response;

4. Record every response on chart paper. Often, the most creative or outrageous suggestions are the most useful and interesting;

5. Afterward, prioritize, analyze, or use the list to generate discussion or problem solving.

Projects are independent investigations that permit participants to explore topics in depth and to share their findings with others. Some suggestions for research projects:

• Help participants define their topics precisely and clearly, perhaps in question form (e.g., «How are refugees treated when they arrive at the border?» or «Have women's human rights improved in my community?»);

• Make clear project goals, parameters, and deadlines; suggest research resources and techniques;

• Clarify the way in which results can be presented (e.g., written report, exhibition, artistic expression, poster, or web site);

• Include both objective findings and the participant's subjective responses;

• Provide a way for participants to present their results publicly so others may learn from their research

Jigsaw

This methodology builds cooperation and enables participants to teach each other. Divide an issue into several sub-topics (e.g., different arguments for and against the death penalty), and assign each sub-topic to a different small groups (e.g., 5 groups of 5 people). Each group works together to learn more about its aspect of the topic (e.g., do research, discuss, read handouts). When the initial group has informed itself, assign new groups containing one person from each initial group. Each member of the new group is then responsible for sharing her or his information or point of view on the sub-topic, thus covering many aspects of a topic.

Role play

Role play is learning how to best handle a situation by practicing interactions and trying out different approaches. Students may act out situations, problems, and issues in a safe setting and develop skills that promote sexual health. Role play is a very effective instructional method proven to increase self-efficacy and impact student behaviour[2]. Role play requires careful preparation to ensure a structure emphasizing healthy sexuality through practicing basic learning's, such as abstinence negotiation. Participation in course role plays have led to higher satisfaction of usefulness and greater teaching improvement[2].

Advantages of Role Play

Provides opportunity for students to assume roles of others, therefore appreciating another person's point of view.

• Allows for a safe exploration of solutions and an opportunity to practice sexual health skills.

• Tends to motivate students to learn.

• Promotes and develops critical and creative thinking, attitudes, values, and interpersonal and social skills.

Procedure

1. Prepare class for role-play

➤ Present an artificial problem, situation or event that represents some aspect of reality.

➤ Define the problem, situation and roles clearly.

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2. Give clear instructions

➢ Determine whether role plays will be carried out using student volunteers in front of the class (the teacher may or may not play a role), in partnerships/small groups with every student playing a role, or in small groups with role-players and observers.

➢ Divide students into groups, if appropriate, use small group activities.

➢ Model the skill with a scripted role play.

➢ Suggest including a few-minute time limit; and the opportunity to perform more than one skill practice[2].

3. Act out role-plays

➢ Students follow the procedure outlined by the teacher to act out role plays.

➢ Unless the teacher is playing a role, it is helpful to walk around the room and observe how students are experiencing the role play and offer coaching to students who are stuck.

4. Discussion (small group and whole class)

➢ Begin by allowing players to communicate feelings experienced during the role play.

➢ Have students identify sexual health skills that were demonstrated during the role play.

➢ Determine actions that strengthen or weaken these skills (i.e. body language).

➢ Discuss how this role play is or isn't similar to real life.

➢ Identify ways of using identified sexual health skills in real life situations.

Problem-solving is a process—an ongoing activity in which we take what we know to discover what we don't know. It involves overcoming obstacles by generating hypo-theses, testing those predictions, and arriving at satisfactory solutions.

Problem-solving involves three basic functions:

1. Seeking information
2. Generating new knowledge
3. Making decisions

Problem-solving is, and should be, a very real part of the curriculum. It presupposes that students can take on some of the

responsibility for their own learning and can take personal action to solve problems, resolve conflicts, discuss alternatives, and focus on thinking as a vital element of the curriculum. It provides students with opportunities to use their newly acquired knowledge in meaningful, real-life activities and assists them in working at higher levels of

Understand the problem. It's important that students understand the nature of a problem and its related goals. Encourage students to frame a problem in their own words.

1. **Describe any barriers.**

> Identify various solutions.
> Create visual images.
> Guesstimate.
> Use manipulative.
> Work backward.
> Look for a pattern.
> Create a systematic list. Recording information in list form is a process used quite frequently to map out a plan of attack for defining and solving problems. Encourage students to record their ideas in lists to determine regularities, patterns, or similarities between problem elements.

2. **Try out a solution.** When working through a strategy or combination of strategies, it will be important for students to …

> Keep accurate and up-to-date records of their thoughts, proceedings, and procedures. Recording the data collected, the predictions made, and the strategies used is an important part of the problem solving process.

> Try to work through a selected strategy or combination of strategies until it becomes evident that it's not working, it needs to be modified, or it is yielding inappropriate data. As students become more proficient problem-solvers, they should feel comfortable rejecting potential strategies at any time during their quest for solutions.

> Monitor with great care the steps undertaken as part of a solution. Although it might be a natural tendency for students to

"rush" through a strategy to arrive at a quick answer, encourage them to carefully assess and monitor their progress.

> Feel comfortable putting a problem aside for a period of time and tackling it at a later time. For example, scientists rarely come up with a solution the first time they approach a problem. Students should also feel comfortable letting a problem rest for a while and returning to it later.

3. **Evaluate the results.** It's vitally important that students have multiple opportunities to assess their own problem-solving skills and the solutions they generate from using those skills. Frequently, students are overly dependent upon teachers to evaluate their performance in the classroom. The process of self-assessment is not easy, however. It involves risk-taking, self-assurance, and a certain level of independence. But it can be effectively promoted by asking students questions such as "How do you feel about your progress so far?" "Are you satisfied with the results you obtained?" and "Why do you believe this is an appropriate response to the problem?"

5.2. Technology in the classroom

There are various types of technologies currently used in traditional classrooms. Among these are:

> **Computer in the classroom:** Having a computer in the classroom is an asset to any teacher. With a computer in the classroom, teachers are able to demonstrate a new lesson, present new material, illustrate how to use new programs, and show new websites.

> **Class website:** An easy way to display your student's work is to create a web page designed for your class. Once a web page is designed, teachers can post homework assignments, student work, famous quotes, trivia games, and so much more. In today's society, children should know how to use the computer to navigate their way through a website, so why not give them one where they can be a published author? Just be careful, as most districts maintain strong policies to manage official websites for a school or classroom. Also,

most school districts provide teacher webpages that can easily be viewed through the school district's website.

➢ **Class blogs and wikis:** There are a variety of Web 2.0 tools that are currently being implemented in the classroom. Blogs allow for students to maintain a running dialogue. They work a tool for maintaining a journal of thoughts, ideas, and assignments, as well as encourage student comment and reflection. Wikis are more group focused to allow multiple members of the group to edit a single document and create a truly collaborative and carefully edited finished product.

➢ Blogs allow the student to express their knowledge of the information learned in a way that they like. Blogging is something that students do for fun sometimes, so when they are assigned an assignment to do a blog they are eager to do it! If you are a teacher and need to find a way to get your students eager to learn, create, and inspire assign them a blog. They will love it.

➢ **Wireless classroom microphones:** Noisy classrooms are a daily occurrence, and with the help of microphones, students are able to hear their teachers more clearly. Children learn better when they hear the teacher clearly. The benefit for teachers is that they no longer lose their voices at the end of the day.

➢ **Mobile devices:** Mobile devices such as clickers or smart phone can be used to enhance the experience in the classroom by providing the possibility for professors to get feedback.

➢ **Interactive Whiteboards:** An interactive whiteboard that provides touch control of computer applications. These enhance the experience in the classroom by showing anything that can be on a computer screen. This not only aids in visual learning, but it is interactive so the students can draw, write, or manipulate images on the interactive whiteboard.

➢ **Digital video-on-demand:** Replacement of hard copy videos (DVD, VHS) with digital video accessed from a central server (e.g. SAFARI Montage). Digital video eliminates the need for in-classroom hardware (players) and allows teachers and students to access video clips immediately by not utilizing the public Internet.

➢ **Online media:** Streamed video websites can be used to enhance a classroom lesson (e.g. United Streaming, Teacher Tube, etc.)

➢ **Online study tools:** Tools that motivate studying by making studying more fun or individualized for the student (e.g. Study Cocoa)

➢ **Digital Games:** The field of educational games and serious games has been growing significantly over the last few years. The digital games are being provided as tools for the classroom and have a lot of positive feedback including higher motivation for students.

➢ There are many other tools being used depending on the local school board and funds available. These may include: digital cameras, video cameras, interactive whiteboard tools, document cameras, or LCD projectors.

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. Do you think technologies should play the leading role in teaching?

2. What are the roles of the teacher and students in a technology-based classroom?

3. Some teachers are not very comfortable using the computer in the classroom. What advice would you give to these teachers?

4. In what ways can the computer help to promote second language learning?

5. How is the language used on the Internet different from that found in traditional textbooks? What are some of the differences?

6. How can the computer be used to teach vocabulary and grammar? Give some examples.

7. How can the standard-features word-processing programs be exploited for teaching writing skills?

Unit 6. TEACHING LISTENING

In real communication we have a lot of listening, and how accurate and complete, we perceive the information, can determine our next steps. Teaching the learners to understand sounding speech is one of the most important goals of teaching. Let us recall the situations in which real communication we confronted with listening as a completely independent kind of speech activity. This happens when we listen to:

- various advertisements,
- news on radio and television,
- various instructions and orders,
- lectures,
- stories interlocutors,
- performances by the actors,
- interlocutor on the telephone conversation, and so on.

Listening is an act of interpreting speech that one receives through ears. Hearing is an act of receiving the language through ears without interpretation. In real life we can hear somebody speak but actually do not listen to what is being said. Listening is a communicative skill to get the meaning from what we hear. People listen in order to remember what they hear verbally or for the sake of meaning retention. They listen in order to evaluate critically what they hear or to give supportive empathy.

They can derive aesthetic pleasure from what they hear or to produce a listener's feedback. They can fulfill the instructions in the heard text.

Listening is the language modality that is used most frequently. It has been estimated that adults spend almost half their communication time listening, and students may receive as much as 90% of their in-school information through listening to instructors and to one another. Often, however, language learners do not

recognize the level of effort that goes into developing listening ability. Far from passively receiving and recording aural input, listeners actively involve themselves in the interpretation of what they hear, bringing their own background knowledge and linguistic knowledge to bear on the information contained in the aural text. Not all listening is the same; casual greetings, for example, require a different sort of listening capability than do academic lectures. Language learning requires intentional listening that employs strategies for identifying sounds and making meaning from them. Given the importance of listening in language learning and teaching, it is essential for language teachers to help their students become effective listeners. In the communicative approach to language teaching, this means modeling listening strategies and providing listening practice in authentic situations: those that learners are likely to encounter when they use the language outside the classroom.

6.1. The Listening Process

To accomplish this goal, instructors focus on the process of listening rather than on its product.

They develop students' awareness of the listening process and listening strategies by asking students to think and talk about how they listen in their native language.

They allow students to practice the full repertoire of listening strategies by using authentic listening tasks.

They behave as authentic listeners by responding to student communication as a listener rather than as a teacher.

➢ When working with listening tasks in class, they show students the strategies that will work best for the listening purpose and the type of text. They explain how and why students should use the strategies.

➢ They have students practice listening strategies in class and ask them to practice outside of class in their listening assignments. They encourage students to be conscious of what they're doing while they complete listening tape assignments.

➤ They encourage students to evaluate their comprehension and their strategy use immediately after completing an assignment. They build comprehension checks into in-class and out-of-class listening assignments, and periodically review how and when to use particular strategies.

➤ They encourage the development of listening skills and the use of listening strategies by using the target language to conduct classroom business: making announcements, assigning homework, describing the content and format of tests.

➤ They do not assume that students will transfer strategy use from one task to another. They explicitly mention how a particular strategy can be used in a different type of listening task or with another skill.

By raising students' awareness of listening as a skill that requires active engagement, and by explicitly teaching listening strategies, instructors help their students develop both the ability and the confidence to handle communication situations they may encounter beyond the classroom. In this way they give their students the foundation for communicative competence in the new language.

Pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening activities

Exercises for teaching listening are divided into **pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening. Pre-listening activities** are preparations for listening. Pre-listening work can consist of a whole range of tasks including the teacher giving background information, the students reading something relevant to listening, the students looking at the pictures and eliciting from them, the students discussing a topic situation, answering questions, writing what they know about the topic of listening, considering what language they might need to understand the oral text, getting full understanding of how they will perform the listening task.[15] **While-listening activities** are what students do during listening to the text. The purpose of while-listening activities is to help learners develop the skill of eliciting messages from the heard text. While listening the

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[15] Underwood. M. Teaching Listening. Longman. 1997. P. 31-37

students are to look at the pictures of the traffic and to put a cross where the rules have been broken Other tasks can be:

➢ Listen to the text and decide which pictures represent the story.

➢ Arrange the pictures in the correct order according to the heard text.

➢ Listen to the text and complete the chart.

➢ Listen to the text and tick off from the lists the items that have not been mentioned.

➢ Listen to the text and mark the sentences that follow the text as True or False.

➢ Listen to the text and complete the gaps in the text.

➢ Listen to the text and correct the printed version.[16]

Post-listening activities are done after the process of listening is completed. The most common form is to check comprehension. Another purpose of post-listening tasks is to know why some students failed to comprehend the heard text and missed essential points of information. Yet another purpose is to expand on the topic or on the language of the heard text.[17]

6.2. Using Authentic Materials and Situations

Authentic materials and situations prepare students for the types of listening they will need to do when using the language outside the classroom.

One-Way Communication

Materials:

➢ Radio and television programs

➢ Public address announcements (airports, train/bus stations, stores)

➢ Speeches and lectures

➢ Telephone customer service recordings

Procedure:

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[16] Underwood, M. Teaching Listening. Longman. 1997. P.49-69
[17] Underwood, M. Teaching Listening. Longman. 1997. P.74-86

> Help students identify the listening goal: to obtain specific information; to decide whether to continue listening; to understand most or all of the message

> Help students outline predictable sequences in which information may be presented: who-what-when-where (news stories); who-flight number-arriving/departing-gate number (airport announcements); «for [function], press [number]» (telephone recordings)

> Help students identify key words/phrases to listen for

Two-Way Communication

In authentic two-way communication, the listener focuses on the speaker's meaning rather than the speaker's language. The focus shifts to language only when meaning is not clear.

Developing Listening Activities

As you design listening tasks, keep in mind that complete recall of all the information in an aural text is an unrealistic expectation to which even native speakers are not usually held. Listening exercises that are meant to train should be success-oriented and build up students' confidence in their listening ability.

6.3. Check the level of difficulty of the listening text

The factors listed below can help you judge the relative ease or difficulty of a listening text for a particular purpose and a particular group of students.

1. How is the information organized? Does the story line, narrative, or instruction conform to familiar expectations? Texts in which the events are presented in natural chronological order, which have an informative title, and which present the information following an obvious organization (main ideas first, details and examples second) are easier to follow.

2. How familiar are the students with the topic? Remember that misapplication of background knowledge due to cultural differences can create major comprehension difficulties.

3. Does the text involve multiple individuals and objects? Are they clearly differentiated? It is easier to understand a text with a

doctor and a patient than one with two doctors, and it is even easier if they are of the opposite sex. In other words, the more marked the differences, the easier the comprehension.

4. Does the text offer visual support to aid in the interpretation of what the listeners hear? Visual aids such as maps, diagrams, pictures, or the images in a video help contextualize the listening input and provide clues to meaning.

Use pre-listening activities to prepare students for what they are going to hear or view.

The activities chosen during pre-listening may serve as preparation for listening in several ways. During pre-listening the teacher may

➢ assess students' background knowledge of the topic and linguistic content of the text

➢ provide students with the background knowledge necessary for their comprehension of the listening passage or activate the existing knowledge that the students possess

➢ clarify any cultural information which may be necessary to comprehend the passage

➢ make students aware of the type of text they will be listening to, the role they will play, and the purpose(s) for which they will be listening

➢ provide opportunities for group or collaborative work and for background reading or class discussion activities

Sample pre-listening activities:

➢ looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs

➢ reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures

➢ reading something relevant

➢ constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related)

➢ predicting the content of the listening text

➢ going over the directions or instructions for the activity

➢ doing guided practice

Match while-listening activities to the instructional goal, the listening purpose, and students' proficiency level.

