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GULISTAN STATE UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

METHODOLOGY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

METHODOLOGICAL COMPLEX

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The given methodological complex is compiled on the basis of model curriculum on the **Foreign language teaching methodology** approved according to the 2nd appendix of the order No. 26 of the Ministry of Higher and Special Secondary Education of the Repbulic of Uzbekistan as of 22 January, 2016.

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1.1 Foreign Languages Teaching Reforms in Uzbekistan

The end of 1990's and beginning of 2000's marked a new era in foreign languages teaching in Uzbekistan when all stakeholders including teachers, students, schools, colleges, and universities started to feel that they were ready for change in the way foreign languages were taught and learned. Nevertheless, there was uncertainty on how these changes would be implemented, what kind of changes should be introduced, who would be the initiator of the changes and what people's reactions would be to the changes in the education sector (Jalolov 2013). The reason for uncertainty was due to the fact that for almost a century Uzbekistan was under the Soviet Union and there was not held any consistent reforms in foreign language teaching (Jalolov 2013).

The reforms in foreign language teaching in Uzbekistan mainly touched upon teaching English language in all levels and stages of education.

The start of incorporating English language teaching into the education system of Uzbekistan started in 1932 (Hasanova, 2007). Nevertheless, teaching and learning of English as well as other foreign languages were carried out in secondary schools at the beginning of the fifth grade when learners were at the age of 12 (Hasanova, 2007). Hasanova (2007, p4) states that most of the lessons in 1930's-1990's were held mainly in student-centered approach and classes were mainly dedicated to the study and analysis of grammatical rules, analytical reading, and grammar translation exercises. In addition according to Bereday and Pennar (in Shafiyeva and Kennedy,

2010) in the Soviet Union, grammar-translation method was justified by the dominating political system.

Gulyamova, Irgasheva and Bolitho (2014, p45) outlining the reasons for the problem state that in most cases in teaching foreign languages there was a "…tendency for the country's institutions to remain sealed off from foreign influences, particularly those from the West, …" and "These deficiencies were passed on from generation to generation of Uzbek English teachers, all steeped in a Soviet-rooted version of the Grammar-Translation method, and reliant on outdated textbooks".

In 1991 when Uzbekistan gained independence from the Soviet Union, great attention has been paid to the reforms in education sector, especially in the area of teaching and learning foreign languages (Jalolov 2013). However, foreign language teaching methods and approaches remained the same as in Soviet era for at least two decades. According to Hasanova (2008) foreign language teachers, especially English teachers were exposed to modern approaches to ELT as communicative language teaching in the early 1990's. However, "continued lack of financial support and insufficient teacher training made CLT more a topic of discussion rather than an approach being implemented in many Uzbek classrooms" (Hasanova 2008, p139).

In the beginning of 2000's there was launched an extensive baseline study which covered all 12 regions of Uzbekistan. The baseline study aimed at defining areas in English language teaching as well as teaching other foreign languages that needed to be reformed. The baseline study was carried out in universities and in-service teacher training institutions across 12 regions of Uzbekistan and consisted of interviews, questionnaire surveys which were held among English language teachers, education authorities, recent graduates of foreign language teacher training courses (Mamatov, 2009).

British Council Uzbekistan became the leading international organization in assisting the reforms (Mamatov 2009).

The baseline research carried out by the British Council in cooperation with the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education of the Republic of Uzbekistan provided quality data on the areas that needs change. According Hoshimov (2008) the challenges which were exposed in the baseline research was the need to make state educational standards, curricula and other educational documents responsive to the needs of teachers and language learners, to align national educational standards with those of international standards and make a shift from teacher-centered classroom to learner-centered classroom where language learners are

provided with more autonomy in learning and to link foreign language teacher education programs in Uzbekistan to international standards.

1.2 Introduction of the CEFR in Uzbekistan

Prior to the introduction of the National Educational Standard for Continuing Education System on Foreign Languages (Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Uzbekistan, 2013), which is based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR, Council of Europe 2001) there was inconsistency and lack of continuity in educational standards. There was not a single document which outlined the aims and outcomes of teaching and learning English in all levels and stages of education. For instance, educational standard for secondary stage of education outlined aims and outcomes of learning foreign languages for students who attended school from 5th grade to 9th grade (State Educational Standard and Syllabus, 2010), state educational standard for secondary specialized education outlined aims and outcomes of teaching and learning foreign languages for students and teachers who attended colleges and academic lyceums from 1st to 3rd year (State Educational Standard and Syllabus, 2001). In this manner all educational standards were separated from each other according to their content, aims, and outcomes. Moreover, there were repetitions in themes and topics to be taught in each academic year. For example, students who attended schools from the 5th grade started learning English alphabet whereas students who started studies at college or academic lyceum level or even university level started learning English with its alphabet and grammatical system. In addition, the curriculum and syllabus mainly stressed on teaching grammar and translation practice.

Thus, analysis of the system of teaching and learning foreign languages carried out by the group of experts from Uzbekistan State University of World Languages, Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education, and Ministry of Public Education reveled that the former curricula on foreign language teaching, standards for different levels of education were not efficient in terms of finance and effort (Irisqulov 2015). Therefore, it was decided to develop and implement totally new concept of national standards which could provide continuity and consistency of teaching foreign languages in all levels of education system. And at this point the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) played as the main framework to be adopted in developing the national standard.

Table 2.2.1 (REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN, Cabinet of Ministers 2013) illustrates the characteristics of the present national educational standard for foreign languages and its alignment features with the CEFR.

Stage of Education	Graduates	CEFR	Name of the Level
General Secondary Education	Primary (4th grade) level graduates	A1	Beginner level of foreign language learning
	9th grade graduates	A2	Basic level of foreign language learning
	9th grade graduates of school specializing in foreign languages learning	A2+	Reinforced basic level of foreign language learning
Secondary specialized and vocational education	Graduates of non-specialized academic lyceums	B1	Independent beginner level of foreign language learning
	Vocational colleges		
	Graduates of academic lyceums specializing in foreign language teaching (second foreign language)		
	Graduates of academic lyceums specializing in foreign languages	B1+	Reinforced independent beginner level of foreign language learning
Higher education	Baccalaureate level graduates of non-specialized faculties	B2	Independent communication level of foreign language learning
	Master level graduates of non-specialized faculties		
	Baccalaureate level graduates of faculties specializing in foreign language teaching (second foreign language)		
	Baccalaureate level graduates of faculties specializing in foreign		Proficient level

| | language teaching | C1 | of foreign |
| | Master level graduates of faculties specializing in foreign language teaching | | language learning |

Table 2.2.1 Stages of teaching and learning foreign languages according to the new national standard based on the CEFR

As it was mentioned in the previous paragraph the implementation of a new project on the development of the national curricula and standard on the teaching and learning of foreign languages was started along with the project aiming at the reform of PRESETT and INSETT system of Uzbekistan. According to Irisqulov (2015) adoption and implementation of the new standard was a requirement of time and started a new era in the whole system of foreign languages learning in Uzbekistan.

2.3 Overview of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, which is commonly referred as CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) is considered as an innovative language policy document designed and developed by the language policy division of the Council of Europe in the 1990s. It was published online in 1996 and in 2001 it was introduced in a paper version. The document "provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc." (Council of Europe, 2001 p1). Initially the document was developed to ease language learning and facilitate mobility of citizen within European countries. Later on, subsequently the document gained worldwide recognition as a language education policy document to help aligning the language assessment levels across educational stages and institutions. Since its gaining popularity around world the CEFR document has been translated into 39 languages and has been used and/or referred by a number of countries around the world for the development and introduction of foreign language policies (Figueras, 2012; Martyniuk and Noijons, 2007).

As it is declared by the Council of Europe the main purpose of the CEFR is the alignment of language learning, teaching, assessment and testing and ultimately guarantee correlation of learning outcomes across languages, contexts and countries. That is to say, the document is considered to act as a tool that can "be used to analyze L2 learners' needs, specify L2 learning goals, guide the development of L2 learning materials and activities, and provide orientation for the assessment of L2 learning outcomes" (Little, 2006, p167), and in coherent and comprehensible way. The CEFR

1 - depicts competencies language learners need to form to be an effective language user; 2 – it suggests sets of "can do" descriptors that point out what learners can do when they reach a certain competency in a definite proficiency level; 3 – it offers instructional guiding principles on how to teach and assess learners competencies; 4 - it offers a common reference level scales for the comparability and recognition of language competences across contexts and countries.