While-listening activities relate directly to the text, and students do them do during or immediately after the time they are listening. Keep these points in mind when planning while-listening activities:

If students are to complete a written task during or immediately after listening, allow them to read through it before listening. Students need to devote all their attention to the listening task. Be sure they understand the instructions for the written task before listening begins so that they are not distracted by the need to figure out what to do.

Keep writing to a minimum during listening. Remember that the primary goal is comprehension, not production. Having to write while listening may distract students from this primary goal. If a written response is to be given after listening, the task can be more demanding.

Organize activities so that they guide listeners through the text. Combine global activities such as getting the main idea, topic, and setting with selective listening activities that focus on details of content and form.

Use questions to focus students' attention on the elements of the text crucial to comprehension of the whole. Before the listening activity begins, have students review questions they will answer orally or in writing after listening. Listening for the answers will help students recognize the crucial parts of the message.

Use predicting to encourage students to monitor their comprehension as they listen. Do a predicting activity before listening, and remind students to review what they are hearing to see if it makes sense in the context of their prior knowledge and what they already know of the topic or events of the passage.

Give immediate feedback whenever possible. Encourage students to examine how or why their responses were incorrect.

Sample while-listening activities
> listening with visuals
> filling in graphs and charts
> following a route on a map
> checking off items in a list
> listening for the gist

> searching for specific clues to meaning
> completing cloze (fill-in) exercises
> distinguishing between formal and informal registers

Using Textbook Listening Activities

The greatest challenges with textbook tape programs are integrating the listening experiences into classroom instruction and keeping up student interest and motivation. These challenges arise from the fact that most textbook listening programs emphasize product (right or wrong answer) over process (how to get meaning from the selection) and from the fact that the listening activities are usually carried out as an add-on, away from the classroom. You can use the guidelines for developing listening activities given here as starting points for evaluating and adapting textbook listening programs. At the beginning of the teaching term, orient students to the tape program by completing the exercises in class and discussing the different strategies they use to answer the questions. It is a good idea to periodically complete some of the lab exercises in class to maintain the link to the regular instructional program and to check on the effectiveness of the exercises themselves.

6.4. Integrating Listening Strategies With Textbook Audio and Video

Students can use this outline for both in-class and out-of-class listening/viewing activities. Model and practice the use of the outline at least once in class before you ask students to use it independently.

1. Plan for listening/viewing
> Review the vocabulary list, if you have one
> Review the worksheet, if you have one
> Review any information you have about the content of the tape/video
2. Preview the tape/video
> (tape) Use fast forward to play segments of the tape; (video) view the video without sound

> Identify the kind of program (news, documentary, interview, drama)

> Make a list of predictions about the content

> Decide how to divide the tape/video into sections for intensive listening/viewing

3. Listen/view intensively section by section. For each section:

> Jot down key words you understand

> Answer the worksheet questions pertaining to the section

> If you don't have a worksheet, write a short summary of the section

4. Monitor your comprehension

> Does it fit with the predictions you made?

> Does your summary for each section make sense in relation to the other sections?

5. Evaluate your listening comprehension progress

Jigsaw listening is an activity, in which the learners are divided into small groups and each group listens to a different text, all the texts being on the same topic. Later the groups exchange information to pool together a complete picture[18]. Analyze the following "jig-saw" listening activity and arrange it in the three-phase framework in the space provided: *Work in pairs. Let your partner speak from one of the notes set provided. Listen to the discourse and take your own notes. Share your notes with the peers who listened to other pieces. Write a single text and give it a title.*

Notes set 1	Notes set 2	Notes set 3
Forests of West Africa, virulent diseases, felling trees, travel for jobs, spread of horrible diseases	Monkeys are infected, their meat is a delicacy, viruses pass to humans, deadly effect, taking disease to Europe	Flu outbreak in 1918, 50 million died, comeback in 21 century, poultry infected in Hong Kong, flu spreading all over
" general headline "		

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[18] Rixon, Sh. Developing Listening Skills. Modern English Publications. 1986. P.120

Three-phase framework for jigsaw reading

Phase	Procedure	
	Teacher	Learners
Pre-listening		
While-listening		
Post-listening		

6.5. The process of listening

Listening as a receptive communicative processes has its "product" i.e. the information received. The ultimate purpose of listening is to get the **"ideational structures"** of the message, which makes a coherent whole. This coherent whole on paper can take the form of the **"story map"**, **"flow diagrams"** and **"tree diagrams"** [19].

The function of the **grid** is to organize the message in the **chunks of meaning** as a result of the listening process. E.g.

Who?	When?	What?	How?	Why?

The function of the **flow chart** is to retain the **sequential relationship** between the elements of meaning in the oral text, which is perceived in the process of listening to it. These texts can describe a process, a set of instructions, narrate events in a chronological order or show a chain of cause and effect.

Event 1	Event 2	Event 3

Students can get the task of listening to "how potato crisps are made". To do the task they are to look at the diagram and to

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[19] Burgess, J. The Teaching of Listening Skills in a Second Language. University of Manchester. Unit 2, 1996. P. 18-20

complete the notes in each box in the diagram. Each box equals one stage of the process.

1. Large potatoes are washed…	2.	3. The peeled potatoes are …
4.	5.	6.
7.	8. The crisps are put into …	9. Finally…

(Adapted from Rixon, Sh., 1986. Developing Listening Skills. Modern English Publications. P. 69)

A heard text can produce **classification diagram.** Usually it contains the rubrics for placing under them features and qualities of the phenomenon under study. E.g.

	Living Beings	
Animals ?	• Feeding • Breeding • Breathing • Moving • Food-chain • Internal circulation • Senses • Reaction	Plants ?

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. What listening needs do your learners (or a group of learners you are familiar with) have? What do you do to meet those needs?

2. What do you think are second language learners' greatest difficulties with listening? If possible, interview the learners to confirm your impressions.

3. To what extent do you think listening can be taught? What do you think the role of the teacher is in a listening class?

4. Discuss some of the differences between spoken and written texts in terms of vocabulary, syntax, and discourse structure.

5. Describe listening activities that you think are effective in enhancing students' listening skills.

6. What are the similarities and differences between listening and reading comprehension processes?

7. How effective is the language lab in promoting listening skills?

Unit 7. TEACHING SPEAKING

At present, the value of learning speaking is general, that speaking is paramount, it is difficult to overestimate it. Not by chance, wanting to know whether a person knows one or another foreign language, he is asked: «Do you speak English? Говорите по русски?»

Students of all ages, starting to study foreign language primarily want to learn to speak the language. They should know the aims of target language: speaking skills, like any other skill, are not formed themselves. For their formation must be used special exercises and activities , and therefore must be learned, focusing mainly on the development of skills.

Usually begin to teach the basics of speaking. With statement of pronunciation skills, forming lexical and grammar skills, listening skills. On the initial stage of learning to separate the process of formationof these skills is almost impossible. Teacher introduces the listeners with the new structure. It involves the study of new words, sounds, intonation.

Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication.

Students often think that the ability to speak a language is the product of language learning, but speaking is also a crucial part of the language learning process. Instructors help students learn to speak so that the students can use speaking to learn.

7.1. Using language to talk about language

Language learners are often too embarrassed or shy to say anything when they do not understand another speaker or when they realize that a conversation partner has not understood them.

Instructors can help students overcome this reticence by assuring them that misunderstanding and the need for clarification can occur in any type of interaction, whatever the participants' language skill levels.

Among the genres of speaking are description (telling the details to an active listener), narration (telling the development of events to an active listener), reasoning (telling one's train of thought to an active listener), identification (talking about one's likes and dislikes) Other genres are language-in-action (people doing things and talking), comment (opinions and angles of view), service encounters (buying and selling of goods and services), debate and argument (seeking a solution and pursuing one's point), learning (use of language in learning) and decision-making (people working towards decision). The ability to perform these genres is a proof of the skill level. This is how the language is used in everyday life.

Study the list of speaking genres, indicate real world situations where these genres can occur. Some examples have been given to you.

Genre	Situation
• Description	
• Narration	Telling a tale to a child
• Reasoning	
• Identification	
• Language-in –action	
• Comment	
• Service encounters	
• Debate and argument	
• Learning	
• Decision making	

7.2. Developing Speaking Activities

Communicative exercises in teaching to speak are organized as information transfer (extracting certain pieces of information from a non-verbal form e.g. a table, a graph, a map etc). Another type of exercises is information gap (information is conveyed from the person who possesses it to the one who lacks it). Information gap can take the form of a jigsaw (each learner has only some information, which is part of the whole and is to be brought together by means of oral communication)[20].

Communicative games have a task, rules, participants, competition, winners[21]. Games can be classified as follows:

➢ Information gap games (the winner is the first who compiles together all the necessary information from other participants)

➢ Matching, contrasting and comparing games (fitting, exchanging, collating, spotting differences)

➢ Sequencing games (the winner is the first who does the correct sequencing),

➢ Guessing games (the winner is the first who does the correct guess, e.g. «Who am I?», wearing a sticky label on one's forehead and asking questions about oneself)

➢ Community games (popular past-time games like "crosswords", "dominos" or "bingo" with a language focus in mind),

➢ Attention games (the winner is the one who is most attentive in performing the tasks),

➢ Memory games (the winner is the one whose memory works best),

➢ General knowledge games (the winner is the best one at general knowledge quizzes

➢ Board games (a game organized between couples or groups of partners with a playing board, e.g. a grid and dice with a task in

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[20]Johnson. K. Five principles in a «communicative exercise type». Communicative Syllabus Design and Methodology. Prentice Hall, 1982. P. 163-175

[21] Hadfield. J. Advanced Communicative Games. 1987; Wright, A., M. Betteridge and M. Buckby. Games for Language Learning. CUP.1984.

each box of the grid and the order of tasks determined by casting the dice)

Run this typical "information-gap" activity and reflect on the procedure. *Student A is given the plan of an apartment. Student B has a blank sheet. Student A is to describe the plan of the apartment to student B without showing the sketch to him. Student B can ask comprehension-check questions. After the students have finished the task, the drawings are compared.*
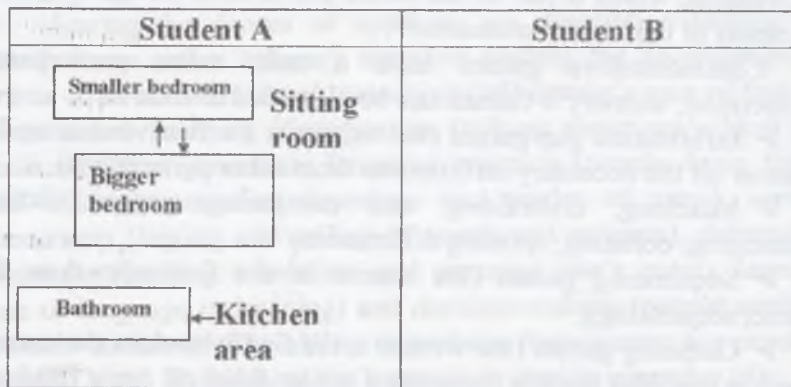
Student A	Student B

Items of analysis	Comments
1. Motivation and involvement	
2. Challenge	
3. Useful language used	
4. Questions from the listener	
5. Degree of success in drawing the sketch	

Run the "jig-saw" activity to practice speaking. Student A has a text, which is the beginning of the text for student B. The two texts complement each other. Without showing the texts to each the learners ask each other "Yes-No" questions (comprehension-check questions are allowed too e.g. "Do you mean to say that …?) and pool the whole information together. Reflect on the procedure.

Text A	Text B
British Prime Minister called for the modernization of the comprehensive system, encouraging «diversity» and innovative approaches to raising standards. This could mean the end of the traditional school day and the opening of classrooms around the clock – with schools offering out-of-hours classes for pupils and the wider community.	Schools must be able to serve the particular needs of pupils who might excel at sport or music or drama. There are many children sitting in schools today with low ambitions but huge reserves of talent that have never been unearthed. Another emphasis is the importance of teaching modern languages at schools.

Items of analysis	Comments
1. Clarity of instruction	
2. Motivation and involvement	
3. Challenge of the task	
4. Useful language	
5. Comprehension-check questions	
6. Time required to complete the task	
7. Degree of success	

Simulation activities

Simulation activities are replicating reality for language study purposes. Simulation can take the form of role-play and problem solving. Role-plays can be based on roles and scenarios[22]. Discussions are usually based on problems and opinions.

Role-play can be described with at least four features: closeness (a plot can be very close to one's own experience or distant), situation (a situation can be very typical for every day or unlikely), realism (the circumstances can be realistic or imaginary),

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[22] Porter Ladousse, G. Role Play. OUP. 1987.

personality (the characters of the role-play can resemble the participants themselves or be alien to them)[23].

Role-play can be **controlled** (the participants are responsible for the language they use), semi-controlled (participants are partly expected to use the prescribed language), **free** (participants are responsible for the message not for the prescribed language, **small-scale** (lasting for a lesson or less) and **large-scale** (lasting for more than a lesson or perhaps for the whole term)**.**

The steps of running a role-play in the lesson are shown by the graph

a role-play in the lesson are shown by the graph:

Choosing role-playing participants
Arranging communication setting
Distributing the roles
Selecting the language
Developing the plot
Acting out the role-play
Reflecting on the procedure (plot development, using the language, finding the resolution to the drama)
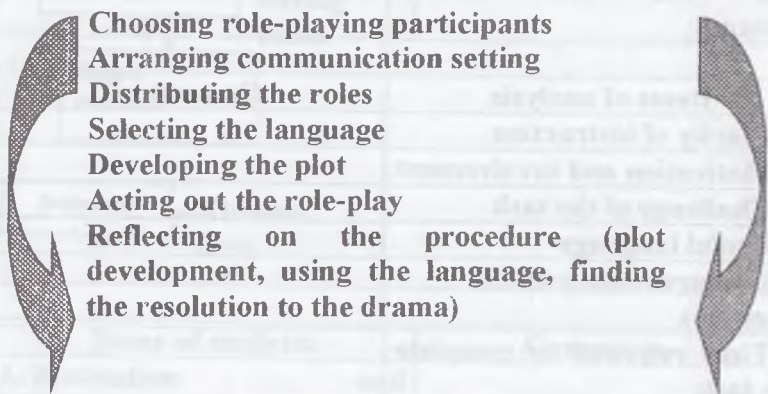
Discussion is a simulation of reality for study purposes with problem-raising task, co-operating or challenging viewpoints of participants, polarization of opinions, decision making and problem resolution.

Discussion can be organized as **pyramid discussion**. It means that a problem task is given to pairs of students. Once a pair has solved the problem, two pairs are put together to compare answers and to agree a joint solution to the problem.

Then larger groups continue to discuss the problem and to work out a single solution. Finally a single variant for the whole of the class is worked out[24].

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[23] Byrne D. Teaching Oral English. Longman, 1986. P. 117-118
[24] Jordan. R. Pyramid discussion. ELTJ 44/1. 1990. P. 48

Problem situation can arise if there is an obstacle towards the goal, alternative points of view, choice out of the alternatives, rating the items, situation of challenge (life-threatening circumstances etc.). Elements of organizing a discussion in the lesson are shown by the graph below.
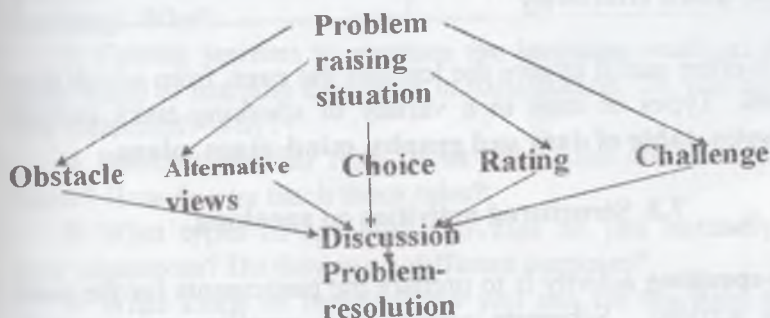
Presentation

Presentation is a structured individual or group talk made for the audience. Presentation is done in the following **stages**: introducing the subject and the team, performing the scenario of the presentation, receiving feedback. There are certain **presentation techniques** to keep the audience interested during the performance[25].

Choose the subject of your own presentation and give examples of how you are going to keep the audience interested

Techniques	Examples
• **Ruin expectations of the audience** • **use examples** • **Show illustrations** • **Ask the audience for feed-back**	

[25] A Course in Language Teaching. CUP. 1996. P. 16-17

• **Encourage the audience to think** • **Contrast views** • **Modulate your voice** • **Highlight the message** • **Close down effectively**	

It is often useful to give the learners the **cues,** from which they can speak. Types of cues in a variety of speaking tasks include **cards, notes, table of data and graphs, mind-maps, plans.**

7.3. Structured activities on speaking

Pre-speaking activity is to prepare the participants for the main speaking activity. Schemata activation is recalling prior world-knowledge of the participants that is relevant to the speaking situation. Questions, pictures and texts can be used to these ends. Brainstorming is an activity used to generate ideas in small groups before the main speaking activity. The purpose is to generate as many ideas as possible within a specified time period. The ideas are not evaluated until the end of activity time[26]. Motivation of participants can be enhanced when they clearly see the communicative problem and the ways to resolve it. **While-speaking** the participants actually resolve the communicative problem and produce its resolution as a result of the role-play, problem-solving, socialization or communication game. **Post-speaking** can provide opportunities for the learners to re-visit the language and ideas produced and to think of the ways to make communication more effective. An important part of the post-speaking activity is the development of integrated communicative skills, i.e. reading-and-speaking task, listening-and-speaking task, speaking-and-writing task etc[27].

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[26] Brown, H. Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. Prentice Hall, 1994

[27] Sheils, J. Communication in the Modern Language Classroom. Strasbourg, 1988

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. What needs do your learners (or a group of learners you are familiar with) have for interactional functions of language?

2. What aspects of speaking (e.g., pronunciation, intonation, grammatical accuracy, fluency) do you emphasize most in your teaching? Why?

3. Getting learners to produce the language orally at the very early stage of learning can result in fossilization. Do you agree with this statement? Why?

4. Besides grammar rules, what other rules do learners need to know? How do you teach these rules?

5. What types of speaking activities do you normally use in your classroom? Do they serve different purposes?

6. What kinds of materials do you use for teaching speaking skills? Why do you use them?

7. Beginning second language learners are often asked to memorize short dialogues. Is this useful? What do you think is the rationale behind this?

Unit 8. TEACHING READING

The task of learning to read as an independent kind of speech activity are as follows : to teach students to extract information from the text to the extent that is necessary to solve a specific problem of speech, to use definite reader technology.

Reading can also act as a means of formation of related speech skills and language skills, as:

• to use reading allows students to optimize the process of language acquisition and speech material ;

• communicative-oriented job control of lexis and grammar , listening, writing and speaking ability to read and are based on written texts and instructions;

• exercises on the formation and testing of all language skills relying on written text and installation to the exercises and assignments.

Traditionally, the purpose of learning to read in a language has been to have access to the literature written in that language. In language instruction, reading materials have traditionally been chosen from literary texts that represent «higher» forms of culture.

This approach assumes that students learn to read a language by studying its vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure, not by actually reading it. In this approach, lower level learners read only sentences and paragraphs generated by textbook writers and instructors. The reading of authentic materials is limited to the works of great authors and reserved for upper level students who have developed the language skills needed to read them.

Reading is a visual and cognitive process to extract meaning from writing by understanding the written text, processing information, and relating it to existing experience. Reading can be

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text driven (the text is interesting), **task driven** (the text is read because of the academic task that the learner faces) and **purpose driven** (the text is a step towards a purpose, which is outside reading).

The process of reading is characterized with **reading dynamics** i.e. the progress of reading in time. It depends much on the achieved level of language competence and the reading skills. The type of the text is also a factor in the dynamics of reading. Major types of reading dynamics are shown by the graphs[28].
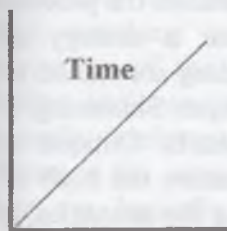
Smooth reading   Item reading   Search reading
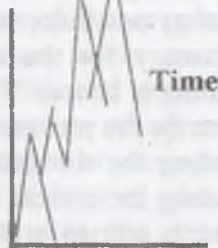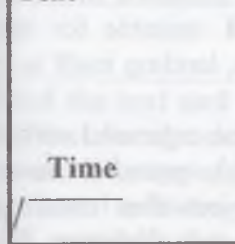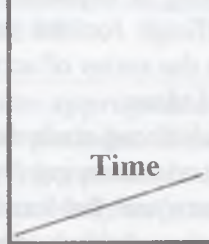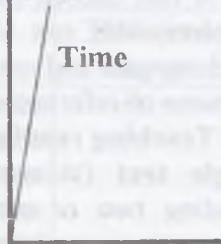
Think reading   Slow reading   Speed reading

Match the following types of texts and the expected "reading dynamics". Draw graphs of your reading dynamics. What is your dominant type?

[28] Davies, F. Introducing Reading. Penguin, 1995

Phrases	Dynamics of reading
1. Proverbs	a) Smooth reading
2. Anecdotes	b) Item reading
3. Research accounts	c) Search reading
4. Foreign language texts	d) Think reading
5. Data source	e) Slow reading
6. Menu	f) Speed reading

8.1. Reading process

The process of reading can be viewed in terms of purpose, strategy and outcome. Purpose of reading is what makes the process necessary for the reader. Related to the purpose, a strategy of reading is chosen. The following strategies of reading are named to describe the process: skimming, scanning and critique. Skimming is reading for the gist. Scanning is reading for details. Critique is reading for critical analysis and putting to verification the truth of what is written in the text. As a result of applying the strategies, a predictable outcome of reading is achieved such as general ideas, detailed information or personal opinions[29]

A text chosen for reading is expected to be authentic-made or authentic-like, not too difficult for the learners, suitable for the teaching goal and usable in the series of activities, lending itself as a resource of information and ideas.

Teaching reading to advanced students can be organised with a **single text** (skimming and scanning reading), **parallel texts** (reading two or more texts on the same subject thus creating information gap between the readers), **divided text** (splitting the text into parts and handing them out for the learners to read and them put information together, thus organizing a jig-saw reading). Advanced reading activities can take the form of **cued reading** (finding information in the text as relevant to the cue given), **guided reading** (seeking information in the text in answer to the questions given), **jig-saw reading** (pooling information together of the two or

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[29] Forrester, M. Psychology of Language. SAGE Publications, 1996. P. 161

more texts distributed between the learners), **shared reading** (reading the same text in a group but with each learner having a different task with subsequent sharing information), **critical reading** (activating thought processes over the text).

8.2. Reading activities

Reading activities are based on a number of techniques for teaching to read. Techniques for teaching to read include extracting (extracting information from the text in answer to questions or other elicitation tasks), cloze procedure (filling gaps in the text), sequencing text parts (restoring the logical order of the crippled text), matching (matching headlines and passages in the text), restoration of the text (restoring the text from bits and scraps), finding irrelevancies (finding and ticking off sentences, which are logically irrelevant in the text), fitting in sentences or passages (fitting in the sentences or passages in the points of the text, where they are logically appropriate), digest (summarizing the most essential information points from a number of texts), comment (reader's response on the text).

Reading task	Time and answer
Read the text and find the appropriate place in the text for the detached passage. *Bleeding can usually be stopped by applying pressure to the cut for 2 or 3 minutes. If it has bled freely any germs will normally have been washed away by the blood. If the cut is deep consult a doctor. A tetanus injection may be needed.* **Detached passage.** *Apply a plaster dressing firmly, bringing the edges of the cut together, so that it knits quickly.*	
Read the text and complete the gaps. *Bruises are very ... in children. Parents sometimes worry that a ... may be broken. Children's bones ... break but if*	

in doubt consult a ... Severe bruising can be ... by rest for 214 to 48 hours. A cold compress may ... a bad bruise if applied ... **(Please mask the tip: common, bone, rarely, doctor, treated, ease, soon)**	
Underline the sentences that are logically irrelevant. *Minor burns and scalds cause redness of the skin. Immediate treatment by pouring cold water over a burn is often helpful. Never use ice. If burns cause severe blistering consult a doctor. There is no need to worry. Sunburn should if possible be prevented by avoiding long exposure. Sun tan makes your skin resistible to burns.*	
Choose the best headline for the extract. *The tallest person in the world was a man and he was 272 cm tall. The shortest person in the world was a woman. She was 51 cm tall. A Russian mother in reported to have had 69 children (twins, triplets and quadruplets) between 1725 and 1765. The oldest reported person in the world was from Japan, who was 118 years old. The worst sneezing woman was a British woman who sneezed for 978 days. A/Women set more records than men. B/Strange stories. C/Human records*	
Read the text and answer the question. *Imagine three children. The first is top of the class in maths but has few friends. The second is artistic and imaginative but works in snatches. The third child puts twice as much work to get the results but has a sunny personality. The fourth child works brilliantly in group showing readiness to co-operate. The fifth child is everybody's charm and has a unique gift for being always ready to give a hand.* Question. Which child do you think has the best chance of succeeding in life?	

Reading activities are organised in the three-phase framework

Pre-reading	While-reading	Post-reading
• Schemata activation • Creating motivation • Language preparation	• Cloze task • Sequencing task • Restoring task • Irrelevance scan • Matching task • Fitting-in task	• Information retrieval • Summary • Information digest • Sharing information • Artwork • Further reading • Further writing

Sample pre-reading activities:

• Using the title, subtitles, and divisions within the text to predict content and organization or sequence of information

• Looking at pictures, maps, diagrams, or graphs and their captions

• Talking about the author's background, writing style, and usual topics

• Skimming to find the theme or main idea and eliciting related prior knowledge

• Reviewing vocabulary or grammatical structures

• Reading over the comprehension questions to focus attention on finding that information while reading

• Constructing semantic webs (a graphic arrangement of concepts or words showing how they are related)

• Doing guided practice with guessing meaning from context or checking comprehension while reading

Pre-reading activities are most important at lower levels of language proficiency and at earlier stages of reading instruction. As students become more proficient at using reading strategies, you will be able to reduce the amount of guided pre-reading and allow students to do these activities themselves.

Match while-reading activities to the purpose for reading

In while-reading activities, students check their comprehension as they read. The purpose for reading determines the appropriate type and level of comprehension.

- When reading for specific information, students need to ask themselves, have I obtained the information I was looking for?
- When reading for pleasure, students need to ask themselves, Do I understand the story line/sequence of ideas well enough to enjoy reading this?
- When reading for thorough understanding (intensive reading), students need to ask themselves, Do I understand each main idea and how the author supports it? Does what I'm reading agree with my predictions, and, if not, how does it differ? To check comprehension in this situation, students may
- Stop at the end of each section to review and check their predictions, restate the main idea and summarize the section
- Use the comprehension questions as guides to the text, stopping to answer them as they read

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. What roles does reading play in first and second language development?

2. What are some of the differences between good readers and poor readers? What can you do to help the latter improve their reading ability?

3. To what extent do research findings in reading inform classroom practice?

4. What is your approach to teaching reading? Where does this approach come from?

5. What are the arguments for incorporating reading strategies? Can strategies be taught?

6. What do you understand is meant by a "reading strategy"?

As a reader, what reading strategies do you use? Are they equally effective?

7. What is the role of prior knowledge in reading? What types of prior knowledge do you know?

8. What are some of the key factors that affect fluent reading? Why are they important?

9. What role does vocabulary play in fluent reading? How much vocabulary is needed for fluent reading?

10. What is the place of simplified readers in a second language reading program? Is the language used in those texts authentic?

Unit 9. TEACHING GRAMMAR

The main purpose of teaching grammar in high school students is the formation of grammatical skills as a critical component of speaking, listening, reading and writing.

By definition of Doctor of Philology, Professor V.G. Hook, grammar is the branch of linguistics that studies patterns of change and combinations of words, building meaningful sentences or statements. The ability to competently combine words, phrases change depending on what you want to say at the moment, is one of the most important conditions for the use of language as a means of communication. Mastery of the grammar of the target language is not only important for the formation of productive skills in speaking and writing, but also for understanding the speech of others when listening and reading.

You can intelligently build your own statement using a limited set of grammatical constructions. However, this does not guarantee that other people will not use the more complicated structure. The lack of level of grammatical skills becomes an insurmountable barrier to the formation of not only the language , but also speech and social competence .

Compare the examples below, and select the most neutral option. Explain, in which case the use of other examples may be incorrect?

1)Open the window!
2)Will you open the window?
3)Would you mind opening the window?
4)Would you mind my opening the window?
5)Why haven't you opened the window before?

6)Isn't it stuffy here? Should we open the window?

7)Why don't you open the window?

The role of grammar is perhaps one of the most controversial issues in language teaching. In the early parts of the twentieth century, grammar teaching formed an essential part of language instruction, so much so that other aspects of language learning were either ignored or downplayed. The argument was that if you knew the grammatical rules of the language, you would be able to use it for communication. This concept was strongly challenged in the early 1970s. Knowledge of the grammatical system of the language, it was argued, was but one of the many components which underlay the notion of communicative competence. To be considered a competent user of a language, one needs to know not only the rules of grammar, but also how the rules are used in real communication. During this period, grammar teaching became less prominent, and in some cases, was abandoned.

In recent years, grammar teaching has regained its rightful place in the language curriculum. People now agree that grammar is too important to be ignored, and that without a good knowledge of grammar, learners' language development will be severely constrained. There is now a general consensus that the issue is not whether or not we should teach grammar. The issue now centers on questions such as, Which grammar items do learners need most? How do we go about teaching grammar items in the most effective way? Are they best taught inductively or deductively? In this section, we consider classroom approaches to the teaching of grammar. Although there is no one best method of teaching grammar – and we have to do more research to investigate the effectiveness of the many different techniques advocated by methodologists – we do know what constitutes sound approaches to the teaching of grammar.

Grammar is central to the teaching and learning of languages. It is also one of the more difficult aspects of language to teach well.

Many people, including language teachers, hear the word «grammar» and think of a fixed set of word forms and rules of usage. They associate «good» grammar with the prestige forms of

the language, such as those used in writing and in formal oral presentations, and «bad» or «no» grammar with the language used in everyday conversation or used by speakers of no prestige forms.

Language teachers who adopt this definition focus on grammar as a set of forms and rules. They teach grammar by explaining the forms and rules and then drilling students on them. This results in bored, disaffected students who can produce correct forms on exercises and tests, but consistently make errors when they try to use the language in context.

Other language teachers, influenced by recent theoretical work on the difference between language learning and language acquisition, tend not to teach grammar at all. Believing that children acquire their first language without overt grammar instruction, they expect students to learn their second language the same way. They assume that students will absorb grammar rules as they hear, read, and use the language in communication activities. This approach does not allow students to use one of the major tools they have as learners: their active understanding of what grammar is and how it works in the language they already know.

The communicative competence model balances these extremes. The model recognizes that overt grammar instruction helps students acquire the language more efficiently, but it incorporates grammar teaching and learning into the larger context of teaching students to use the language. Instructors using this model teach students the grammar they need to know to accomplish defined communication tasks.

The goal of grammar instruction is to enable students to carry out their communication purposes. This goal has three implications:

➤ Students need overt instruction that connects grammar points with larger communication contexts.

➤ Students do not need to master every aspect of each grammar point, only those that are relevant to the immediate communication task.

➤ Error correction is not always the instructor's first responsibility.

9.1. Overt Grammar Instruction

Adult students appreciate and benefit from direct instruction that allows them to apply critical thinking skills to language learning. Instructors can take advantage of this by providing explanations that give students a descriptive understanding (declarative knowledge) of each point of grammar.

• Teach the grammar point in the target language or the students' first language or both. The goal is to facilitate understanding.

• Limit the time you devote to grammar explanations to 10 minutes, especially for lower level students whose ability to sustain attention can be limited.