Through the equipment of users with a common methodology and metalanguage for teaching, learning and assessing language competencies, the CEFR document facilitates cooperation among various educational institutions and educational and other stakeholders around the world, moreover, providing easier mobility opportunities for professionals and common citizens across countries (Council of Europe, 2001).

Goullier (2007) and North (2007) suggest that the CEFR is a descriptive document, rather than a prescriptive document. In other words it refers and can be used with all languages and its primary goal is to enhance language practitioners' reflections on their specific educational and geographical contexts, language learners and language teaching objectives.

According to North (2007, p. 656) the CEFR is defined as a "concertina-like reference tool, not an instrument to be applied". Therefore, it should be referred, consulted and adapted depending on the needs and realities of a definite local area rather than blindly followed as a set of concrete unchangeable and discrete rules.

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THEME: FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING AS A SCIENCE AND ITS RELATION TO OTHER SCIENCES

List of principal questions:

1. The relation of language teaching to pedagogy.
2. The relation of language teaching to psychology.
3. The relation of language teaching to physiology.
4. The relationship of language teaching and linguistics.

Learning Outcomes
By the end of the session students will have:
- become aware of the relationship of language teaching to other sciences;
- identified main sciences that have close relationship to language teaching;
- become aware of how pedagogy, psychology and linguistics relate to language teaching.

Materials. handouts, CD, blackboard, power point presentation.

Key words: Pedagogy, psychology, linguistics, conditioned reflexes, skills, habit.

1. The relation of language teaching to pedagogy.

Methods of foreign language teaching is understood here as a body of scientifically tested theory concerning the teaching of foreign languages in schools and other educational institutions. It covers three main problems:

(1)   aims of teaching a foreign language;

(2)   content of teaching, i. e. what to teach to attain the aims;

(3)   methods and techniques of teaching, i. e. how to teach a foreign language to attain the aims in the most effective way.

Methods of foreign language teaching is closely related to other sciences such as pedagogics, psychology, physiology, linguistics, and some others.

Pedagogics is the science concerned with the teaching and education of the younger generation. Since Methods also deals with the problems of teaching and education, it is most closely related to pedagogics. To study foreign language teaching one must know pedagogics. One branch of pedagogics is called didactics. Didactics studies general ways of teaching in schools. Methods, as compared to didactics, studies the specific ways of teaching a definite subject. Thus, it may be considered special didactics. In the foreign language teaching, as well as in the teaching of mathematics, history, and other subjects taught in schools, general principles of didactics are applied and, in their turn, influence and enrich didactics. For example, the so-called "principle of visualization" was first introduced in teaching foreign languages. Now it has become one of the fundamental principles of didactics and is used in teaching all school subjects without exception. Programmed instruction was first applied to teaching mathematics. Now through didactics it is used in teaching many subjects, including foreign languages.

2. The relation of language teaching to psychology.

Teaching a foreign language means first and foremost the formation and development of pupils' habits and skills in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. We cannot expect to develop such habits and skills of our pupils effectively if we do not know and take into account the **psychology** of habits and skills, the ways of forming them, the influence of formerly acquired habits on the formation of new ones, and many other necessary factors that psychology can supply us with. At present we have much material in the field of psychology which can be applied to teaching a foreign language. For example, N. I. Zhinkin, a prominent Uzbek psychologist in his investigation of the mechanisms of speech came to the conclusion that words and rules of combining them are most probably dormant in the kinetic center of the brain. When the ear receives a signal it reaches the brain, its hearing center and then passes to the kinetic center. Thus, if a teacher wants his pupils to speak English he must use all the opportunities he has to make them hear and speak

it. Furthermore, to master a second language is to acquire another code, another way of receiving and transmitting information. To create this new code in the most effective way one must take into consideration certain psychological factors.

Effective learning of a foreign language depends to a great extent on the pupils' memory. That is why a teacher must know how he can help his pupils to successfully memorize and retain in memory the language material they learn. Here again psychological investigations are significant. For example, the Russian psychologist, P. K. Zinchenko, proved that in learning a subject both voluntary and involuntary memory is of great importance. In his investigation of involuntary memory P. K-Zinchenko came to the conclusion that this memory is retentive. Consequently, in teaching a foreign language we should create favourable conditions for involuntary memorizing. P. K. Zinchenko showed that involuntary memorizing is possible only when pupils attention is concentrated not on fixing the material in their memory through numerous repetitions, but on solving some mental problems which deal with this material. To prove this the following experiment was carried out. Students of group A were given a list of words to memorize (voluntary memorizing). Students of group B did not receive a list of words to memorize. Instead, they got an English text and some assignments which made them work with these words, use them in answering various questions. During the next lesson a vocabulary test was given to the students of both groups. The results were approximately the same. A test given a fortnight later proved, however, that the students of group B retained the words in their memory much better than the students of group A. This shows that involuntary memorizing may be more retentive under certain circumstances. Experiments by prominent scientists show that psychology helps Methods to determine the role of the mother tongue in different stages of teaching; the amount of material for pupils to assimilate at every stage of instruction; the sequence and ways in which various habits and skills should be developed; the methods and techniques which are more suitable for presenting the material and for ensuring its retention by the pupils, and so on.

3. The relation of language teaching to physiology.

Methods of foreign language teaching has a definite relation to physiology of the higher nervous system. Pavlov's theories of "conditioned reflexes", of the "second signalling system" and of "dynamic stereotype" are the examples. Each of these interrelated theories bears a direct relation to the teaching of a foreign language.

According to Pavlov habits are conditioned reflexes, and a conditioned reflex is an action performed automatically in response to a definite stimulus as a result of previous frequent repetitions of the same action. If we thoroughly study the theory of conditioned reflexes we shall see that it explains and confirms the necessity for frequent repetitions and revision of material pupils study as one of the means of inculcating habits. Pavlov showed that man's higher nervous activities — speaking and thinking — are the functions of a special system of organic structures within the

nervous system. This system is developed only in man. It enables the brain to respond to inner stimuli as it responds to outer stimuli or signals perceived through the sense organs. Pavlov named this the second signalling system.

Consequently one of the forms of human behaviour is language behaviour, i. e., speech response to different communication situations. Therefore in teaching a foreign language we must bear in mind that pupils should acquire the language they study as a behaviour, as something that helps people to communicate with each other in various real situations of intercourse. Hence a foreign language should be taught through such situations.

Pavlov's theory of "dynamic stereotype" also furnishes the physiological base for many important principles of language teaching, e. g., for the topical vocabulary arrangement.

4. The relationship of language teaching and linguistics.

Methods of foreign language teaching is most closely related to linguistics, since linguistics deals with the problems which are of paramount importance to Methods, with language and thinking, grammar and vocabulary, the relationship between grammar and vocabulary, and many others. Methods successfully uses, for example, the results of linguistic investigation in the selection and arrangement of language material for teaching. It is known that structural linguistics has had a great impact on language teaching. Teaching materials have been prepared by linguists and metnodologists of the structural school. Many prominent linguists have not only developed the theory of linguistics, but tried to apply it to language teaching. The following quotation may serve as a proof of this:

"It has occurred to the linguist as well as to the psychologist that the foreign language classroom should be an excellent laboratory in which to test new theories of language acquisition."

Methods of foreign language teaching like any other science, has definite ways of investigating the problems which may arise. They are:

(1) a critical study of the ways foreign languages were taught in our country and abroad;

(2) a thorough study and summing up of the experience of the best foreign language teachers in different types of schools;

(3) experimenting with the aim of confirming or refuting the working hypotheses that may arise during investi- nation. Experimenting becomes more and more popular with niethodologists. In experimenting methodologists have to deal with different data, that is why in arranging research work they use mathematics, statistics, and probability theory to interpret experimental results.

In recent years there has been a great increase of interest in Methods since foreign language teaching has many attractions as an area for research. A great deal of useful research work has been carried out. New ideas and new data produced as the result of research are usually developed into new teaching materials and teaching techniques.

It should be said that we need research activities of the following types: descriptive research which deals with "what to teach"; experimental and instrumental research dealing with "how to teach". More research is now needed which compares different combination of devices, various teaching aids, etc.

Linguistic, Psychological and Social Perspective on SLA

Linguistic, psychological, and social perspectives on SLA all address the basic what, how, and why questions that we have been considering throughout this book, but as we have seen, they have each tended to focus primarily on one question over the others. These disciplinary perspectives are listed in 7.1, along with the priorities that scholars working within them have generally set in relation to SLA.

7.1 Disciplinary priorities			
	Linguistic	Psychological	Social
1	What?	How?	Why?
2	How?	Why?	What?
3	Why?	What?	How?

There are significant differences of opinion within each perspective as well as between them, depending on subdisciplinary orientations. Still, it is possible at this stage in the development of SLA theory and research to report some answers to our questions with considerable confidence. For others, we should remain more tentative. I will integrate findings from the three perspectives as much as possible, but I give greatest weight to linguistic contributions in answer to what, to psychological contributions in anser to how, and to social contributions in answer to why.

In trying to understand the process of second language acquisition, we are seeking to answer three basic questions:

(1) What exactly does the L2 learner come to know?
(2) How does the learner acquire this knowledge?
(3) Why are some learners more successful than others?

There are no simple answers to these questions – in fact, there are probably no answers that all second language researchers would agree on completely. In part this is because SLA is highly complex in nature, and in part because scholars studying SLA come from academic disciplines which differ greatly in theory and research methods. The multidisciplinary approach to studying SLA phenomena which has developed within the last half-century has yielded important insights, but many tantalizing mysteries remain. New findings are appearing every day, making this an exciting period to be studying the subject. The continuing search for answers is not

only shedding light on SLA in its own right, but is illuminating related fields. Furthermore, exploring answers to these questions is of potentially great practical value to anyone who learns or teaches additional languages. SLA has emerged as a field of study primarily from within linguistics and psychology (and their subfields of applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and social psychology), as a result of efforts to answer the what, how, and why questions posed above. There are corresponding differences in what is emphasized by researchers who come from each of these fields:

• Linguists emphasize the characteristics of the differences and similarities in the languages that are being learned, and the linguistic competence (underlying knowledge) and linguistic performance (actual production) of learners at various stages of acquisition.

• Psychologists and psycholinguists emphasize the mental or cognitive processes involved in acquisition, and the representation of language(s) in the brain.

• Sociolinguists emphasize variability in learner linguistic performance, and extend the scope of study to communicative competence (underlying knowledge that additionally accounts for language use, or pragmatic competence).

• Social psychologists emphasize group-related phenomena, such as identity and social motivation, and the interactional and larger social contexts of learning.

Further reading on theme:

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LECTURE 2. AIMS AND CONTENT OF LANGUAGE TEACHING.

List of principal questions:

1. Language systems.
2. Language skills.
3. The importance of skills work.
4. A purpose-based view of course content.
5. Changes of emphasis.
6. The communicative purpose of language learning.
7. Other areas that are part of language learning

Learning Outcomes

By the end of the session students will have:

- become aware of the relationship of language teaching to other sciences;
- identified main sciences that have close relationship to language teaching;
- become aware of how pedagogy, psychology and linguistics relate to language teaching.

Materials: handouts, CD, blackboard, power point presentation.

Key words: Pedagogy, psychology, linguistics, conditioned reflexes, skills, habit.

What exactly are we teaching? What is the subject matter of language teaching?

An outsider might imagine that the content would comprise two major elements, namely knowledge of the language's grammar and knowledge of lots of vocabulary. Of course, these do form an important part of what is taught/learned, but it is important to realise that someone learning a language needs far more than 'in-the-head' knowledge of grammar and vocabulary in order to be able to be use language successfully.

In staff rooms, you'll find that teachers typically classify the key subject matter of language teaching under two main headings: 'Language systems' and 'Language skills'. There are other important subject areas as well (including 'Learning better wTays of learning', 'Exam techniques', 'Working with and learning about other people').

Language systems

We can analyse a sentence such as *Pass me the book* in different ways. We could consider:

• the sounds (phonology);

• the meaning of the individual words or groups of words (lexis or vocabulary);

• how the words interact with each other within the sentence (grammar);

• the use to which the words are put in particular situations (function).

If we extend our language sample into a complete (short) conversation, e.g.

A: Pass me the book.

B: Mary's gone home.

then we have an additional area for analysis, namely the way that communication makes sense beyond the individual phrase or sentence, analysing how the sentences relate (or don't relate) to each other (known as discourse).

So we have five language systems, though all are simply different ways of looking at the same thing. If we are considering teaching an item of language, one thing we need to decide is which system (s) we are going to offer our learners information about.

We might plan a lesson focused on only one area, e.g. grammar, or we might deal with two, three or more. An example of a commonly combined systems focus in many language lessons would be:

grammar + pronunciation + function

(i.e. how the language is structured, how to say it and how it's used).

Language skills

As well as working with the language systems (which we can think of as what we know, i.e. 'up-in-the-head' knowledge), we also need to pay attention to what we do with language. These are the language skills. Teachers normally think of there being four important macro language skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing. Listening and reading are called 'receptive skills' (the reader or listener receives information but does not produce it); speaking and writing, on the other hand, are the 'productive skills'. Skills are commonly used interactively and in combination rather than in isolation, especially speaking and listening. It's arguable that other things (e.g. 'thinking', 'using memory' and 'mediating') are also language skills.

The main four skills are referred to as 'macro' because any one of them could be analysed down to smaller micro skills by defining more precisely what exactly is being done, how it is being done, the genre of material, etc. For example:

Macro skill Listening

Some micro skills

• Understanding the gist of what is heard, e.g. Who is talking? Where are they? What are they doing? What is their relationship? How do they feel?

• Understanding precise information re. quantity, reference numbers, prices, etc. when listening to a business telephone call where a client wants to place an order.

• Compensating for words and phrases not heard clearly in an informal pub conversation by hypothesising what they are, based on understanding of the content of the rest of a conversation and predictions of likely content.

The importance of skills work

One should not underestimate the importance of skills work. Not every lesson needs to teach new words, new grammar, etc. Lessons also need to be planned to give students opportunities to practise and improve their language skills. Skills work is not something to add in at the end of a five-year course in English. There is no need to wait for extensive knowledge before daring to embark on listening and speaking work. On the contrary, it is something so essential that it needs to be at the heart of a

course from the start. Even a beginner with one day's English will be able to practise speaking and listening usefully.

A purpose-based view of course content

Another way of looking at possible course content is to consider the communicative purposes that students need language for. The Common European Framework focuses on what learners can do with language. For example, can an individual learner successfully attend company planning meetings? Or take notes in physics lectures at university? Or give unambiguous instructions to junior doctors on a ward? An analysis of such can do requirements suggests a different kind of course content, one based around students planning, undertaking and reflecting on tasks that reflect these real-life purposes. This course content would clearly include systems and skills work, but would be organised around this key idea of real-world uses.

Changes of emphasis

Traditionally, language teaching in many countries concentrated on grammar and vocabulary reinforced by reading and writing. The reading and writing was primarily to help teach the grammar and vocabulary rather than to help improve the students' skills in reading or writing. In the twentieth century, teaching approaches based mainly around oral language practice through repetition and drilling were also widely used. Until the 1960s, a lot of courses were based on mainly grammatical syllabuses, but in the late 1970s and 1980s, a number of courses and coursebooks used a functional syllabus, grouping language by the purpose for which it could be used (e.g. the language of greeting or requesting or apologising).

Nowadays, most interest is expressed in work on all language systems and skills, particularly emphasising listening and speaking (because in everyday life we often do far more speaking and listening than we do reading and writing). Grammar is typically still the language system that features most prominently on courses and in coursebooks - and, at lower levels, is also the area that many students say they want or expect to study in most detail. Often coursebooks teach grammar with an emphasis on communication of meaning rather than purely mechanical practice.

Despite the continuing predominance of grammar, the implications of a more lexically oriented view of language are increasingly having an impact on material and task design. The growing influence of the Common European Framework has encouraged course designers, teachers and examiners to increasingly see successful communication in real-world tasks as a more important goal than that of accurate language use.

The communicative purpose of language learning

It is important to remember that no one area of skills or language systems exists in isolation: there can be no speaking if you don't have the vocabulary to speak with; there's no point learning words unless you can do something useful with them.

The purpose of learning a language is usually to enable you to take part in exchanges of information: talking with friends, reading instructions on a packet of food, understanding directions, writing a note to a colleague, etc. Sometimes traditional teaching methods have seemed to emphasise the learning of language systems as a goal in its own right and failed to give learners an opportunity to gain realistic experience in actually using the language knowledge gained; how many students have left school after studying a language for years, unable to speak an intelligible sentence?

Other areas that are part of language learning

The map of language systems and language skills is useful to keep in mind as an overview of the subject matter of English language teaching. However, it may well be an over-simplification. Elsewhere in this book, you'll come across some doubts about it (for example, when we ask if grammar is more fruitfully viewed as a 'skill' students need practice in using rather than as a 'system' to learn). And, of course, there is more to English language teaching than simply the language itself:

• Students may be learning new ways of learning: for example, specific study skills and techniques.