• Present grammar points in written and oral ways to address the needs of students with different learning styles.

An important part of grammar instruction is providing examples. Teachers need to plan their examples carefully around two basic principles:

• Be sure the examples are accurate and appropriate. They must present the language appropriately, be culturally appropriate for the setting in which they are used, and be to the point of the lesson.

• Use the examples as teaching tools. Focus examples on a particular theme or topic so that students have more contact with specific information and vocabulary.

Relevance of Grammar Instruction

In the communicative competence model, the purpose of learning grammar is to learn the language of which the grammar is a part. Instructors therefore teach grammar forms and structures in relation to meaning and use for the specific communication tasks that students need to complete.

Compare the traditional model and the communicative competence model for teaching the English past tense:

Traditional: grammar for grammar's sake

➢ Teach the regular *-ed* form with its two pronunciation variants

➢ Teach the doubling rule for verbs that end in *d* (for example, *wed-wedded*)

➤ Hand out a list of irregular verbs that students must memorize
➤ Do pattern practice drills for *-ed*
➤ Do substitution drills for irregular verbs

Communicative competence: grammar for communication's sake

➢ Distribute two short narratives about recent experiences or events, each one to half of the class

➢ Teach the regular *-ed* form, using verbs that occur in the texts as examples. Teach the pronunciation and doubling rules if those forms occur in the texts.

➢ Teach the irregular verbs that occur in the texts.

➢ Students read the narratives, ask questions about points they don't understand.

➢ Students work in pairs in which one member has read Story A and the other Story B. Students interview one another, using the information from the interview, they then write up or orally repeat the story they have not read.

9.2. Error Correction

At all proficiency levels, learners produce language that is not exactly the language used by native speakers. Some of the differences are grammatical, while others involve vocabulary selection and mistakes in the selection of language appropriate for different contexts.

In responding to student communication, teachers need to be careful not to focus on error correction to the detriment of communication and confidence building. Teachers need to let students know when they are making errors so that they can work on improving. Teachers also need to build students' confidence in their ability to use the language by focusing on the content of their communication rather than the grammatical form.

Teachers can use error correction to support language acquisition, and avoid using it in ways that undermine students' desire to communicate in the language, by taking cues from context.

> When students are doing structured output activities that focus on development of new language skills, use error correction to guide them.

Example: Student *(in class)*: I buy a new car yesterday. Teacher: You *bought* a new car yesterday. Remember, the past tense of buy is bought.

> When students are engaged in communicative activities, correct errors only if they interfere with comprehensibility. Respond using correct forms, but without stressing them.

Example: Student *(greeting teacher*: I buy a new car yesterday!
Teacher: You bought a new car? That's exciting! What kind?

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. How much grammar does one need in order to be able to communicate comfortably in a second or foreign language?

2. Some people claim that grammar is not very important as long as you can get your message across in the language you are studying. Do you agree with this statement?

3. What has been your experience in learning the grammar of a second language?

4. Is grammar best taught in isolation or in context? Explain your answer.

5. Does one have to consciously know the rules of grammar? Why or why not?

6. How important are grammar drills in second language learning? What are the assumptions of discrete grammar practice?

7. Design an activity that promotes conscious noticing of certain grammatical features.

8. Examine an ESL textbook series and see how grammar is dealt with. What grammar items are included? How are they presented? On what basis are they selected? What are the principles used to sequence these grammar items? To what extent do the exercises link grammar to communicative interaction?

9. Should grammar be taught separately or integrated into the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing?

Unit 10. PHONOLOGY AND MEANING
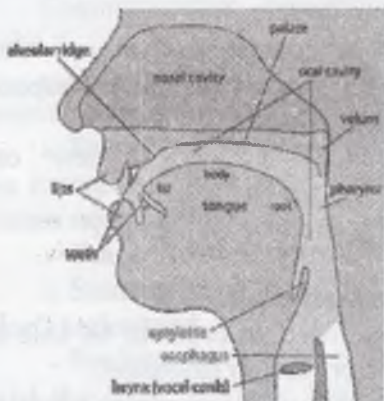
To develop skills in speaking, listening, reading and writing should not only be able to pronounce the corresponding sounds, but also to know how they are connected in the words, and then how the words are connected in the sentence. Remember how young children begin to speak, that comes before that and how quickly and easily this process is. In the context of non-linguistic ' environment, or, more simply, foreign language lessons, setting pronunciation skills should be given considerable attention. Over the past half century, the fortunes of pronunciation teaching have waxed and waned. Irrelevant in the grammar translation approach, pronunciation grew in prominence with the rise of the Direct Method and Audiolingualism, only to be pushed again to the sidelines with the ascendency of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the Natural Approach [30]. Today, pronunciation teaching is experiencing a new resurgence, fuelled largely by the increasing awareness of the communicative function of suprasegmental features in spoken discourse[31]. In the late 1980s, researchers called for a more 'top-down' approach to pronunciation teaching, emphasizing the broader, more meaningful aspects of phonology in connected speech rather than practice with isolated

[30] Krashen, S. Principles and practice in second language acquisition. Oxford: Pergamon, 1982

[31] Brazil, D., Coulthard. M., & Johns, C. Discourse intonation and language teaching. London: Longman, 1980; Brown. G., & Yule, G. Teaching the spoken language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983

sounds, thus ushering pronunciation back into the communicative fold[32].

The more pronunciation teaching materials have changed, it seems, the more they have stayed the same.

Meanwhile, research into second language phonology has suggested a wide range of factors affecting the acquisition of pronunciation beyond the behaviorist notion of habit formation, including those relating to cognitive development, linguistic universals and psychological and sociological conditions.

Teaching pronunciation is important not just because it is necessary to communicate one's ideas clearly. **Articulation movements** accompany the process of using the language not only when a person is speaking but also during listening, reading and writing. **Hidden articulation** movements were registered when a person seemed silent just listening to somebody else talking or when reading a text. The more difficult the cognitive task, the more obvious become sound articulations. Language articulation is thus closely linked to the language-and-thought processes.

If the hidden articulation movements are suppressed (in experiments the subjects are asked to perform some movements with their tongue while doing a thinking task) the subjects find it difficult to perceive the words. Pronouncing one's thoughts or at least making hidden articulations facilitates the process. People often resort to pronouncing words while reading a text when they find the text ambiguous[33].

Speech sound articulation is important not only **to pronounce** the words but also to **recognize** and to **spell** them. Russian learners of English often mistake the [t] sound for [ch] sound, believing that the word **teacher** is pronounced as [chicher], and the structure **it is** is pronounced [ichis]. Mistakes in orthography can also be traced to erroneous pronunciation. In poorer learners of English the following words can be both pronounced and spelt erroneously: **headache** is

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[32] Pennington, M. C., & Richards, J. C. Pronunciation revisited. TESOL Quarterly, 20(2), 1986. P.207–225.; Pennington, M. C. Teaching pronunciation from the top down. RELC Journal, 20(1), 1989. P.20–38 .
[33] Eyesenck, M. and M. Keane. Cognitive Psychology. Psychology Press. 1997. P. 131

pronounced and spelt as [hedach], **blood** as [blud], **type** as [tup] because <y> is associated with the Cyrillic letter and sound [oo], **climate** as [climat]. An interesting example of substituting a more familiar word for a less familiar one is

extinct, which was both read and spelt by the learners as [instinct]. This dependence between word pronunciation, recognition and spelling is shown by the graph:
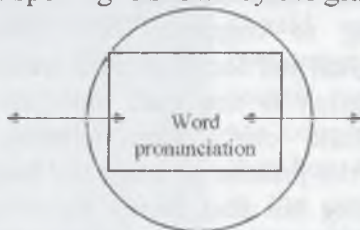
10.1. Word recognition

The communicative approach since 1980 holds that pronunciation is important for teaching the language for the purpose of communication. The studies in the importance of sounds and intonation have shown that intonation appears to be more important for communication than speech sounds. Mistakes in intonation cause more comprehension problems that mispronounced phonemes. Mastering the pronunciation of a foreign language presents great difficulties for the learners. Possible reasons for the learners making errors in pronouncing the foreign sounds are that a particular sound may be absent in the mother tongue. A sound may exist in the mother tongue but with a different articulation. Similar native sounds may not distinguish the meaning as in the foreign language (e.g. long and short vowels). Learners may mispronounce the sound because they may mishear it. Conversely, the learners can mishear the sound because they mispronounce it. That is why the first thing needed to be done is to check that the learners can hear and identify the sounds that are to be taught. After the learners have acquired the sound-symbol correspondence, they may in some languages immediately decode any given word or write down any spoken word without much hassle. In the English language it is not

so simple. This happens because in the English language the words have long changed their pronunciation but their original spelling still remains the same. English orthographic system functions on the "conservative principle" while pronunciation appears to be more dynamic and changes with the time.

The goal of teaching pronunciation is not to make the learners sound like native speakers of English. Only few highly gifted and motivated individuals can achieve it. A more realistic approach is to enable the learners to pronounce the language without detracting from the ability to comprehend the message. This approach to teaching pronunciation is called approximating[34]. The target of teaching pronunciation is to develop in learners phonetic competence, which is the knowledge of the English phonetic means such as phonemes, syllable formation, word stress and intonation.

English intonation can be introduced to the learners as the variation of the voice pitch levels. This can be compared to the variation on the music staff. The staff and an example sentence can be drawn as follows:

10.2. Phonological Awareness Activities

These activities can be copied on cardstock, cut and laminated for easy classroom use. Remember that phonological awareness can be taught with eyes closed, students do not need to see any letters, words or sentences to complete these activities. They are short, quick, and fun actions to be used while lining up, waiting for lunch, and gathering on the carpet or any other "sponge time." PA activities can be appropriately used at the beginning of a Guided Reading group if students need a specific task. Not all students will necessarily need phonological activities however all children enjoy playing these "games."

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[34] Celce-Murcia, M., D.Brinton and J. Goodwin. Teaching Pronunciation. CUP. 1996. P. 7-8

Assess where your students are on the continuum using the TPRI and as a whole group chose activities that will meet the needs of the majority of your class.

• To introduce a rhyme, or jingle, read or recite it for the children, emphasizing its rhythm and exaggerating its rhymes. Then repeat with the children each line in unison. Keep the pace slow and deliberate at first then gradually pick up the speed as children gain mastery. Some variations to increase interest are:

• Recite the poem in whispers, but say the rhyming words aloud.

• Recite the poem in very loud voices, but whisper the rhyming words.

• Recite the poem in crescending voices, getting louder and louder as you go.

• Recite the poem in decreasending voices, getting softer and softer as you go.

• Recite the poem in rounds.

• Seat the children in a circle, and ask them to recite successive lines of the poem, one at a time, in turn.

• Seat the children in a circle, and ask them to recite successive words of the poem, one at a time, in turn.

After children understand that sentences are made of words, they can be introduced to the idea that some words are made of smaller units of sound called syllables. Blending syllables together to form words and segmenting words into syllables helps children to distinguish distinct units of sounds. Children enjoy counting syllables that they hear in their own name.

Clapping, tapping, hopping, or snapping, are all ways children can show that they hear the different syllables in words. Spanish lends itself especially well to syllabification.

Syllable Ball

The teacher pronounces a word syllable by syllable and the child responds with the synthesis of the word. (e.g. say **tel—e—phone** enunciating the syllables and throw a soft ball or bean bag to a child. The child catches the ball and responds with **telephone** while tossing the ball back to the teacher.) Consider using words from a book

you have read. Some suggested words:

tel-e-vision   pter-a dac-tyl   ed-u-ca-tion   he-li-cop-ter
mo-tor-cy-cle   De-cem-ber   kin-der-gar-ten   el-e-va-tor

Stand Up, Sit Down!

❖ Students stand up if the word the teacher says has more than one syllable. Another variation is to have students stand up if they hear a word with a certain number of syllables.

❖ The student is expected to segment one-syllable spoken words into individual phonemes, including three and four phoneme words, clearly producing beginning, medial, and final sounds. Phonemes - the smallest functional unit of speech.

❖ Segmenting into phonemes or breaking down a word into individual phonemes.

➢ Tell the sounds you hear in cat /c/ /a/ /t/

➢ Tell me a word that starts with the /p/ sound.

➢ Tell me all the words from the story that started with the /m/ sound.

➢ Listen to the sound I say. Which word begins with the /s/ sound? Letter, *send*, friend

➢ Listen the sounds at the beginning of the word. Does the word "letter start with /l/ or /t/?

Word Pairs

Explain to students that when a sound is taken away from a word, a new word can exist. Model examples such as, **rice - ice**. Teacher says the word **rice** accentuating the /r/ and has students repeat the word. Then the teacher says **ice** and has the student repeat. The students determine which sound has been taken away and repeat words for themselves. Some examples of these words are **chin -in, Sam -am, sand -and, hate -ate, near -ear, shout -out, mask -ask, fat -at, fox -ox, mat -at, name -aim**.

If Your Name Begins With....

If your name begins with __/ /__,
Stand up now.
If your name begins with __/ /__,
Stand up now.
If your name begins with __/ /__,

Stand up and take a bow.
If your name begins with __/ /,__
Stand up now.

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. What do you think is a suitable target in the learning of pronunciation – a nativelike accent or a fluent but accented style of speaking?

2. What is the role of imitation-based activities in teaching pronunciation?

3. Do you think young learners have less difficulty with pronunciation than older learners? If so, why might this be the case?

4. Have you learned to speak a foreign language? What difficulties did you have with pronunciation? How did you address these difficulties?

5. Examine a textbook for teaching pronunciation. What aspects of pronunciation does it teach? What exercise types does it employ? To what extent do the exercises link pronunciation to communicative interaction?

6. What is the role of the teacher in a pronunciation class? What is the role of the learners?

7. What are the arguments for and against the use of pronunciation drills?

Unit 11. TEACHING WRITING

In linguistics, the letter refers to graphic system as a form of expression plane.

The methodology of the letter is meant to give students Orthographical foreign systems ; language for fixing the speech and language material for its best storage and as an assistant in the mastery of oral speech and reading. Writing in Linguistics and in the methodology is considered as a process of expression in graphical form.

Often in the procedure , the terms « writing» and « written speech « are not opposed . It should be borne in mind that when we talk about writing as a self- sustaining form of speech activity , we are talking about writing speech. The purpose of learning to write in this context is to teach students to write in a foreign language the same texts that educated people can write in their native language What people can write texts in their native language , which means that, ideally, should be the ultimate goal of learning to write in a foreign language ?

It may be:
• filling in forms;
• writing different kinds of letters and requests to them, including both personal and official ;
• Preparation of autobiography / resume;
• writing applications (including hiring, applying to study , and so on);
• writing reviews;
• writing annotations;

- writing reports;
- essay writing ;
- writing greeting cards;
- writing notes, and so on.

Teaching how to write effectively is one of the most important life-long skills educators impart to their students. When teaching writing, educators must be sure to select resources and support materials that not only aid them in teaching how to write, but that will also be the most effective in helping their students learn to write.

Time 4Writing.com offers educators a number of resources that assist in teaching writing. Teachers will find free writing resources on grading, writing conventions, and the use of graphic organizers. There are also valuable articles and activities on other related writing topics, like sentence writing, paragraph writing, and essay writing. The articles provide information and guidance, while the activities motivate students to practice their skills with printable worksheets, quizzes, video lessons, and interactive games. Students love learning and practicing skills using technology, which makes online courses a great way to keep them interested and motivated to learn to write.

When it comes to creative writing, students may face a lack of ideas or have so many that they can't narrow them down.

Creative writing prompts, such as odd situations, or suggestions of unusual characters often start the ideas flowing.

11.1. Graphic Organizers

Graphic organizers can help students put their writing ideas in order. Graphic organizers are sets of charts, diagrams, and maps that offer ways to brainstorm for details about a topic and then arrange those details in logical order. Graphic organizers help students see how ideas relate to each other, helping suggest which information is important, or which details to concentrate on. Graphic organizers are great tools for arranging information in preparation for writing an essay.