• They will also be learning about the other people in their class, and exploring ways of interacting and working with them.

• They may be learning about themselves and how they work, learn, get on with other people, cope with stress, etc.

• They may be learning a lot about the culture of the countries whose language they are studying.

• They may be learning how to achieve some specific goal, for example passing an exam, making a business presentation at an upcoming conference, etc.

• They may also be learning about almost anything else. The subject matter of ELT can encompass all topics and purposes that we use language to deal with.

Many teachers seem to become quite knowledgeable on the environment, business protocol, the British education system, desert survival techniques, etc. This is probably what keeps the job interesting! Some coursebook texts seem to achieve nearly legendary status amongst teachers! (Ask a teacher who's been in the business a few years if they know anything about a nun called Sister Wendy!)

If we start using English in class to do more than simple mechanical drills, then the subject matter becomes anything that we might do with language, any topic that might be discussed with English, any feelings that might be expressed in English, any communication that we might give or receive using English. The people who use the language in class, and their feelings, are, therefore, also part of the subject matter. This might be a little daunting and may lead you to keep the uses of language in class at a more mechanical, impersonal level, without allowing too much 'dangerous' personal investment in what is said or heard. This seems sad to me; I believe that we need to give our students chances to feel and think and express themselves in their new language.

Further reading on theme:

1. Жалолов Ж. Чет тил ўқитиш методикаси. – Тошкент, Ўқитувчи. 1996. – 326 б.
2. Хошимов Ў. Инглиз тили ўқитиш методикаси. – Тошкент, Ўқитувчи. 2006. – 226 б.
3. Рогова Г.В. Methods of English Language Teaching. – M. – 1975, 312 p.
4. Richards J.C. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. – Cambridge Univ. Press. 2008. – 269 p.
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8. Ur P. A Course in Language Teaching. – Cambridge Univ. Press. 1991. – 375 p.

LECTURE 3. APPROACHES, METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

List of principal questions:

1. Distinguishing Approach and Method in Language Teaching
2. Pre-communication methods
2.1 Humanistic approach
2.2 Intensification tendency
2.3 Communicative approach
2.4 Communicative techniques

Learning Outcomes
By the end of the session students will have:
- distinguish the differences between approach, method, and technique;
- become aware of the principal language teaching approaches and methods;
- discovered the essential basis of communicative approach;
- become aware of techniques underlying in communicative approach to language teaching.

Materials: handouts, CD, blackboard, power point presentation.

1. Distinguishing Approach and Method in Language Teaching

Approach refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serves as the source of practices and principles in language teaching.

A method is the practical realization of an approach. Method may be defined as a way of governing or guiding the learning. In a teaching – learning process method may be considered as a structural – functional component of Teacher – Learner activity. Teacher and learner are interrelated. This interrelation is carried out through methods.

The methods of teaching – learning process include:

The acquisition of new info about a new linguistic or language phenomenon (the pupil gets knowledge of what he is to learn).

The drill and exercises (the pupil performs exercises to form habits on the material he learns).

Making use of the acquired habits in the act of common, i.e. in listening, speaking, reading, writing, in other words, in language skills.

Each method is realized in **techniques**. A technique is a way to organize a learning procedure. By a technique we mean an individual way in doing something, in gaining a certain goal in teaching – learning process. For example, while organizing pupils' acquisition of a new sound the teacher can use either demonstration of the pronunciation of the sound or an explanation of how the sound should be pronounced in the target language or he uses both demonstration and explanation. To help pupils to grasp this sound and produce it correctly as an isolated element, then in a word in which it occurs and in various sentences with the word. An activity is a procedure of getting involved in learning. An exercise is a skill-developing procedure.

The choice of techniques is of great importance for effective teaching. When organizing pupils' acquisition of a new material the teacher thinks of the techniques which are more suitable for his pupils: he takes into consideration pupils' age, the progress in language learning (the stage of learning), their intellectual development, the conditions under which pupils learn.

2. Pre-communication methods

The way towards communicative teaching has been a long and controversial one with advances and set backs. The **focus of attention** has gradually shifted from the **language as a systematic code** to the **language as a means of communication** with the search for an **effective method** of instruction and consideration of the **learner's personality.**

Grammar translation **method** included detailed analysis of grammar rules, translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language, memorizing rules and manipulating morphology and syntax, reading and writing.

Direct method encouraged the use of foreign language in the classroom. Classroom teaching was conducted in the target language only. The learning process was mostly based on imitation and memorization.

Oral approach **or situational language teaching** was based on selection and organization of the "situations". "Situations" were organized with the use of concrete things and pictures. They were used to introduce the new grammar structures.

Audio-lingual method applied the principles of structural linguistics to language teaching. Pattern practice became a basic classroom technique. Audio-lingual method was the combination of structural linguistic theory and fundamentals of behaviorism (stimulus, response, reinforcement).

The Natural approach put emphasis on the exposure to language (comprehensible input) rather than formal exercises. The following hypotheses were at the foundation of the Natural approach: **the acquisition/ learning hypothesis** (only natural-like acquisition can result in mastering the language while "learning" helps getting knowledge about the language), **the monitor hypothesis** (explicit knowledge has only one function, that of monitoring correctness of the utterance), **the natural order hypothesis** (the acquisition of grammar structures proceeds in a predictable order), **the input hypothesis** (the relationship between the input and language acquisition shows that learners need comprehensible input), **the affective filter hypothesis** (learners with high motivation, self-confidence, low anxiety generally do better in language acquisition).

2.2 Humanistic approach

Humanistic approach emerged as a **reaction to the behaviorist approach** to teaching with the rigid teacher's control over the learners' behavior. The concern of humanistic tendencies was to enhance people's self-fulfilment and their role in directing their own lives.

Humanistic approach to language teaching emphasized the value of developing the learner's whole personality, the socialization of an individual in a group, creative activities with music, arts, etc. It was further developed in **community language teaching.** The method was based on counseling techniques. In lay terms, counseling is giving support to another person. This method was described as **humanistic** with self-fulfilment and secured self-esteem of the learners.

The priorities of the method were to develop learners' relationships in the group, to encourage the learners' feeling of security and belonging to a group as well as asserting their personal identity. "Learner autonomy" became a new and much discussed concept. Affective learning and learner anxiety were taken seriously as an important factor of effectiveness. Instead of the formulaic knowledge (the product of behaviorism) teachers tried to develop in learners heuristic knowledge.

Special attention was given to the issue of **"debilitating anxiety",** which unlike "facilitating anxiety" could hinder and even block the process of language acquisition. As a result of debilitating anxiety during the lesson, learners usually develop a **"defense mechanism".** Some of them withdraw from the work of the class, make a game of a task, fidget and let their attention wander or plunge into the

world of fantasy. They can challenge the teacher with unacceptable behavior or passive aggression in the form of "silent protest". Some learners accuse others of their own learning problems. As expression of protest the learners join subgroups of other failure-learners.

An important issue which is tackled by the humanistic approach to teaching is the **rejection of the learners** by their teachers. The rejection of this type can be hidden and show itself indirectly. These teachers prefer not to look at the learners, which they dislike (gaze of avoidance). The whole teacher's body movement is in the direction opposite to the learners they dislike. The teachers keep these learners at a greater distance and give them less verbal contact and addresses. These learners are denied teacher's supportive intervention and detailed feed-back that other learners formally enjoy. They are given a reduced teacher's waiting time.

The humanistic approach advocated "non-conflict", "non-judgement" and "empathy" in the relations of the teacher and learners. The importance of the humanistic approach lies not just in the effectiveness of language learning but also in the development of the personality.

The humanistic approach facilitates **the self-fulfilment of learners.** Self-fulfilled people have a healthier psyche and are more capable of a creative non-stereotyped behavior. This helps them to identify easily with the group. They demonstrate a more accurate perception of reality and accept it without unnecessary conflicts. They focus more on cognitive problems and less on themselves. These learners possess the capacity for peak experiences (through love, music, art, nature, etc.) and a greater aptitude for empathy with other people. They are able to see things other than in black and white. Self-fulfilment of learners is achieved through **learner-centered teaching** by using interactive tasks in pairs and small groups, creating a supportive environment and building confidence in learners.

2.3 Intensification tendency

Total Physical Response **(TPR)** is the combination in the teaching method of speech and action. The method combined verbal rehearsal with motor activities.

The Silent Way was based on the premise that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom, while the learners will produce more language. A typical feature of the Silent Way is the use of color charts and rods as memorable images and signals to help in verbal responses. The proposition underlying this method of instruction was that learning is facilitated if the learners discover or create even with minimal language skills rather than rehearse and remember.

Suggestopedy aimed at optimising learning by music and rhythm, authoritative teacher's behavior and 'infantalisation' of learners, physical and psychological relaxation. The focus was on the memorization processes, which according to the authors, was 25 times faster than in conventional learning.

Another example of exploiting resources of the human psyche in teaching languages is *neuro-linguistic programming* **(NLP), NLP** is shaping one's inner

world through reevaluating one's experience and using the power of the word. It aims at opening up one's inner resources as a way towards **accelerated learning.**

2.4 Communicative approach

Communicative language teaching is based on a number of typical features of the communication process. Language teaching is understood as learning to communicate through communication. The emphasis is put on the meaningful and motivated use of language by the people who communicate in order to achieve a certain goal.

Language for learning is derived from communicative experience in a variety of real world situations. Fluency is put over accuracy. Interactive learning is encouraged as the way towards acquiring communication skills.

The learners are taught "negotiating" the meaning (working towards better understanding each other), and using "communication strategies".

Communicative competence

The idea of communicative competence started to develop with the construct of "linguistic competence". Linguistic competence is understood as innate knowledge of language. Linguistic competence is only part of what is needed for communication.

Communicative competence encompasses the knowledge of how to use language in the real world, without which the rules of grammar would be useless.

Communicative competence can be described as including grammar competence (knowledge of grammar rules, lexis and phonetics), pragmatic competence (knowledge of how to express a message), strategic competence (knowledge of how to express a message in a variety of circumstances), socio-cultural competence (knowledge of social etiquette, national mindset and values, etc.) Communicative competence breaks down into the two major components of knowledge: knowledge of language and knowledge of how to achieve the goal of communication.

Competence is not the same as ability. In order to be able to communicate, people need psycho-physiological mechanisms, i. e. communicative skills.

Communication is the process of interpersonal interaction and requires the knowledge of social conventions, i. e. the knowledge of rules about proper ways to communicate with people.

In accordance with the social conventions, participants in communication perform communicative functions (to socialize, to inform, to persuade, to elicit information, to manipulate behavior and opinions, to perform rituals, etc) and communicate roles (leader, informer, witness, participant, catalyst, entertainer, etc). In order to perform these functions a speaker needs more than just the knowledge of the language.

The process of communication is characterized by communicative strategies of achieving a goal through communication.

Success of communication depends very much on the knowledge of successful strategies chosen by the speakers. E.g. the Prince (in "The Prince and the Pauper" by M. Twain) was unable "to ask" because he was only competent in how to "give orders".

Successful strategies are known as the "four maxims" of good communication. These maxims include quality (say only what is supported by evidence), quantity (say no more and no less than you think is needed), relevance (say what is relevant to the point of communication) and manner (present your ideas clearly and unambiguously). The four maxims of successful communication can be used in teaching how to communicate effectively.

Communication strategies can be goal-oriented (having a particular goal in mind), partner-oriented (with the partner and his comprehension in mind, using negotiation of meaning, persuasion, self-correction, repetition, circumlocution, etc) and circumstances-oriented (behaving according to the situation).

In choosing a strategy the participants in communication can prefer either an achievement strategy (guessing, paraphrasing yet achieving the goal) or a reduction strategy (co-operation, avoidance and sometimes giving up one's goal partially or completely).

For successful communication learners need to know non-verbal means. They include proxemics (physical distance and life space in the process of communication), kinetics (body language, gestures and postures), facial expression (smiles, eye contact), haptics (the use of touch in communication), clothing and physical appearance in the process of communication (the concept of decency in clothing and physical appearance), paralanguage ("um-m", "uh-huh", etc).

Many non-verbal expressions vary from culture to culture, and it is often the cause of cultural misinterpretation. E. g. a physical distance can be too close or somebody's private space can be trespassed. Gestures and postures can be inappropriate; there can be a lack of smile and eye contact. Touching somebody's body during conversation can be taken as offensive. The dressing habit can be alien. Vocal confirmation following the conversation (Aha! Etc.) can be inappropriate. In some cultures humble bows are part of etiquette while others support a proud upright posture.

Teaching the language is integral to teaching culture as a set of beliefs, values and norms shared by community members, serving their identity with this social group. Co-teaching of language and culture is implemented through content-based and context-based language instruction. Content-based teaching of culture focuses on culture-related information, while context-based instruction emphasizes real-world situations where people need to behave in a culturally appropriate way. Content-based teaching is knowledge-oriented. Context-based instruction is skill-oriented.

2.5 Communicative techniques

A technique is a way for teacher to organize a learner activity. The purpose of communicative techniques is to teach communication.

Communicative techniques can develop in learners productive, receptive and interactive skills that are necessary for effective communication. Activities with listening and reading aim at developing in learners skills of receiving information.

Activities with speaking and writing develop in learners skills of producing information. Both can be learner interactive and thus promote communication.

Some activities are more associated with reading and listening (receptive skills), while others are more often used with speaking and writing (productive skills).

An information gap is organized to promote speaking activities. An information gap is a situation in which a participant or a group possesses information which others do not have, while others command information that the first party is missing. E. g. a student in a pair with another student might have the train timetable for odd numbers, while her partner might have the train timetable for even numbers. Their task is to use communication for finding out complete information on how the train runs. An information gap can take the format of an opinion gap when the participants differ in their opinions. The gap is filled in the course of active communication.

Any activity with an information gap can be turned into a communicative game if there are rules to name the winner. The information gap is a frequent technique used in order to organize a communicative game. E. g. you have new neighbors. They can tell you about themselves only what is given on their role cards. Try to guess their professions. Ask any questions. Direct questions about professions are excluded.

A popular speaking activity is *reading from cues*. It is organized when the participants write information about themselves on sticky labels in the form of separate words, dates, names, etc. Other students ask questions trying to find as much as possible about person. To achieve this goal they have to think first what a date on the sticky label might mean and ask a questions like "Were you married in 1991? ", "Maybe you got your first job in 1991? " etc.

Reading and speaking processes can be boosted by a *"matching"* activity, in which the participants are to match pictures and texts, pictures and pictures, texts and texts (both oral and written) by using questions.

Jigsaw reading activity is organized most often with the texts that are meant for reading or listening ("jigsaw" reading and "jigsaw" listening).A text is divided into several parts. Every participant has access to only one part of the oral or written text. They ask each other questions and provide information to pool the parts of the text together and to know the contents of the whole text. Another variant is jigsaw listening when each participant or a small group listens to only some information as part of the whole. These pieces can be brought together only in the course of active communication efforts.

Another activity for reading is sequencing (re-ordering). The task consists in asking the learners to restore the logical order between parts of the text. This can produce an "opinion gap" and boost communication.

Productive skills of speaking and writing are developed in simulations. A simulation means that an episode of the real world is reproduced in the classroom environment in the form of a role-play, discussion (problem solving), piece of writing or project work.

An important aspect of communicative teaching is classroom interaction. This form of communication develops between the learners and the teacher. Learners'

interaction is organized in pairs, small groups, moving circles, parallel lines of pairs, etc. Classroom interaction promotes a communicative classroom atmosphere and successful communicative teaching.

Communicative teaching is often organized in the three-phase framework. Three-phase framework means subdivision of the teaching process into three phases: pre-activity, while-activity and post-activity. Pre-activity is organized to arouse interest in the learners towards the main task, to motivate performance, to activate in learners their prior knowledge and to prepare them for the language that may be necessary to perform the main task. While-activity is organized as oral or written communication and is based on engaging the learners in the communicative tasks. Post-activity is reflection on the ideas and language that was produced during the main activity. This phase also includes additional language drills and integration with other skills.

Further reading on theme:

1. Жалолов Ж. Чет тил ўқитиш методикаси. – Тошкент, Ўқитувчи. 1996. – 326 б.
2. Хошимов Ў. Инглиз тили ўқитиш методикаси. – Тошкент, Ўқитувчи. 2006. – 226 б.
3. Рогова Г.В. Methods of English Language Teaching. – М. – 1975, 312 p.
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6. Richards J.C. Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics. – Longman, 2002. – 604 p.
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8. Ur P. A Course in Language Teaching. – Cambridge Univ. Press. 1991. – 375 p.

LECTURE 4. AIDS AND EQUIPMENT OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

List of principal questions:

1. The Role of Syllabuses in Language Teaching.
2. Coursebooks in Language Teaching.
3. Educational Technology and Other Teaching Equipment.

Learning Outcomes

By the end of the session students will have:
- become aware of the aids and materials used in teaching foreign languages;
- identified main types of syllabuses;
- become aware of use of coursebooks and other education technology and equipment in foreign language teaching.