Writing Conventions

Writing conventions such as spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and grammar help make a student's essay clear and understandable. When the audience can finish reading, without having to stop to try to figure out what was actually intended, the value of learning these writing conventions becomes clear. ...

Critiquing & Grading

Grading writing assignments is not as straightforward as grading math assignments. Yet grading rubrics for writing can be carefully designed, and each type of element (writing mechanics, idea development, word choice, etc) can be given an appropriate weight. If a teacher knows the breakdown and value of each element, students will know how they're expected to write. Grading of writing assignments thus becomes much easier for the teacher.

11.2. The Writing Process

Going through the full writing process—pre-writing, drafting, revising, rewriting and publishing—can be a lot of work, but it's always worth the effort. Each stage of the writing process builds on the last, and each subsequent stage would be much harder if the previous one hadn't been completed. When students read the essay in its final, polished form, it becomes clear that following the complete writing process produces the best essay.

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. Do you write a lot in your native language? Is it difficult to write in your own language? What kinds of problems do you have when you write? Do these problems have to do with vocabulary, syntax, or organization?

2. How important are the following processes in writing: planning, drafting, editing, and rewriting?

3. What approach do you use in teaching writing skills? How successful have you been in teaching writing?

4. Describe the textbook you use for teaching writing skills. Does it follow any particular approach of teaching? What kinds of activities are commonly used?

5. What is process writing?

Unit 12. INTEGRATED SKILLS

For more than six decades now, research and practice in English language teaching has identified the «four skills» — listening, speaking, reading, and writing – as of paramount importance. ESL curricula and textbooks around the world tend to focus, all too often, on just one of the four skills , sometimes to the exclusion of the others. Books, articles, anthologies, research surveys, and conferences typically index or organize their contents according to each of the four skills. It is perfectly appropriate to thus identify language performance.

The human race has fashioned two forms of productive performance, oral and written, and two forms of receptive performance, aural (or auditory) and reading. There are, of course, offshoots of each mode.

Despite our history of treating the four skills in separate segments, of a curriculum, there is a recent trend toward skill (integration). Rather than designing a curriculum to teach the many aspects of one skill, say, reading, curriculum designers are taking more of a whole language approach whereby reading is treated as one of two or more interrelated skills. A course that deals «with reading skills, then, will more often than not also deal with related listening, speaking, and writing skills. A lesson in a so-called reading class, under this new paradigm, might include:

• *a pre-reading discussion of the topic to activate schemata;*

• *listening to a teacher's monologue or a series of informative statements about the topic of a passage to be read;*

• *a focus on a certain reading strategy, say, scanning;*

• *writing a response to or paraphrase of a reading passage.*

This reading class, then, models for the students the real-life integration of language skills, gets them to perceive the relationship among several skills, provides the teacher with a great deal of flexibility in creating interesting, motivating lessons.

12.1. Why integrated skills?

Some may argue that the integration of the four skills diminishes the importance of the rules of listening, speaking, reading, and writing that are unique to each separate skill.

Such an argument rarely holds up under careful scrutiny of integrated-skills courses. If anything, the added richness of the latter gives students greater motivation that converts to better retention of principles of effective speaking, listening, reading, and writing.

Rather than being forced to plod along through a course that limits itself to one mode of performance, students are given a chance to diversify their efforts in more meaningful tasks.

Such integration can, of course, still utilize a strong, principled approach to the separate, unique characteristics of each skill Aside from these caveats, the integration of the four skills—or at least two or more skills—is the typical approach within a communicative, interactive framework. As Hinkel noted, «In an age of globalization, pragmatic objectives of language learning place an increased value on integrated and dynamic multi skill instructional models with a focus on meaningful communication and the development of learners' communicative competence.»[35]

The following observations support such techniques.

1. Production and reception are quite simply two sides of the same coin; one cannot split the coin in two,

2. Interaction means sending and receiving messages.

3. Written and spoken language often (but not always!) bear a relationship to each other; to ignore that relationship is to ignore the richness of language.

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[35] Hinkel, E. Current perspectives on teaching the four skills. Tesol Quarterly, 40(1), 2006. p. 113

4. For literate learners, the interrelationship of written and spoken language is an intrinsically motivating reflection of language and culture and society.

5. By attending primarily to what learners can do with language, and only secondarily to the forms of language, we invite any or all of the four skills that are relevant into the classroom arena.

6. Often one skill will reinforce another; we learn to speak, for example, in part by modeling what we hear, and we learn to write by examining what we can read.

7. Proponents of the whole language approach have shown us that in the real world of language use, most of our natural performance involves not only the integration of one or more skills, but connections between language and the way we think and feel and act.

12.2. Models of skills integration

How can you maintain an integrated-skills focus in your teaching? All of the models and approaches described in are predicated on the use of at least two if not all four skills: learner-centered instruction: cooperative or collaborative learning, interactive learning, whole language education, content-based instruction, and task-based instruction.

Even the added «candidates! for approaches, the Lexical Approach and Multiple Intelligences, imply several skills in developing communicative competence.

In order to illustrate a number of possible integrated approaches to language instruction, two of the previous models (content-based and task-based instruction) will be briefly analyzed here along with some further concepts that highlight the integration of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Content-Based Instruction Content-based (sometimes referred to as «content-centered») instruction, described, integrates the learning of some specific subject matter content with the learning of a second language. The overall structure of a content-based-curriculum, in contrast to many traditional language curricula,

is dictated more by the nature of the subject matter than by language forms and sequences. The second language, then is simply the medium to convey informational content of interest and relevance to the learner. Examples of content based curricula include immersion programs for elementary school children, sheltered English programs (mostly found at elementary and secondary school levels), writing across the curriculum (where writing skills in secondary schools and universities are taught within subject-matter areas like biology, history, art, etc.), and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (e.g., for engineering, agriculture, or medicine).

It is perhaps already clear that content-based teaching allows learners to acquire knowledge and skills that transcend all the bits and pieces of language that may occupy hours and days of analyzing in a traditional language classroom. Research on second language acquisition at various ages indicates the ultimate strength of learning that is pointed toward practical non-language goals. The meaningful learning principle applies well here. Learners are focused on useful, practical objectives as the subject matter is perceived to be relevant to long-term goals. This also increases the intrinsic motivation that is so important to learning of any kind. Content-based instruction allows for the complete integration of language skills. As you plan a lesson around a particular subtopic of your subject-matter area, your task becomes how best to present that topic or concept or principle. In such lessons it would be difficult not to involve all four skills as your students read, discuss, solve problems, analyze data, and write opinions and reports.

Task-Based Language Teaching. There are a number of different interpretations in the literature on what, exactly, a task is. What these various understandings all emphasize, however, is the centrality of the task itself in a language course and the importance of organizing a course around communicative tasks that learners need to engage in outside the classroom. At its heart, then, TBLT implies several integrated skills in its focus on language in the real world. Most real-world situations demand simultaneous use : two or more skills. In task-based instruction, the priority is not the forms of

language, but rather the functional purposes for which language must be used.

Input for tasks can come from a variety of authentic sources:
•speeches
•interviews
•conversations
•oral descriptions
•narratives
•media extracts
•public announcements
•games and puzzles
•cartoon strips
•photos
•letters, e-mails
•diaries
•poems
•songs
•directions
•telephone directories
•invitations
•menus
•textbooks
•labels

And the list could continue. Evident in this variety of source material is the necessity of attending to more than just one of the four skills. Course goals in TBLT are not linguistic in the traditional sense of just focusing on grammar or phonology; by maintaining the centrality of functions like exchanging opinions, reading newspapers and menus, writing letters and e-mails, etc., the course goals center on learners' pragmatic language competence.

So we have in task-based teaching a well-integrated approach to language teaching that asks you to organize your classroom around those practical tasks that language users engage in «out there» in the real world. These tasks virtually always imply several skill areas, not just one, and so by pointing toward tasks, we disengage ourselves from thinking only in terms of the separate four skills.

Instead, principles of listening, speaking, reading, and writing become appropriately subsumed under the rubric of what it is our learners are going to do with this language.

Theme-Based Instruction

Another way of looking at the integration of skills is to consider the structure of many English language courses around the world. Courses tend to focus on topics, situations, or «themes» as one of their organizing parameters.

Theme-based instruction is not the same as content-based. In order to distinguish the two, let's think of the former as a «weak» version of the latter. In the strong version (content-based), the primary purpose of a course is to instruct students in a subject-matter area, and language is of secondary, and subordinate interest. The examples of content based instruction mentioned earlier in this chapter are good illustrations of the strong version. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at the university level, for example, gathers engineering majors together in a course designed to teach terminology, concepts, and current issues in engineering. Because students are ESL students, they must of course learn this material in English, which the teacher is prepared to help them with. Immersion and sheltered programs, along with programs in writing across the curriculum, are similarly focused.

A weak form of content-based teaching actually places an equal value on content and language objectives. While the curriculum, to be sure, is organized around subject-matter area, both students and teachers are fully aware that language skills don't occupy a subordinate role. Students have no doubt chosen to take a course or curriculum because their language skills need improvement, and they are now able to work toward that improvement without being battered with linguistically based topics.

The ultimate payoff is that their language skills are indeed enhanced, but through focal attention to topic and peripheral attention to language.

This weak version is actually practical and effective in many instructional settings. It typically manifests itself in what has come to be called theme-based or topic-based teaching. Theme based

instruction provides an alternative to what would otherwise be traditional language classes by structuring a course around themes or topics. Theme-based curricula can serve the multiple interests of students in a classroom and can offer a focus on content while still adhering to institutional needs for offering a language course per se. So, for example, an intensive English course for intermediate pre-university students might deal with topics of current interest such as public health, environmental awareness, world economics, etc. In the classroom students read articles or chapters, view video programs, discuss issues, propose solutions, and carry out writing assignments on a given theme. English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in a university is an appropriate instance of theme based instruction.

Granted, there is a fuzzy line of distinction between theme-based instruction and «traditional» language instruction. You could easily argue that many existing reading and writing courses, for example, are theme-based in that they offer students substantial opportunities to grapple with topics of relevance and interest. I don't think it is important, or necessary, to dichotomize here. What is important is to view theme-based instruction as a context for the integration of skills.

Numerous current ESL textbooks, especially at the intermediate to advanced levels, offer theme-based courses of study. Challenging topics in these textbooks engage the curiosity and increase motivation of students as they grapple with an array of real-life issues ranging from simple to complex and also improve their linguistic skills across all four domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Consider just one of an abundance of topics that have been used as themes through which language is taught: environmental awareness and action. With this topic, you are sure to find immediate intrinsic motivation—we all want to survive! Here are some possible theme-based activities:

1. Use environmental statistics and facts for classroom reading, writing, discussion, and debate. You don't have to look very far to

find information about environmental crises, research on the issues, and pointers on what individuals can do to forestall a global disaster.

Here are some modes of performance based on such material (coded for each of the skills):

[for intermediate to advanced students]

- (R) scan [reading selections] for particular information
- (W) do compare-and-contrast exercises
- (R) look for biases in statistics
- (L,S) use statistics in argument
- (W) use the discourse features of persuasive writing
- (W) write personal opinion essays
- (L,S) discuss issues
- (L,S) engage in formal debates [for beginning students]
- (S,W) use imperatives («Don't buy aerosol spray cans.»)
- (S) practice verb tenses («The ozone layer is vanishing.»)
- (L,S,R,W) develop new vocabulary
- (S,W) use cardinal and ordinal numbers
- (L,S) practice simple conversations/dialogues like:

A: Why do you smoke?
B: Because I like it.
A: You shouldn't smoke.
B: Well, it makes me less nervous.
A: But it's not good for your health.
B: I don't care.
A: Well, you will die young.

2. Carry out research and writing projects. When your ESL syllabus calls for a research project, an intrinsically motivating assignment is to research an environmental topic. Libraries, bookstores, newsstands, television and radio programs, and even political campaigns are fruitful sources of information. While individual projects are suitable, you can also encourage students to work in pairs or teams, each assigned to a different aspect of an issue. Data are sought, gathered, and synthesized; counter-arguments are explored; and results are presented orally and/or in writing to the rest of the class.

3. Have students create their own environmental awareness material. Whether you are teaching adults or children, beginning or advanced students, you can get a great deal of language and content material out of a language experience approach (see next section, below) in which students create leaflets, posters, bulletin boards, newsletter articles, or even a booklet that outlines practical things they can do to «save the Earth.» If time and equipment permit, some exciting projects can be done with a video camera, such as an information program, a drama, interviews, or news reports.
4. Arrange field trips. These could involve a pre-trip module (of perhaps several days) of reading, researching, and other fact-finding, and a post-trip module of summary and conclusions. Field trips can be made to recycling centers, factories that practice recycling, wildlife preserves, areas that need litter removed (abandoned lots, beaches, parks), etc.

5. Conduct simulation games. A number of simulation games are being created that use the environmental crisis as a theme around which to build various scenarios for the gaming process. Some games get quite elaborate, with countries of the world and their respective resources represented by objects like egg cartons, bottles, cans, newspapers, and the like, and players charged to resolve problems of unequal distribution of wealth as well as environmental controls.

It should be apparent from the foregoing that all four skills intertwine in these types of activities in the language classroom, and that it would be difficult not to involve several skill areas.

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. Why should we integrate the four skills?
2. How can we integrate the four skills?
3. What are the implications for teaching?
4. What are the limitations of integrating the four skills?
5. What are the principles of integrated language teaching and learning?

Unit 13. COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

13.1. The communicative approach
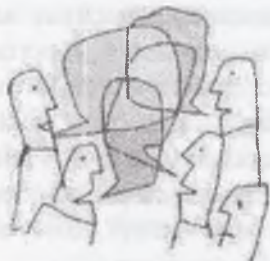
The communicative approach is the theory that language is communication.

Therefore the final aim of CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) is communicative competence.

The Principles of the Communicative Approach:

➤ Learners learn through using it to communicate

➤ Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities

➤ Fluency is an important dimension of communication

➤ Communication involves the integration of different language skills

➤ Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error

So what is the teacher's role in this?

The teacher has two main roles:

• To facilitate the communication process in the classroom.

• To act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group.

The teacher is also expected to act as a resource, an organizer of resources, a motivator, a counselor, a guide, an analyst and a researcher.

There are many other minor roles of a teacher, some of these would include being an actor and an entertainer. After all, a good lesson must be interesting or the students will 'switch off' and learn nothing.

In practical terms, what does that mean?

It means that we need to concentrate on the following:
- ❖ Teacher – Student activities
- ❖ Activities

Materials. Since communicative competence is our aim, it is essential that students be given every opportunity to practice communicating. In the communicative classroom teacher talking time (TTT) must be kept to a minimum. This is not to say that the teacher shouldn't speak at all, but TTT should be controlled and appropriate.

The classroom should be learner centered.

The teacher's role is to facilitate student communication which is done through careful selection of materials and activities relevant to the aims of the lesson in which they are used.

Communication can be divided into two categories
- Input
- Output

The four communicative skills can be put into these categories. Whichever of these skills is being taught the main focus must be on the student and not on the teacher. The interaction should usually be the student to student and should include the teacher only where necessary. During most classroom activities the teacher will monitor and intervene only where necessary.

Classroom activities should, as far as is possible, be carried out in the target language (English).

Having said this, there may sometimes be occasions where allowing the students to briefly discuss a point in their native tongue can promote greater understanding and assimilation of new information. This is controversial issue and should not usually be permitted.

There are many different types of activities. They provide speaking, listening, writing and reading practice as well as aiding production.

Activities are often used to practise real-life situations involving social interaction and so a high level of social and functional language should be expected.

Materials fall into three broad categories:
- text-based;
- task-based;
- realia.

They can be used as the basis for classroom activities. Once again not only must the activity be appropriate to the level of the students but the materials used must be appropriate too.

We should now understand that the teacher's job is to get their students to communicate using real language by providing them with instruction, practice, and above all opportunities to produce English in activities which encourage acquisition and fluency.

CLT should be fun for both teacher and students.

Enabling students to communicate successfully is also very rewarding.

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. What is Communicative language teaching?