Materials: handouts, CD, blackboard, power point presentation.

4.1 The Role of Syllabi in Language Teaching

The FL syllabus is the main document which lays down the aims and the content of TFL in schools. A school like any other educational institution has a curriculum which states the subjects to be studied, the number of hours (periods) allotted to the study of each subject, the sequence in which the subjects are introduced.

The syllabus lays down the extent of the knowledge; habits and skills pupils must acquire the sequence topics which constitute the academic content of the subject. The syllabus is an essential document for every teacher, and he is responsible for the fulfillment of its requirements.

In the syllabus the teacher will find all the instructions concerning the knowledge he must import to his pupils, the habits and skills he must develop etc. The textbook for every form should correspond to the syllabus.

Common characteristics of a syllabus

A syllabus is a document which consists, essentially, of **a list.** This list specifies all the things that are to be taught in the course(s) for which the syllabus was designed (a beginner's course, for example, or a six-year secondary-school program): it is therefore **comprehensive.** The actual components of the list may be either **content** items (words, structures, topics), or **process** ones (tasks, methods). The former is the more common. The items are **ordered,** usually having components that are considered easier or more essential earlier, and more difficult and less important ones later. This ordering may be fairly detailed and rigid, or general and flexible

The syllabus generally has **explicit objectives,** usually declared at the beginning of the document, on the basis of which the components of the list are selected and ordered.

Another characteristic of the syllabus is that it is a **public document.** It is available for scrutiny not only by the teachers who are expected to implement it, but also by the consumers (the learners or their parents or employers), by representatives of the relevant authorities (inspectors, school boards), by other interested members of the public (researchers, teacher trainers or textbook writers). Underlying this characteristic is the principle of accountability: the composers of the syllabus are answerable to their target audience for the quality of their document.

There are other, optional, features, displayed by some syllabuses and not others. A **time schedule** is one: some syllabuses delimit the time framework of their components, prescribing, for example, that these items should be dealt with in the

first month, those in the second; the class should have completed this much by the end of the year. A particular preferred **approach** or **methodology** to be used may also be defined, even in a syllabus that is essentially content-based. It may list recommended **materials** – coursebooks, visual materials or supplementary materials - either in general, or where relevant to certain items or sections.

Different types of language syllabus

A number of different kinds of syllabuses are used in foreign language teaching. A list of these is provided below; it is not, of course, exhaustive, but includes the main types that you may come across in practice or in your reading. Each is briefly explained; some also include references to sources of more detailed information on content or rationale.

1. Grammatical

A list of grammatical structures, such as the present tense, comparison of adjectives, relative clauses, usually divided into sections graded according to difficulty and/or importance.

2. Lexical

A list of lexical items *(girl, boy, go away...)* with associated collocations and idioms, usually divided into graded sections.

3. Grammatical-lexical

A very common kind of syllabus: both structures and lexis are specified: either together, in sections that correspond to the units of a course, or in two separate lists.

4. Situational

These syllabuses take the real-life contexts of language uses as their basis: sections would be headed by names of situations or locations such as 'Eating meal' or 'In the street'.

5. Topic-based

This is rather like the situational syllabus, except that the headings are broad topic-based, including things like 'Food' or 'The family'; these usually indicate fairly clear set of vocabulary items, which may be specified.

6. Functional

Functions are things you can **do** with language, (examples are 'identifying', 'denying', 'promising'

7. Mixed or 'multi-strand'

Increasingly, modern syllabuses are combining different aspects in order to be maximally comprehensive and helpful to teachers and learners; in these you may find specification of topics, tasks, functions and notions, as well as grammar and vocabulary.

8. Procedural

These syllabuses specify the learning tasks to be done rather than the language itself or even its meanings. Examples of tasks might be: map reading, doing scientific experiments, story-writing.

9. Process

This is the only syllabus which is not pre-set. The content of the course is negotiated with the learners at the beginning of the course and during it, and actually listed only retrospectively (Относящийся к прошлому).

4.2 Coursebooks in Language Teaching.

In some places coursebooks are taken for granted. In others they may not be used at all: the teacher works according to a syllabus, or according to his or her own programme, using textbooks and supplementary materials as the need arises. A third, 'compromise', situation is where a coursebook is used selectively, not necessarily in sequence, and is extensively supplemented by other materials.

In favour of using a coursebook

1. Framework

A coursebook provides a clear framework: teacher and learners know where they are going and what is coming next, so that there is a sense of structure and progress.

2. Syllabus

In many places the coursebook serves as a syllabus: if it is followed systematically, a carefully planned and balanced selection of language content will be covered.

3. Ready-made texts and tasks

The coursebook provides texts and learning tasks which are likely to be of an appropriate level for most of the class. This of course saves time for the teacher who would otherwise have to prepare his or her own.

4. Economy

A book is the cheapest way of providing learning material for each learner; alternatives, such as kits, sets of photocopied papers or computer software, are likely to be more expensive relative to the amount of material provided.

5. Convenience

A book is a convenient package. It is bound, so that its components stick together and stay in order; it is light and small enough to carry around easily; it is of a shape that is easily packed and stacked; it does not depend for its use on hardware or a supply of electricity.

6. Guidance

For teachers who are inexperienced or occasionally unsure of their knowledge of the language, the coursebook can provide useful guidance and support.

7. Autonomy

The learner can use the coursebook to learn new material, review and monitor progress with some degree of autonomy. A learner without a coursebook is more teacher-dependent.

4.3 Educational Technology and Other Teaching Equipment

To teach a FL effectively the teacher needs teaching aids. By teaching aids we mean various devices which can help the foreign language teacher in presenting linguistic material to his pupils and fixing it in their memory.

Computers

Computers are seen by many as an important teaching aid. These days learners need to be 'computer literate', and since computers use language it would seem logical to take advantage of them for language learning. They enable individual work, since learners can progress at their own pace, and many programs include a self-check facility. Also, younger and adolescent learners in particular find the use of computers attractive and motivating. However, it takes time to train both teachers and students in their use; and in practice a lot of time in a computer lesson often goes on setting up programs, getting students into them, and then solving problems with moving from one stage, or one program, to another.

For teachers who are familiar with their use computers can be invaluable for preparing materials such as worksheets or tests.

Books

Books are very user-friendly 'packages' of material: they are light, easily scanned, easily stacked and do not need hardware or electricity. They are still the most convenient and popular method of packaging large texts, and a library of them is arguably the best way for learners to acquire a wide experience of foreign language reading.

It is very useful to have a collection of reference books, extra textbooks and teachers' handbooks easily available to the teaching staff; and regular reading of a professional journal can inject new ideas and update teachers on current thinking.

Overhead projectors

These are useful for presenting visual or written material to classes: they are more vivid and attention-catching than the black- or whiteboards. They also save lesson time, since you can prepare the displays in advance. However, this does mean added work in preparation! Another disadvantage is the need to carry the OHP from class to class, unless each classroom has its own - which true only of the more affluent institutions. And of course, like any other electrical equipment, OHP's are vulnerable to breakdowns: electricity failure.

Video equipment

Video is an excellent source of authentic spoken language material; it is also attractive and motivating. It is flexible: you can start and stop it, run forward back, 'freeze' frames in order to talk about them. And there are many good programs on the market. A disadvantage is their lack of mobility: few vide sets are portable, which means that classes need to be specially scheduled for video rooms; and of course there is the problem of occasional breakdowns or technical problems. When planning a video lesson, always have a 'back-up' alternative lesson ready!

Audio equipment

Cassette recorders and cassettes are relatively cheap, and easy to use; and they are the main source (other than the teacher) of spoken language texts in most

classrooms. They are more mobile and easier to use than video recorders, but lack, of course, the visual content. Again there may be problems with electric on the other hand, most portable cassette recorders - unlike video and most computers - also work on batteries. When buying cassette recorders, make sure that there is a counter, and then use it to identify the desired entry-point; otherwise, if you want to replay during the lesson, you may waste valuable time running the tape back and forth to find it.

Posters, pictures, games

Materials of this kind are invaluable particularly for younger learners, and teachers of children find that they constantly use them. However, if you have time, this type of material can be largely home-made: glossy magazines in particular are an excellent source of pictures.