2. Give some examples of exercises on communicative language teaching?

3. How do the teachers and students change roles in Communicative language teaching?

4. How many principles of the Communicative Approach do you know?

Unit 14. ASSESSMENT IN TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

It has been known that assessment for learning should be part of effective planning of teaching and learning. Thus, the understanding on what, why, and how on assessment seem really urgent for teachers. Assessment does not include decision making and reporting. It focuses mainly on data gathering and placing a value on something.

Put it another way, assessment seems to cover stages 1, 2, and 3 of the evaluation process. Meanwhile, the last term, testing, is the narrowest in scope. It is one of the techniques for collecting the data or scores.

Assessment is a broad term that includes testing. A test is a special form of assessment. Tests are assessments made under contrived circumstances especially so that they may be administered. In other words, all tests are assessments, but not all assessments are tests. We test at the end of a lesson or unit. Whether implicit or explicit, assessment is most usefully connected to some goal or objective for which the assessment is designed. A test or assessment yields information relative to an objective or goal. In that sense, we test or assess to determine whether or not an objective or goal has been obtained. Assessment of skill attainment is rather straightforward. Either the skill exists at some acceptable level or it doesn't. Skills are readily demonstrable. Assessment of understanding is much more difficult and complex. Skills can be practiced; understandings cannot. We can assess a person's knowledge in a variety of ways, but there is always a leap, an inference that we make about what a person does in relation to what it signifies about what he knows.

Educational assessment involves gathering and evaluating data evolving from planned learning activities or programs. This form of assessment is often referred to as. Learner assessment represents a particular type of educational assessment normally conducted by teachers and designed to serve several related purpose.

These purposes include: motivating and directing learning, providing feedback to student on their performance, providing feedback on instruction and/or the curriculum, and ensuring standards of progression are met.

14.1. Why Assessment?

For teachers and curriculum/course designers, carefully constructed learner assessment techniques can help determining whether or not the stated goals are being achieved.

According to Brissenden and Slater as cited by[36], classroom assessment can help teachers answer the following specific questions:

1. To what extent are my students achieving the stated goals?
2. How should I allocate class time for the current topic?
3. Can I teach this topic in a more efficient or effective way?
4. What parts of this course/unit are my students finding most valuable?
5. How will I change this course/unit the next time I teach it?
6. Which grades do I assign my students?

Meanwhile, for students, learner assessment answers a different set of questions:

1. Do I know what my instructor thinks is most important?
2. Am I mastering the course content?
3. How can I improve the way I study in this course?
4. What grade am I earning in this course?

Explaining the importance of assessment, Brissenden and Slater as cited by Scanlan states that first and foremost, assessment is important because it drives students learning. Whether we like it or

[36] Brissenden, G. & Slater, T. Assessment primer. In College Level One (CL-1) Team. Field-tested learning assessment guide. Available at http://www.flaguide.org.

not, most students tend to focus their energies on the best or most expeditious way to pass their 'tests.' Based on this knowledge, we can use our assessment strategies to manipulate the kinds of learning that takes place.

For example, assessment strategies that focus predominantly on recall of knowledge will likely promote superficial learning. On the other hand, if we choose assessment strategies that demand critical thinking or creative problem-solving, we are likely to realize a higher level of student performance or achievement. In addition, good assessment can help students become more effective self-directed learners.

As indicated above, motivating and directing learning is only one purpose of assessment. Well-designed assessment strategies also play a critical role in educational decision-making and are a vital component of ongoing quality improvement processes at the lesson, course and/or curriculum level.

14.2. Some Key Concepts in Assessment

To ensure our comprehension on assessment, some important concepts in assessment are noted by Cameron as follows[37].

Formative and summative assessment

Formative assessment aims to inform ongoing teaching and learning by providing immediate feedback. A teacher who assesses pupils' understanding of a listening text and uses the outcomes to change her plan and give more practice before moving on to a speaking activity, is carrying out formative assessment. Ideally, formative assessment should influence both teaching and learning by giving feedback to both teacher and learner. Summative assessment, on the other hand, aims to asses learning at the end of a unit, term, year, or course, and does not feed back into the next round of teaching.

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[37] Cameron Richards, Christy Edina. An Assessment of the Mary Shore Cameron Sherlock Holmes Collection at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. A Master's Paper for the M.S. in L.S. degree. November. 2003

Diagnostic and Achievement Assessment

Many assessment activities provide both formative and summative information, but it is helpful to be clear as to the primary purpose and one of an assessment because this can affect what kind of information the activity needs to produce. An assessment of pronunciation skills that a formative will need to tell us where pupils are having difficulty so that the teacher can decide how to give extra practice; a test that gives a list of marks will not help the teacher make such decisions, but an activity that produces a description of each child's performance will. This example highlights the distinction between assessing achievement, i.e. what a learner can do, and diagnostic assessment that aims to establish what a child can and can not yet do, so that further learning opportunities can be provided.

Criterion-referenced and Norm-referenced Assessment

If we assess learner's achievement, we can produce a ranking of learners which says that child X has learnt more than child Y and less that child Z; this would be norm-referenced. Alternatively, we can compare a learner's performance, not to other learners, but to a set of criteria of expected performance or learning targets. Criterion-referenced assessment can match the child's performance against an expected response on an item, or it may make use of a set of descriptors along a scale, on which a learner is placed.

Validity

The concepts of validity and reliability are used to describe the technical quality of assessment practices. They are more often applied to testing, although are also important in alternative assessment. Validity is more important, particularly in alternative assessment, and concerns how far an assessment assesses what it claims to. If a test does not measure what it claims to, then there are clearly dangers in using it.

Reliability.

Reliability measures how well a test or assessment assesses what it claims to: would the assessment produce the same results if it were taken by the same pupils on different occasions, or if the

same test or assessment was scored by different people?[38] Validity and reliability can be conflicting needs for assessment techniques and procedures.

The most reliable assessments will be pencil and paper tests in which each item measures only a single aspect of a skill and which give each testee a numerical mark. But the most valid assessments will be on those that collect a lot of information about performance on several aspects of a skill. When validity increased, reliability decreased.

Principles for Good Assessment

Another important question on assessment is: what principles which provide the most essential, fundamental «structure» of assessment knowledge and skills that result in effective educational practices and improved student learning?

1. Good assessment is valid.
2. Good assessment is fair and ethical.
3. Good assessments use multiple methods.
4. Good assessment is efficient and feasible.
5. Good assessment appropriately incorporates technology.

Testing: Why and How

Testing is certainly not the only way to assess students, but there are many good reasons for including a test in our language course, as stated by Frost[39].

1. A test can give the teacher valuable information about where the students are in their learning and can affect what the teacher will cover next. They will help a teacher to decide if her teaching has been effective and help to highlight what needs to be reviewed. Testing can be as much an assessment of the teaching as the learning

2. Tests can give students a sense of accomplishment as well as information about what they know and what they need to review.

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[38] Gipps C.V. and Stoba G. T. Assessment: A Teacher's Guide to the Issues. Hodder & Stoughton, 1993

[39] Frost, D. What Can Headteachers Do to Support Teachers' Leadership? *Inform No 4* Occasional papers published by Leadership for Learning: the Cambridge Network August 2004

3. Tests can also have a positive effect in that they encourage students to review material covered on the course.

However, Frost also notes why testing doesn't work. According to him, there are many arguments against using tests as a form of assessment[40]:

1. Some students become so nervous that they can't perform and don't give a true account of their knowledge or ability

2. Other students can do well with last-minute cramming despite not having worked throughout the course

3. Once the test has finished, students can just forget all that they had learned

4. Students become focused on passing tests rather than learning to improve their language skills.

Frost admits that using only tests as a basis for assessment has obvious drawbacks[41]. They are 'one-off' events that do not necessarily give an entirely fair account of a student's proficiency. As we have already mentioned, some people are more suited to them than others. There are other alternatives that can be used instead of or alongside tests.

1. Continuous assessment

Teachers give grades for a number of assignments over a period of time. A final grade is decided on a combination of assignments.

2. Portfolio

A student collects a number of assignments and projects and presents them in a file.

The file is then used as a basis for evaluation.

3. Self-assessment

The students evaluate themselves. The criteria must be carefully decided upon beforehand.

4. Teacher's assessment

The teacher gives an assessment of the learner for work done throughout the course including classroom contributions.

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[40]Frost, D. What Can Headteachers Do to Support Teachers' Leadership? *Inform No 4* Occasional papers published by 'Leadership for Learning: the Cambridge Network August 2004

[41] Frost, D. 'What Can Headteachers Do to Support Teachers' Leadership?' *Inform No 4* Occasional papers published by 'Leadership for Learning: the Cambridge Network August 2004

To summarize, what is most essential about assessment is understanding how general, fundamental assessment principles and ideas can be used to enhance student learning and teacher effectiveness. This will be achieved as teachers and administrators learn about conceptual and technical assessment concepts, methods, and procedures, for both large-scale and classroom assessments, and apply these fundamentals to instruction. Finally, the comprehension on the assessment principles will guide the assessment training and professional development of teachers and administrators to run more productive assessment.

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. How do you evaluate your students' composition? What aspects (e.g., grammar, spelling, content, organization) do you take into account when marking your students' papers?

2. What is the difference between a subjective and an objective test? Which one do you usually use? What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of these two types of test?

3. Do you agree that assessment is the sole responsibility of the teacher? Why or why not?

4. How can you involve students in assessing their learning?

5. How do you assess your students' speaking and listening skills?

6. How do you make sure that your assessment is valid and reliable?

7. Is it better to assess students' language skills separately or holistically?

Unit 15. AUTONOMY IN LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

AUTONOMY
THE DESIRE TO BE
SELF DIRECTED

Autonomy is a concept found in moral, political, and bioethical philosophy. Within these contexts, it is the capacity of a rational individual to make an informed, un-coerced decision. In moral and political philosophy, autonomy is often used as the basis for determining moral responsibility and accountability for one's actions.

One of the best known philosophical theories of autonomy was developed by Kant. In medicine, respect for the autonomy of patients is an important goal, though it can conflict with a competing ethical principle, namely beneficence. Autonomy is also used to refer to the self-government of the people.

Autonomy is 'the ability to take charge of one's learning'. On a general note, the term autonomy has come to be used in at least five ways:

• for situations in which learners study entirely on their own;

• for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;

• for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education;

• for the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning,

• for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning. [42]

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[42] Benson, P. & Voller, P. Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning. London: Longman.1997. p.1

It is noteworthy that autonomy can be thought of in terms of a departure from education as a social process, as well as in terms of redistribution of power attending the construction of knowledge and the roles of the participants in the learning process. As has been intimated so far, the term autonomy has sparked considerable controversy, inasmuch as linguists and educationalists have failed to reach a consensus as to what autonomy really is. For example, in David Little's terms, learner autonomy is 'essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning--a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action'.[43] It is not something done to learners; therefore, it is far from being another teaching method. In the same vein, Leni Dam [44], drawing upon[45], defines autonomy in terms of the learner's willingness and capacity to control or oversee her own learning. More specifically, she, like Holec, holds that someone qualifies as an autonomous learner when he independently chooses aims and purposes and sets goals; chooses materials, methods and tasks; exercises choice and purpose in organizing and carrying out the chosen tasks; and chooses criteria for evaluation.

To all intents and purposes, the autonomous learner takes a (pro-) active role in the learning process, generating ideas and availing himself of learning opportunities, rather than simply reacting to various stimuli of the teacher. [46]As we shall see, this line of reasoning operates within, and is congruent with, the theory of constructivism. For Rathbone[47], the autonomous learner is a self-activated maker of meaning, an active agent in his own learning process. Within the context of education, though, there seem to be seven main attributes characterising autonomous learners :

1. Autonomous learners have insights into their learning styles and strategies;

2. take an active approach to the learning task at hand;

[43] Little, D. Learner Autonomy. 1: Definitions, Issues and Problems. Dublin: Authentik. 1991. p.4

[44] Johnson, Pardesi, and Paine. 1990. Autonomy in Our Primary School. In Gathercole, I. 1990. Autonomy in Language Learning. CILT: Bourne Press. 1990. p.16

[45] Holec, H. Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning. Oxford: OUP. 1981

[46] Boud Boud, D. (ed.). Developing Student Autonomy in Learning. New York: Kogan Press. 1988

[47] Candy, Self-direction for Lifelong Learning. California: Jossey-Bass. 1991. p.271

3. are willing to take risks, i.e., to communicate in the target language at all costs;

4. are good guessers;

5. attend to form as well as to content, that is, place importance on accuracy as well as appropriacy;

6. develop the target language into a separate reference system and are willing to revise and reject hypotheses and rules that do not apply; and

7. have a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language.[48]

Here, some comments with respect to the preceding list are called for. The points briefly touched upon above are necessary but not sufficient conditions for the development of learner autonomy, and many more factors such as learner needs, motivation, learning strategies, and language awareness have to be taken into consideration. For example, the first point hinges upon a metalanguage that learners have to master in order to be regarded as autonomous, while points 4) and 7) pertain to learner motivation. In view of this, an attempt will be made, in subsequent sections, to shed some light on some of the parameters affecting, and interfering with, learners' self-image as well as their capacity and will to learn. It is of consequence to note that autonomy is a process, not a product. One does not become autonomous; one only works towards autonomy. One corollary of viewing autonomy in this way is the belief that there are some things to be achieved by the learner, as well as some ways of achieving these things, and that autonomy 'is learned at least partly through educational experiences [and interventions]'.[49] But prior to sifting through the literature and discussing learning strategies, motivation, and attitudes entertained by learners, it would be pertinent to cast learner autonomy in relation to dominant philosophical approaches to learning. The assumption is that what is dubbed as learner autonomy and the extent to which it is a permissible and viable educational goal are all

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[48] Omaggio. A.Successful language learners: What do we know about them? ERIC / CLL News Bulletin, 1978. May, 2-3. P.41-42

[49] Candy. Self-direction for Lifelong Learning. California: Jossey-Bass. 1991. P.115

too often 'based on [and thus constrained by] particular conceptions of the constitution of knowledge itself.'[50]

15.1. Conditions for Learner Autonomy

The concern of the present study has so far been with outlining the general characteristics of autonomy. At this juncture, it should be reiterated that autonomy is not an article of faith, a product readymade for use or merely a personal quality or trait. Rather, it should be clarified that autonomous learning is achieved when certain conditions obtain: cognitive and metacognitive strategies on the part of the learner, motivation, attitudes, and knowledge about language learning, i.e., a kind of metalanguage. To acknowledge, however, that learners have to follow certain paths to attain autonomy is tantamount to asserting that there has to be a teacher on whom it will be incumbent to show the way. In other words, autonomous learning is by no means «teacherless learning.» As Sheerin succinctly puts it, 'teachers--have a crucial role to play in launching learners into self-access and in lending them a regular helping hand to stay afloat'.[51]

Probably, giving students a «helping hand» may put paid to learner autonomy, and this is mainly because teachers are ill-prepared or reluctant to 'wean [students]--away from teacher dependence'. [52]After all, 'it is not easy for teachers to change their role from purveyor of information to counsellor and manager of learning resources--And it is not easy for teachers to let learners solve problems for themselves'. [53]Such a transition from teacher-control to learner-control is fraught with difficulties but it is mainly in relation to the former that the latter finds its expression.

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[50] Benson, P. & Voller, P. Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning. London: Longman. 1997.p.20

[51] Benson, P. & Voller, P. Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning. London: Longman. 1997. p. 63

[52] Benson, P. & Voller, P. Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning. London: Longman. 1997. P. 63

[53] Gathercole, I. Autonomy in Language Learning. CILT: Bourne Press. 1990. p. 11

15.2. Learning Strategies

According to O'Malley and Chamot , learning strategies are 'the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information'.[54] 'Learning strategies are mental steps or operations that learners use to learn a new language and to regulate their efforts to do so'.[55] To a greater or lesser degree, the strategies and learning styles that someone adopts 'may partly reflect personal preference rather than innate endowment' .

15.2.1. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies 'operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning'. Learners may use any or all of the following cognitive strategies [56]:

• repetition, when imitating others' speech;

• resourcing, i.e., having recourse to dictionaries and other materials;

• translation, that is, using their mother tongue as a basis for understanding and/or producing the target language;

• note-taking;

• deduction, i.e., conscious application of L2 rules;

• contextualisation, when embedding a word or phrase in a meaningful sequence;

• transfer, that is, using knowledge acquired in the L1 to remember and understand facts and sequences in the L2;

• inferencing, when matching an unfamiliar word against available information (a new word etc);

• question for clarification, when asking the teacher to explain, etc.

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[54] Cook, V. Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition. London: Macmillan: 1993. p.113
[55] Skehan, P. A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning. Oxford: OUP1998. P.237
[56] Cook, V. Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition. London: Macmillan: 1993. p. 114-115

15.2.2. Metacognitive Strategies

According to Wenden, 'metacognitive knowledge includes all facts learners acquire about their own cognitive processes as they are applied and used to gain knowledge and acquire skills in varied situations'.[57] In a sense, metacognitive strategies are skills used for planning, monitoring, and evaluating the learning activity; 'they are strategies about learning rather than learning strategies themselves' .[58] Let us see some of these strategies:

• directed attention, when deciding in advance to concentrate on general aspects of a task;

• selective attention, paying attention to specific aspects of a task;

• self-monitoring, i.e., checking one's performance as one speaks;

• self-evaluation, i.e., appraising one's performance in relation to one's own standards;

• self-reinforcement, rewarding oneself for success.

At the planning stage, also known as pre-planning, learners identify their objectives and determine how they will achieve them. Planning, however, may also go on while a task is being performed. This is called planning-in-action. Here, learners may change their objectives and reconsider the ways in which they will go about achieving them. At the monitoring stage, language learners act as 'participant observers or overseers of their language learning' (ibid.), asking themselves, «How am I doing? Am I having difficulties with this task?», and so on. Finally, when learners evaluate, they do so in terms of the outcome of their attempt to use a certain strategy. According to Wenden , evaluating involves three steps: 1) learners examine the outcome of their attempts to learn; 2) they access the criteria they will use to judge it; and 3) they apply it.[59]

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[57] Wenden, A. Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy. Great Britain: Prentice Hall: 1998. p.34

[58] Cook, V. Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition. London: Macmillan: 1993. P. 114

[59] Wenden, A. Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy. Great Britain: Prentice Hall: 1998. P. 28

15.3. Learner Attitudes and Motivation

Language learning is not merely a cognitive task. Learners do not only reflect on their learning in terms of the language input to which they are exposed, or the optimal strategies they need in order to achieve the goals they set. Rather, the success of a learning activity is, to some extent, contingent upon learners' stance towards the world and the learning activity in particular, their sense of self, and their desire to learn. As Candy (1991: 295-296) says, 'the *how* and the *what* of learning are intimately interwoven--the overall approach a learner adopts will significantly influence the shape of his or her learning outcomes'. In other words, language learning--as well as learning, in general--has also an affective component. 'Meeting and interiorizing the grammar of a foreign language is not simply an intelligent, cognitive act. It is a highly affective one too--' define 'affective variables' as the 'emotionally relevant characteristics of the individual that influence how she/he will respond to any situation'. Other scholars, such as Shumann and Larsen-Freeman and Long attach less importance to learners' emotions, claiming that 'social and psychological factors' give a more suitable description for students' reactions to the learning process. Amongst the social and affective variables at work, self-esteem and desire to learn are deemed to be the most crucial factors 'in the learner's ability to overcome occasional setbacks or minor mistakes in the process of learning a second language' . [60]In this light, it is necessary to shed some light on learner attitudes and motivation.

Wenden defines attitudes as 'learned motivations, valued beliefs, evaluations, what one believes is acceptable, or responses oriented towards approaching or avoiding'. For her, two kinds of attitudes are crucial: attitudes learners hold about their role in the learning process, and their capability as learners . [61]In a sense, attitudes are a form of metacognitive knowledge. At any rate,

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[60] Wenden, A. Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy. Great Britain: Prentice Hall: 1998. p.139
[61] Wenden, A. Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy. Great Britain: Prentice Hall: 1998. p.52

'learner beliefs about their role and capability as learners will be shaped and maintained--by other beliefs they hold about themselves as learners' . For example, if learners believe that certain personality types cannot learn a foreign language and they believe that they are that type of person, then they will think that they are fighting a «losing battle,» as far as learning the foreign language is concerned. Furthermore, if learners labour under the misconception that learning is successful only within the context of the «traditional classroom,» where the teacher directs, instructs, and manages the learning activity, and students must follow in the teacher's footsteps, they are likely to be impervious or resistant to learner-centred strategies aiming at autonomy, and success is likely to be undermined.

In a way, attitudes are 'part of one's perception of self, of others, and of the culture in which one is living [or the culture of the target language]' (Brown, 1987: 126), and it seems clear that positive attitudes are conducive to increased motivation, while negative attitudes have the opposite effect. But let us examine the role of motivation.

It is manifest that in language learning, people are motivated in different ways and to different degrees. Some learners like doing grammar and memorizing; others want to speak and role-play; others prefer reading and writing, while avoiding speaking. Furthermore, since '[the learning of a foreign language] involves an alteration in self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviors and ways of being, and therefore has a significant impact on the social nature of the learner'[62], an important distinction should be made between instrumental and integrative motivation.

15.4. How Can Learner Autonomy be Promoted?

To posit ways of fostering learner autonomy is certainly to posit ways of fostering teacher autonomy, as teachers autonomy permeates into learners' autonomy. Nevertheless, our main focus

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[62] Williams, M. Motivation in Foreign and Second Language Learning: An Interactive Perspective. Educational and Child Psychology, 11: 1994. p. 77

will be on what the learner can do in order to attain a considerable degree of autonomy, even though the success of the learner is, to a great extent, determined--alas! vitiated--by the educational system and the requisite role of the teacher.

15.4.1. Self-reports

A good way of collecting information on how students go about a learning task and helping them become aware of their own strategies is to assign a task and have them report what they are thinking while they are performing it. This self-report is called introspective, as learners are asked to introspect on their learning. In this case, 'the introspective self-report is a verbalization of one's stream of consciousness'[63]. Introspective reports are assumed to provide information on the strategies learners are using at the time of the report. However, this method suffers from one limitation: 'the concentration put on thinking aloud might detract from learners' ability to do the task efficiently' ,thus rendering the outcome of the report spurious and tentative.

Another type of self-report is what has been dubbed as retrospective self-report, since learners are asked to think back or retrospect on their learning. Retrospective self-reports are quite open ended, in that there is no limit put on what students say in response to a question or statement that points to a topic in a general way. There are two kinds of retrospective self-reports: semi-structured interviews and structured questionnaires. A semi-structured interview may focus on a specific skill with a view to extracting information about learners' feelings towards particular skills (reading, listening, etc.), problems encountered, techniques resorted to in order to tackle these problems, and learners' views on optimal strategies or ways of acquiring specific skills or dealing with learning tasks. A structured questionnaire seeks the same information but in a different way: by dint of explicit questions and

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[63] Wenden, A. Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy. Great Britain: Prentice Hall; 1998; p.79-95

statements, and then asking learners to agree or disagree, write true
or false, and so forth.

15.4.2. Diaries and Evaluation Sheets

Perhaps one of the principal goals of education is to alter
learners' beliefs about themselves by showing them that their
putative failures or shortcomings can be ascribed to a lack of
effective strategies rather than to a lack of potential. After all,
according to Vygotsky (1978), learning is an internalized form of a
formerly social activity, and 'a learner can realize [his] potential
interactively--through the guidance of supportive other persons such
as parents, teachers, and peers' [64]. Herein lies the role of diaries and
evaluation sheets, which offer students the possibility to plan,
monitor, and evaluate their learning, identifying any problems they
run into and suggesting solutions. Let us have a look at the
following diaries based on authentic student accounts of their
language learning:

A.

Dear Diary,

These first few days have been terrible. I studied English for
eight years just think, eight years, but I only learned a lot of
grammar. I can't speak a word. I don't dare. I can't express myself in
the right way, so I am afraid to speak.

The other day I started watching TV, so I could get accustomed
to the sound. I don't understand TV news very well only a few
words. I can't get the main point. In school it's easy to understand,
but I can't understand the people in the stores.

What can I do?

Yours Truly,

Impatient (from Wenden, 1998: 102)

B.

Dear Diary,

[64] Wenden, A. Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy. Great Britain: Prentice Hall.; 1998. p. 107

I read the New York Times every day. Every day I learn many new expressions-a lot of vocabulary. But I can't use this vocabulary in conversation. The same thing happens with what I learn at school. I can't use it when I want to talk to Americans or even with my own Spanish friends.

I need some help.

Yours Truly,

Confused Alongside diaries, students can also benefit from putting pen to paper and writing on their expectations of a course at the beginning of the term, and then filling in evaluation sheets, or reporting on the outcomes of a course, at the end of the term. These activities are bound to help learners put things into perspective and manage their learning more effectively. Let us consider two such reports:

1. What do I want to do this year?

«I want to speak more English and I'd like to spell better that I do now. I would like to work with another boy or girl who is willing to speak English with me and make some activities in English. Materials: Challenge to think and crosswords.

I would like to get a more varied language and I would like to be better at spelling, especially the words used in everyday situations. How: I will prepare two minutes' talk' for every lesson, I will write down new words five times and practise pronouncing them.

2. What do you feel you know now that you didn't know before? «I think that we have grown better at planning our own time. We know more about what we need to do and how to go about it. We try all the time to extend our vocabulary and to get an active language. Evaluation also helped us. It is like going through things again.

So far, one of the assumptions underlying this discussion on learner autonomy has been that the teacher has not relinquished his «authority»; rather, that he has committed himself to providing the learners with the opportunity to experiment, make hypotheses, and improvise, in their attempt to master the target language and, along with it, to learn how to learn in their own, individual, holistic way. It may be the case that learner autonomy is best achieved when,

among other things, the teacher acts as a facilitator of learning, a counselor.

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. What is learner autonomy?
2. Why is it important to develop autonomy in learners?
3. How do the students feel about their experience as a learner in the language classroom?
4. What activities can help to develop autonomy in learners?
5. What is the teacher's role in developing learner's autonomy?

Unit 16. MAKING SYLLABUS
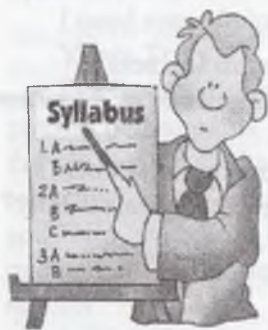
Language instructors and curriculum designers can choose from two broad categories of syllabuses. The first, the synthetic syllabus, segments the target language into discrete linguistic items, such as points of grammar, lexical items, and functions. Users of this type of syllabus assume that learners will be capable of resynthesizing these discrete pieces of language into a coherent whole which can then be effectively utilized in communicative situations [65](White, 1988). The second type, the analytic syllabus, is a noninterventionist, experiential approach which aims to immerse learners in real-life communication. It provides learners with samples of the target language which are organized in terms of the purposes for which people use language. In this case, the assumption is that the learners' analytic abilities will be equal to the task of coming to accurate conclusions about grammatical and lexical usage, since relatively little may be explicitly explained about the formal aspects of the language. Analytic syllabuses generally represent the educational value system espoused by progressivism, which stresses the growth and self-realization of the individual [66](White, 1988). This is a problem-posing type of education which emphasizes dialogue between learners and teachers and between the learners themselves. The purpose of the dialogue is to stimulate new ideas, opinions, and perceptions rather than simply to exchange them or regurgitate what others have said. White (1988)

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[65] White, R. The ELT curriculum: Design, innovation and management. Cambridge, MA: Basil Blackwell, 1988

[66] White, R. The ELT curriculum: Design, innovation and management. Cambridge, MA: Basil Blackwell, 1988

lists the most salient characteristics of analytic syllabuses as follows: *(a)* they are primarily concerned with *how* materials are learned (processes-oriented); *(b)* some degree of negotiation between learners and the teacher occurs; *(c)* the content is fundamentally defined as what the subject means to the learner and what the learner brings to the subject in terms of knowledge and interest; *(d)* assessment is partially decided based on the learners' own criteria of success; and *(e)* the instructional situation is far more cooperative than in more traditional, teacher-fronted classrooms. This last point has been referred to as maximizing learning opportunities and is an essential aspect of what has been termed a learner-centered curriculum[67]. Classroom discourse should be a cooperative venture in which discourse is created through the joint efforts of both the learners and the instructor.

One type of analytic syllabus is the task-based syllabus[68]. In addition to the characteristics of analytic syllabuses just described, task-based syllabuses are largely derived from what is known about second language acquisition (SLA). For instance, SLA research supports a focus on form which uses pedagogical tasks to draw learners' attention to particular aspects of the language code which are naturally embedded in the tasks [69]. The inclusion of some type of instruction on the formal aspects of the target language can be found in most recent formulations of task-based language instruction. Tasks also provide input to learners and opportunities for meaningful language use, both of which are generally considered valuable in promoting language acquisition[70]. Opportunities for production may force students to pay close attention to form and to the relationship between form and meaning. It is assumed that this combination of contextualized, meaningful input and output will

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[67] Kumaravadivelu, B. The postmethod condition: Emerging strategies for second/foreign language teaching. TESOL Quarterly, 28. 1994 . P.27-48

[68] Crookes, G., & Long, M. Three approaches to task-based syllabus design. TESOL Quarterly, #26, 1992. P.27-56.

[69] Long. M., & Robinson, P. Focus on form: Theory, research, and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.). 1998

[70] Swain. M. Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), Principle and practice in applied linguistics (pp. 125-144). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1995

engage learners' general cognitive processing capacities through which they will process and reshape the input. In other words, tasks will likely create a rich linguistic environment capable of activating the learners' intuitive heuristics[71], which are natural cognitive processes used both consciously and unconsciously for developing the somewhat separate rules systems that underlie language comprehension and production. In addition, form-function relationships, which are a critical aspect of SLA, should be more readily perceived by the learners because of the highly contextualized and communicative nature of the tasks provided by a task-based syllabus[72].

For these and other reasons, which we explore in the Discussion section of this paper, we believe that a task-based syllabus has the potential to play an important role in many ESL/EFL curriculums. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to describe and evaluate one implementation of task-based learning, which took the form of a unified, semester-long project.

16.1. The project: Student-generated action research

In this section we would like to briefly describe an extended task-based project which was implemented at a major private Japanese university with approximately 340 first-year students enrolled in a second-semester speaking course. The project, which we have called *student-generated action research*, required the entire 12-week semester to complete. However, as part of the same course, learners were also engaged in other activities unrelated to the project throughout the term. These activities can best be described as part of a direct approach to teaching speaking. In this approach, learners are explicitly instructed in some of the specific microskills, strategies, and processes involved in conversation. These include phrases and strategies for turn taking, interrupting,

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[71] Kumaravadivelu, B. The postmethod condition: Emerging strategies for second/foreign language teaching. TESOL Quarterly, 28, 1994 . p.27-48

[72] MacWhinney, B. Second language acquisition and the Competition Model. In A. M. B. de Groot & J. F. Kroll (Eds.), Tutorials in Bilingualism . Mahwah. NJ, 1997. p. 113-142

expressing agreement or disagreement, summarizing what another person has said, and checking whether one has been understood. The knowledge of these «formulaic frameworks» forms an essential part of the communicative competence of native speakers of a language and acts as useful linguistic knowledge which the learners can make use of as they move through the project[73].

In brief, the project requires the learners to work in groups of two to four persons and to choose a topic they are interested in finding out more about. The groups then design a questionnaire which will be used to investigate the opinions that a specific target group holds about the chosen topic. Following this, the learners must go beyond the boundaries of the classroom and administer their questionnaire to the target group. Each group member is required to administer the questionnaire and interview a minimum of ten people. The resulting data are compiled, analyzed, and organized by the group members. Because of the extensive amount of data, the learners must select the most significant aspects of the data, summarize them, and present them to the class in a formal presentation lasting approximately 5 to 8 minutes. The general objectives of the project are to

• provide learners the opportunity to use English for authentic purposes for an extended period of time

• provide intrinsically motivating activities which take advantage of the learners' desire to improve their listening and speaking proficiency

• allow learners to take responsibility for their own English education by giving them the primary responsibility for topic selection, questionnaire creation, and deciding how they will structure and present the data they collect

• reinforce learners' ability to form grammatically and pragmatically correct questions

• enhance the learners' presentation skills

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[73] Widdowson, H. G. Knowledge of language and ability for use. Applied Linguistics, 1989. 10(2), p.128-137.