Further reading on theme:

1. Жалолов Ж. Чет тил ўқитиш методикаси. – Тошкент, Ўқитувчи. 1996. – 326 б.
2. Хошимов Ў. Инглиз тили ўқитиш методикаси. – Тошкент, Ўқитувчи. 2006. – 226 б.
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LECTURE 5: CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

1.1 Practice Activities

Practice can be roughly defined as the rehearsal of certain behaviours with the objective of consolidating learning and improving performance. Language learners can benefit from being told, and understanding, facts about the language only up to a point: ultimately, they have to acquire an intuitive, automatized knowledge which will enable ready and fluent comprehension and self-expression. And such knowledge is normally brought about through consolidation of learning through practice. This is true of first language acquisition as well as of second language learning in either 'immersion' or formal classroom situations. Language learning has

much in common with the learning of other skills, and it may be helpful at this point to think about what learning a skill entails.

Learning a skill

The process of learning a skill by means of a course of instruction has been defined as a three-stage process: verbalization, automatization and autonomy.

At the first stage the bit of the skill to be learned may be focused on and defined in words - **'verbalized'** - as well as demonstrated. Thus in swimming the instructor will probably both describe and show correct arm and leg movements; in language, the teacher may explain the meaning of a word or the rules about a grammatical structure as well as using them in context. Note that the verbalization may be elicited from learners rather than done by the teacher, and it may follow trial attempts at performance which serve to pinpoint aspect of the skill that need learning. It roughly corresponds to 'presentation', as discussed above.

The teacher then gets the learners to demonstrate the target behaviour, while monitoring their performance. At first they may do things wrong and need correcting in the form of further telling and/or demonstration; later they may d it right as long as they are thinking about it. At this point they start practising: performing the skilful behaviour again and again, usually in exercises suggests by the teacher, until they can get it right without thinking. At this point they may be said to have **'automatized'** the behaviour, and are likely to forget how it was described verbally in the first place.

Finally they take the set of behaviours they have mastered and begin to improve on their own, through further practice activity. They start to speed up performance, to perceive or create new combinations, to 'do their own thing': they are **'autonomous'.** Some people have called this stage 'production', but this I think is a misnomer for it involves reception as much as production, and is in fact simply a more advanced form of practice, as defined at the beginning of the unit. Learners now have little need of a teacher except perhaps as a supportive or challenging colleague and are ready, or nearly ready, to perform as masters the skill - or as teachers themselves.

Much language practice falls within the skill-development model described above. But some of it does not: even where information has not been » consciously verbalized or presented, learners may absorb and acquire language skills and content through direct interaction with texts or communicative task. In other words, their learning starts at the automatization and autonomy stage in unstructured fluency practice. But this is still practice, and essential for successful learning.

Summary

Practice, then, is the activity through which language skills and knowledge and consolidated and thoroughly mastered. As such, it is arguably the most important of all the stages of learning; hence the most important classroom activity of the teacher is to initiate and manage activities that provide students with opportunities for effective practice.

Characteristics of a good practice activity

Whether or not you think that organizing language practice is the most important thing the teacher does in the classroom, you will, I hope, agree that it does contribute

significantly to successful language learning, and therefore it is worth devoting some thought to what factors contribute to the effectiveness of classroom practice.

Practice is usually carried out through procedures called 'exercises' or 'activities'. The latter term usually implies rather more learner activity and initiative than the former, but there is a large area of overlap: many procedures could be defined by either. Exercises and activities may, of course, relate to any aspect of language: their goal may be the consolidation of the learning of a grammatical structure, for example, or the improvement of listening, speak reading or writing fluency, or the memorization of vocabulary.

Characteristics of effective language practice

Validity

The activity should activate learners primarily in the skill or material it purports to practise. This is an obvious principle that is surprisingly often violated. Many 'speaking' activities, for example, have learners listening to the teacher more than talking themselves.

Note that 'validity' does not necessarily imply that the language should be used for some kind of replication of real-life communication. Pronunciation drills and vocabulary practice, for example, may also be valid if they in fact serve primarily to rehearse and improve the items to be practised.

Pre-learning

The learners should have a good preliminary grasp of the language they are required to practise, though they may only be able to produce or understand it slowly and after thought. If they are required to do a practice activity based on something they have not yet begun to learn, they will either not be able to do it at all, or will produce unsuccessful responses. In either case the activity will have been fairly useless in providing practice: its main function, in fact, will have been as a diagnostic test, enabling the teacher to identify and (re-)teach language the learners do not know. If, however, they can - however hesitantly -produce successful responses, they have a firm basis for further effective practice of the target language material.

Volume

Roughly speaking, the more language the learners actually engage with during the activity, the more practice in it they will get. If the lesson time available for the activity is seen as a container, then this should be filled with as much 'volume' of language as possible. Time during which learners are not engaging with the language being practised for whatever reason (because nothing is being demanded of them at that moment, or because they are using their mother tongue, or because they are occupied with classroom management or organizational processes, or because of some distraction or digression) is time wasted as far as the practice activity is concerned.

Success-orientation

On the whole, we consolidate learning by doing things right. Continued inaccurate or unacceptable performance results only in 'fossilization' of mistakes and general discouragement. It is therefore important to select, design and administer practice

activities in such a way that learners are likely to succeed in doing the task. Repeated successful performance is likely to result in effective automatization of whatever is being performed, as well as reinforcing the learners' self-image as successful language learners and encouraging them to take up further challenges.

Success, incidentally, does not necessarily mean perfection! A class may engage successfully with language practice in groups, where mistakes do occasionally occur, but most of the utterances are acceptable and a large 'volume' of practice is achieved. This is often preferable to teacher-monitored full-class practice, which may produce fully accurate responses - but at the expense of 'volume' and opportunities for active participation by most of the class.

Heterogeneity

A good practice activity provides opportunities for useful practice to all, or most, of the different levels within a class. If you give an activity whose items invite response at only one level of knowledge, then a large proportion of your class will not benefit.

Consider the following item in an activity on can/can't*:*

Jenny is a baby. Jenny (can/can't) ride a bicycle.

Learners who are not confident that they understand how to use *can* may not do the item at all. Those who are more advanced, and could make far more complex and interesting statements with the same item have no opportunity tc do so, and get no useful practice at a level appropriate to them. However, suppose you redesign the text and task as follows:

Jenny is a baby. Jenny can hold a toy and can smile, but she can't ride a bicycle. What else can, or can't. Jenny do?

then the activity becomes heterogeneous. You have provided weaker learners with support in the form of sample responses, and you have given everyone the opportunity to answer at a level appropriate to him or her, from the simple ('Jenny can drink milk', for example) to the relatively complex and original ('Jenny can't open a bank account'). Thus a much larger proportion of the class is able to participate and benefit.

Teacher assistance

The main function of the teacher, having proposed the activity and given clear instructions, is to help the learners do it successfully. If you give an activity, an then sit back while the learners 'flounder' - make random uninformed guesses or are uncomfortably hesitant - you are not helping; even assessments and corrections made later, which give useful feedback to learners on their mistake do not in themselves give practice, in the sense of contributing to automatization. If, however, you assist them, you thereby increase their chances of success and the effectiveness of the practice activity as a whole. Such assistance may take the form of allowing plenty of time to think, of making the answers easier through giving hints and guiding questions, of confirming beginnings of responses in order to encourage continuations, or, in group work, of moving around the classroom making yourself available to answer questions. Through such activity you also, incidentally, convey a clear

message about the function and attitude of the teacher: I want you to succeed in learning and am doing my best to see you do so.

Interest

If there is little challenge in the language work itself because of its 'success-orientation' and if there is a lot of repetition of target forms ('volume'), then there is certainly a danger that the practice might be boring. And boredom is not only an unpleasant feeling in itself; it also leads to learner inattention, low motivation and ultimately less learning.

However, if interest is not derived from the challenge of getting-the-answers right, it has to be rooted in other aspects of the activity: an interesting topic, the need to convey meaningful information, a game-like 'fun' task, attention-catching materials, appeal to learners' feelings or a challenge to their intellect. simple example: an activity whose aim is to get learners to practise asking 'yes no' questions may simply demand that learners build such questions from short cues (by transforming statements into questions, for example); but such an activity will get far more attentive and interested participation if participants produce their questions as contributions to some kind of purposeful transfer of information (such as guessing what the teacher has in a bag or what someone's profession is).

LECTURE 6. TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

List of principal questions:

1. Teaching pronunciation .
2. How to teach pronunciation
3. Educational Technology and Other Teaching Equipment.

Learning Outcomes
By the end of the session students will have:
- become aware of the aids and materials used in teaching foreign languages;
- identified main types of syllabuses;
- become aware of use of coursebooks and other education technology and equipment in foreign language teaching.

Materials: handouts, CD, blackboard, power point presentation.

1. Teaching pronunciation

Teaching pronunciation is of great importance in the developing of pupils' listening and speaking habits and skills. It is of no less importance in the development of reading and writing habits and skills since writing is the graphic representation of sound sequences. In reading the visual images become acoustic images. These are combined with kinesthetic images, resulting in inner speech.