· demonstrate to students that the use of English can further enhance their own education and development

· provide opportunities for learners to work closely together with a partner or in a small group for an extended period

A more detailed look at how the project unfolds throughout the course of a semester follows.

16.2. The 12-week plan

WEEK 1

In class: Learners are introduced to the project, they are shown a sample questionnaire, and they view a sample presentation on videotape. Learners undertake various listening tasks while viewing the video.

Homework: All learners must form groups of two to four students before the second class meeting and brainstorm ideas for topics. They should come to the second class with at least three possible topics.

WEEK 2

In class: The teacher checks each group's ideas. With the instructor's advice, each group should tentatively settle on one topic.

Homework: Each group must write a one- to two-paragraph explanation of their topic and why they have chosen it. This must be submitted to the instructor by E-mail at least two days before the third class. The instructor will read the groups' ideas, check to make certain that the topics are suitable, and give feedback to each group by E-mail.

WEEK 3

In class: Learners discuss suitable target groups to whom they can administer their questionnaire.

Homework: Each group must write a one- to two-paragraph explanation of the people they plan to interview and why they have chosen that particular group. This must be submitted to the instructor by E-mail at least two days before the fourth class. The instructor will read the groups' ideas, check to make certain that the

target groups they have chosen to interview are suitable, and give feedback to each group by E-mail.

Implementing Task-Based Language Teaching

WEEK 4

In class: Groups brainstorm the main points they wish to investigate and then brainstorm possible questions to include on their questionnaire. The instructor gives feedback to each group in class.

Homework: Each group should write ten to twelve questions for possible inclusion on their questionnaire and submit them to the instructor by E-mail at least two days before the fourth class. The instructor will read the groups' questions, check to make certain that they are appropriate, and give feedback to each group by E-mail.

WEEK 5

In class: Groups practice interviewing and using their questionnaire by asking questions to other class members. The purpose is to find out how well the questions they have formulated are eliciting the type and quantity of information they hoped for.

Homework: Learners rewrite their questionnaires as needed and send the modified questionnaires to the instructor by E-mail at least two days before the fourth class. The instructor will read the groups' questionnaires and give feedback to each group by E-mail.

WEEK 6

In class: Learners are instructed to begin gathering data by interviewing a minimum of ten people per group member (e.g., a three-member group will interview a minimum of thirty persons). All data should be gathered by week 8 of the semester.

WEEK 7

In class: Learners briefly report to other group members on their progress in gathering data and any problems they have encountered or any useful revisions to the data-gathering process that they have discovered.

WEEK 8

In class: Group members compare interview data and look for interesting trends. Groups sign up for their presentation, which will take place in either week 10 or 11.

Homework: Learners meet outside of class and continue analyzing and categorizing the questionnaire data. They should choose the information they plan to use in their presentation by the following class.

WEEK 9

In class: The instructor explains how the presentations will be evaluated, in addition to discussing presentation skills, such as eye contact, the use of gestures, and voice projection. The video shown in week 1 (or a different video) is viewed and analyzed in terms of organization, the types of visual aids utilized, the presence of concrete details and examples, and presentation skills of the presenters.

WEEK 10

In class: Half of the groups make a formal presentation of their results. The presentation is videotaped and each group member is individually responsible for viewing the video and completing a self-assessment of the presentation, which is due the following class.

WEEK 11

In class: The remaining groups make the formal presentation of their results. Once again, the presentation is videotaped and each group member must view the video and complete a self-assessment of the presentation, which is due the following class.

WEEK 12

In class: The instructor returns completed evaluations of the presentations to each student. Learners complete course evaluations, which include questions specifically related to the project. The information in these evaluations is used, along with the results of an instructor wrap-up meeting, in order to compile suggestions for possible changes to the project.

16.3. Topic choices

A key element to the success of this project lies in the fact that the learners have primary control over the topic they investigate. Learners have been found to benefit more from the discourse which

results from self- and peer-initiated topics than from topics nominated by outside sources, such as a text or their instructor. This has noticeable positive effects on their motivation and enthusiasm to carry through the project to a successful conclusion. Allowing the learners the freedom to choose the topic is in line with the fundamental principles which underlie analytic syllabuses. Moreover, through the negotiation which occurs as instructors make suggestions to the learners about preferable topics, opportunities are created for teachers and learners to engage in discussions in which an important, real- world problem is being solved. A final point is that the instructors encourage the learners to choose topics that are socially relevant. In this way, the classroom activity is embedded in the larger societal context. An idea of the variety of topics which student groups chose can be seen in the following examples:

• *The information society: How do people get their information and news?*

• *Marriage: What do you look for in a prospective partner?*

• *Marriage and the single mother: Do all women want to get married? Why would a woman be a single mother? Can children be happy with only one parent?*

• *Care for the elderly: What do people think about caring for elderly relatives? Conversely, what do the elderly think about living with younger family members?*

• *The environment: Are elementary school children aware of environmental problems? Have they learned about the environment? If so, from whom?*

POSITIVE ASPECTS OF THE PROJECT

Many individual aspects of the project clearly meet the definition of task laid out by Skehan[74]. Specifically, Skehan proposes that a task is an activity in which meaning is primary, there is a communication problem to solve, and the task is closely related to real-world activities. The project described in this paper is

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[74] Skehan, P., & Foster, P. The influence of planning and post-task activities on accuracy and complexity in task-based learning. Language Teaching Research, 1(3), 1997. P. 185-211.

composed of a wide variety of tasks which fit this description. Conversely, it is also useful to look at what the project does not do. It does not give the learners other people's meanings and then require them to regurgitate those meanings.

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. What different types of language syllabuses are you familiar with?

2. What use do you make of syllabuses in your teaching?

3. Is a syllabus different from a curriculum? In what ways are these terms similar or different?

4. What steps are involved in developing a language curriculum?

5. What is meant by a communicative curriculum?

6. What are some of the advantages and limitations of using a commercial textbook as the basis for a language program?

7. What qualities do you look for when selecting a textbook?

8. What do you think are the essential qualities of good teaching materials?

Unit 17. OBSERVATION AND FEEDBACK

Feedback can be information about the quantity or quality of a group's work, an assessment of the effectiveness of the group's task or activity, or evaluations of members' individual performances. To be most effective, feedback should be an objective evaluation of individual group members' performance or the actions of a group, not one member's opinion or subjective evaluation.

Two types of observations:

17.1. Two types of observations

b) Walk-through: brief visit to see whether a practice is being implemented or not

c) Full observation: extended visit to understand the full context and quality of the practice across the instructional block Why?

2. Observe to learn:

a) Observe for yourself, so you can have a deeper understanding of teaching and learning in your building In general, what do we do very well?

b) In general, what are we struggling with?

c) How can we build knowledge and practice in this area? Why?

3. Before your observation:

a) Give teachers a chance to explore the theory and watch a demonstration Give teachers a chance to create or edit an observation format or innovation configuration Give teachers a chance to create an observation timeline Before

1. Establish a climate for observation:

a) Establish a climate for observation

b) Be clear that you are a teacher, not a principal

c) Never link pd to evaluation Never make your observations public

d) Have a pre-observation meeting

e) Review confidentiality agreement Ask the teacher what she wants you to see

f) Tell exactly how the observation will be conducted, reviewing the format Before

2. Be focused!:

a) Be focused! Say what you will do and then do what you said you would!

b) Be unobtrusive; don't disrupt instruction

c) Take or type notes on your observation form

d) Focus your attention on what is happening, not on your recommendations

e) Think of questions to ask the teacher to help you to understand his or her work better

3. Analyzing an Observation:

a) Analyzing an Observation Think about the entire lesson

b) Reflect on what you learned about children, about teaching, and about reading from watching

c) Make positive comments

d) But they have to be sincere

e) Include suggestions

f) But they have to be specific

g) Offer to help

4. Give Feedback:

a) Give Feedback Make the feedback specific to the target that you set beforehand and specific to the lesson that you observed

b) Be genuine about positive things that you learned by watching

c) Be specific about something that you'd like the teacher to consider improving, and offer choices about how you can help

5. Plan to differentiate:

a) Each teacher has a different weak… I shouldn't say weakness, but something that they need to work on. [The important thing is] going in there and finding out what each teacher needs and being able to talk with them.

b) And trying to develop a relationship with them so they won't think of me as the enemy.

6. Sharing an Observation:

7. Sharing an Observation Give the teacher a chance to read your comments before you meet

8. Make it quick!

9. Schedule a safe and informal time and place to talk about it

10. Provide choices and support for the teacher as she/he explores next steps

11 Avoid keeping any documentation.

Questions and tasks for self-evaluation

1. Why do we need to be observed and receive feedback?

2. What will happen when someone is observing in your classroom?

3. How will they give feedback?

4. Why are we being given feedback?

5. What are we being given feedback on?

TESTS

1. Methodology is a branch of _____, exploring patterns of learning a particular subject.
a) psychology
b) pedagogy
c) linguistics
d) didactics

2. Transfer students with knowledge and control of their activities aimed at developing specific skills and abilities is called.
a) a lesson;
b) training;
c) the teaching;
d) forming.

3. Methodology is the science, which is _____ content of education and the theory of learning foreign languages.
a) the purpose of;
b) task;
c) the subject;
d) object.

4. At the heart of the communicative method is.
a) pragmalinguistics;
b) sociolinguistics;
c) psycholinguistics;
d) the theory of behaviorism.

5. The principle of communicative orientation is:
a) the use of linguistic and non-linguistic clarity;
b) creating a situation of communication;
c) the selection of meaningful and valuable learning material, provide a focus for the perception and understanding of the phenomena being studied;

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d) in light storage and retrieval from memory of language knowledge.

6. Great attention is paid to the direct method is.
a) letter;
b) sound production;
c) memorizing individual words;
d) grammar.

7. _____ is a series of tutorials on handouts for video and computer programs to help achieve the objectives of teaching foreign languages.
a) learning tools;
b) teaching methods;
c) visual aids;
d) training programs.

8. Which of the following is a type of speech activity?
a) Listening.
b) Spelling.
c) Phonetic minimum.
d) Country-study.

9. Which of the following types of speech activity relates to receptive?
a) Written speech.
b) Monologue speech.
c) Reading.
d) The dialogic speech.

10. Which of the following is one of the features of dialogue speech?
a) various structured proposals and complex syntax;
b) extra-conditioning;
c) the context;
d) completeness and spreads.

11. Which of the following tasks are solved in the learning process student reading?

a) Recognition of signal-supports, facilitates the search of information;

b) Use text as a support for the development of oral language skills;

c) Determination of the primary and secondary information in the text;

d) Determination of threads text.

12. Which of these units belong to the language?

a) Audio Texts.

b) Phonemes and intonation patterns.

c) Dialogical unity.

d) Texts.

13. The methodical organization of group receiving a form of communication in the classroom, which involves the search for the optimal solution of a specific problem for a limited period of time.

a) Brainstorming;

b) role-playing game;

c) discussion;

d) talk show.

14. Which of the following is necessary to make the teacher plans to introduce a clear perspective on the topic:

a) schedule;

b) an outline of the lesson;

c) thematic plan;

d) curriculum.

15. For what phase of work with video material are peculiar for exercise, the content side of which is represented by commenting on events, dramatization, role-plays, discussions, etc.?

a) receptive stage;
b) the preparatory stage;
c) the analytical stage,
d) productive stage.

16. What kind of exercises can help to form basic quality skills?
a) Preparatory.
b) Speech.
c) Translate.

17. Define the phase of work on video material:
It includes exercises on perception, understanding and remembering information. This is ...
a) preparatory phase;
b) receptive phase;
c) analytical phase;
d) productive phase.

18. Choose tasks for the preparatory phase of work with a text in teaching listening comprehension:
a) the presentation of the problematic issues raised in the text;
b) to call the type of text and the basic idea;
c) to comment on the fact that the text is new, interesting, important for students;
d) to tell the unfamiliar words that are important for understanding, the significance of which the students cannot guess

19. How many learning styles are there in methodology of teaching foreign language?
a) 2.
b) 3.
c) 4.
d) 7.

SAMPLE

Lesson Plan

Topic: Cultural differences

Aim: To improve reading skills and vocabulary

Level: B2 (upper intermediate)

Material: Reading for IELTS. Collins.2011
English Vocabulary in Use.

Time: 80 min.

Developed by: Agzamova D.

Activity	Objectives	Procedure	Duration	Mode of Interaction	Material
Pre-reading	-to get students to think about the topic -to show them two pictures and ask them to tell the difference the two	-discussion of the pictures -practicing the pronunciations of new words from the text. -referring to transcription -introducing the new vocabulary words	20 min.	group work	-black board -posting the pictures on the board
While-reading	-to introduce the topic	-read, translate and analyze the text	40 min.	-group work -pair	-handouts -black board

		-working on the exercises: translating the following sentences; fill in the blanks with suitable words; matching the definition; -working on the vocabulary notes		work -indivi-dual work	-dictiona-ries
Post-reading	-to sum up the topic -to give a brief statement of the topic	-answering the questions -to have a discussion about solving cross cultural conflicts -characterize the cross cultural situation in the world -give an example to show how culture is affecting the language	20 min.	group work	-handouts -black board -Slide show

SAMPLE
Lesson Observation Tasks

Date: **Class:**

Classroom management and interaction with the learners
Use the following questions to guide your lesson observations. You need **not** answer all the questions. Focus
on relevant aspects of the lesson and take extensive notes on an extra sheet.

Teacher:		*Learners:*
How does the teacher get the students' attention at the beginning of the lesson? What does she/he say? What mimes or gestures does he/she use?	1	What are the learners doing when the teacher arrives? How do the learners (re)act?
How does the teacher open the lesson? Does the teacher explain his/her plan and objective(s) to the learners?	2	Are the learners aware of the objective of the lesson? What are they doing at this stage?
Are there any organizational tasks that are done by the teacher?	3	Are there any organizational tasks that individual pupils do?
Which stages of the lesson can you identify?	4	
Which organizational forms are used by the teacher? frontal groupwork /pairwork presentations individual work	5	
Does the teacher give the students any choice concerning the order of tasks/ partners/	6	How do the learners decide what to do next? Do they need any help?

places/ activities/ topics/ reading…?		
Transitions: How does the teacher lead from one activity to the next? Is the lesson organized step by step or as a workshop?	7	How do the students move from one activity to the next? How much time is lost for transitions?
How does the teacher react to learners' mistakes?	8	Are the learners worried about making mistakes?
(How) does the teacher announce homework? How is the homework related to the activities in class?	9	Do the students have a clear understanding of the homework tasks and any materials they will need?
How does the teacher close the lesson?	10	

Learning Styles Questionnaire

Questions	Options	Select answer
I spend my free time	a. watching TV	
	b. talking to friends	
	c. going out or making things	
When planning a holiday I	a. read lots of brochures	
	b. ask friends for recommendations	
	c. imagine what it would be like	
When cooking a new meal for the first time I	a. follow a recipe	
	b. watch a TV programme or ask a friend	
	c. get an idea of the recipe and make it yourself	
When needing directions I	a. look at a map	
	b. ask someone	
	c. just find it yourself	
When making a complaint broken item I **About a**	a. write a letter or email	
	b. phone them	
	c. send the item back	
When using a new	a. read the instructions	

gadget I		
	b. ask someone for help	
	c. have a go and use 'trial and error'	
I find it easier to remember	a. faces	
	b. names	
	c. things I have done	
If I am showing how to someone do something new I	a. write the instructions down	
	b. explain what to do	
	c. show them how to do it	
I remember things best by	a. taking notes	
	b. repeating words and saying them out loud	
	c. practising the activity or working out how it is done	
When learning a new skill I prefer	a. watching the teacher	
	b. talking through the activity with the teacher	
	c. trying it myself	

Choices	Score	Learning style
A		
B		
C		

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