The content of teaching pronunciation

Proceeding from the aims and objectives the FL syllabus sets out, pupils must assimilate.

The sounds of the English language, its vowels and consonants. They should be able to articulate these sounds both separately and in different phonetic contexts.

Some peculiarities of the English language in comparison with those of the Uzbek language.

Stress in a word and in a sentence, and melody (fall and rise). Pupils must be able to divide a sentence into groups and intone it properly.

The teacher faces the following problems in teaching pupils pronunciation.

The problem of discrimination identifying the differences between phonemes which are not distinguished or used in the Uzbek language and between falling, rising and level tones.

The problem of articulation, i.e. learning to make the motor movements adequate to proper production of English sounds.

The problem of intonation, i.e. learning to make right stresses, pauses and use appropriate patterns.

The problem of integration, i.e. learning to assemble the phonemes and a connected discourse with the proper allophonic variations (members of a phoneme) in the, months, hard times.

The problem of automaticy, i.e. making correct production so habitual that it does not need to be attended to in the process of speaking.

Consequently, discrimination, articulation, intonation, integration, automaticy are the items that should constitute the content of the teaching of pronunciation.

Absolute correctness is impossible. We cannot expect more than approximate correctness, the correctness that ensures communication.

2. How to teach pronunciation

Pupils assimilate English pronunciation through 1) the acquisition of new sounds, stress, tone-patterns 2) drill in recognition and reproduction new material to acquire pronunciation habits and 3) making use of the pronunciation habits in language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing).

In teaching pronunciation there are at least two *methodological problems* the teacher faces:

To determine the cases where conscious manipulation of the speech organs is required and the cases where simple imitation can or must be used.

To decide on types of exercises and the techniques of using them.

Since imitation can and must take place in FL teaching the teacher's pronunciation should set the standard for the class and the use of native speakers whose voices are recorded on cassettes is quite indispensable.

Teaching a FL in schools begins with teaching pupils to listen to it and speak it that is with the oral introductory course, or the oral approach. The teacher's task is to determine which sound the pupils will find hard to pronounce, which sounds they can

assimilate through imitation and which sounds require explanations of the position of the organs of speech while producing them.

Exercises used for developing pronunciation habits may be of two groups: recognition exercises and reproduction exercises. Recognition exercises are designed for developing pupil's ability to discriminate sounds and sound sequences.

Pupils should have ample practice in listening to be able to acquire the phonic aspect of the language. It can be done:

By listening to the teacher pronouncing a sound, a sound combination and sensible sound sequences.

By listening to the speaker on the recording. This exercise is more difficult for pupils as their auding is not reinforced by visual perception.

Reproduction exercises are designed for developing pupils' pronunciation habits, i.e. their ability to articulate English sounds correctly and to combine sounds into words, phrases and sentences easily enough to be able to speak English and to read aloud in this language. A few minutes at each lesson must be devoted to drilling the sounds which are most difficult for Uzbek-speaking pupils.

The material used for pronunciation drills should be connected with the lesson pupils study. These may be sounds, words, word combinations, phrases, sentences, rhymes, poems, and dialogues. Proverbs and some useful expressions can be used as material for pronunciation drills. It is impossible to overestimate the role that can be played by recording. They:

Allow speech to be reproduced with correct pronunciation and intonation in particular.

Permit the same text to be repeated several times for pupils to have an opportunity to listen to it again and again.

Makes it possible for the teacher to develop his pupils' abilities to understand English spoken at various speeds.

Helps the teacher in developing his pupils' ability to speak.

Give pupils an opportunity to listen to texts read by native speakers.

Conclusion

Pronunciation is a skill that should be developed and perfected throughout the whole course of learning the language that is why the teacher should use pronunciation drill during the lesson, irrespective of the stage of instruction.

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LECTURES 6-7. TEACHING VOCABULARY AND GRAMMAR

List of principal questions:

1. Teaching Vocabulary
    1.1 Importance of Teaching Vocabulary
    1.2 Vocabulary: what should be taught
    1.3 Stages in teaching vocabulary
2. Teaching Grammar
    2.1 The importance of grammar in learning a FL
    2.2 How to teach grammar
    2.3 Types of exercises for the assimilation of grammar

Learning Outcomes
By the end of the session students will have:
- become aware of the importance of teaching vocabulary and grammar in ELT;
- identified main principles of teaching grammar and vocabulary;
- become aware of use of using techniques and methods of teaching grammar and vocabulary.

Materials: handouts, CD, blackboard, power point presentation.

1. Teaching vocabulary

1.1 The importance of teaching vocabulary

Vocabulary is one of the aspects of the language to be taught in school. It is evident that the number of words should be limited because pupils have only two-four periods a week. It depends wholly on the syllabus requirements. The latter is determination by the conditions and methods used. The vocabulary, therefore, must

be carefully selected in accordance with the principles of selecting linguistic material, the conditions of teaching and learning a FL in school.

Principles of selecting vocabulary have been worked out. The words selected should be:

Frequently used in the language.

Easily combined

Unlimited from the point of view of style

Included in the topics the syllabus sets

Valuable from the point of view of word-building.

The number of words and phraseological units the syllabus sets for a pupil to assimilate is 800 words.

The analysis of the words within the foreign language allows us to distinguish the following groups of words: concrete, abstract and structural.

Words denoting concrete things, actions and qualities are easier to learn than words denoting abstract notions. Structural words are the most difficult for Uzbek-speaking pupils. The teacher should bear this in mind when preparing for the vocabulary work during the lesson.

Rules:

Introduce words in sentence patterns in different situations of intercourse.

Present the word as an element, i.e. in a sentence pattern first. Then fix it in the pupils' memory through different exercises in sentence patterns and phrase patterns. In teaching pupils vocabulary to the ear and the organs of speech should take an active part in the assimilation of words. Pupils should have ample practice in hearing words and pronouncing them not only as isolated units but in various sentences in which they occur.

While introducing a word pronounce it yourself in content, ask pupils to pronounce it both individually and in unison in a context, too.

In teaching words it is necessary to establish a memory bond between a new word and those already covered.

1.2 Vocabulary: what should be taught

1. Form: pronunciation and spelling

The learner has to know what a word sounds like (its pronunciation) and what it looks like (its spelling). These are fairly obvious characteristics, and one or the other will be perceived by the learner when encountering the item for the first time. In teaching, we need to make sure that both these aspects are accurately presented and learned.

2. Grammar

The grammar of a new item will need to be taught if this is not obviously covered by general grammatical rules. An item may have an unpredictable change of form in certain grammatical contexts or may have some idiosyncratic way of connecting with other words in sentences; it is important to provide learners with this

information at the same time as we teach the base form. When teaching a new verb, for example, we might give also its past form, if this is irregular *(think, thought),* and we might note if it is transitive or intransitive. Similarly, when teaching a noun, we may wish to present its plural form, if irregular *(mouse, mice],* or draw learners' attention to the fact that it has no plural at all *(advice, information].* We may present verbs such as *want* and *enjoy* together with the verb form that follows them *(want to, enjoy -ing),* or adjectives or verbs together with their following prepositions *(responsible for, remind someone of).*

3. Collocation

The collocations typical of particular items are another factor that makes a particular combination sound 'right' or 'wrong' in a given context. So this is another piece of information about a new item which it may be worth teaching. When introducing words like *decision* and *conclusion,* for example, we may note that you *take* or *make* the one, but usually *come* to the other; similarly, you *throw a ball* but toss *a coin;* you may talk about someone being *dead tired* but it sounds odd to say **dead fatigued.*

Collocations are also often noted in dictionaries, either by providing the whole collocation under one of the head-words, or by a note in parenthesis.

4. Aspects of meaning (1): denotation, connotation, appropriateness

The meaning of a word is primarily what it refers to in the real world, its denotation; this is often the sort of definition that is given in a dictionary. For example, *dog* denotes a kind of animal; more specifically, a common, domestic carnivorous mammal; and both *dank* and *moist* mean slightly wet.

A less obvious component of the meaning of an item is its connotation: the associations, or positive or negative feelings it evokes, which may or may not be indicated in a dictionary definition. The word *dog,* for example, as understood by most British people, has positive connotations of friendship and loyalty; whereas the equivalent in Arabic, as understood by most people in Arab countries has negative associations of dirt and inferiority. Within the English language, *moist* has favourable connotations while *dank* has unfavourable; so that you could describe something as 'pleasantly moist' where 'pleasantly dank' would sound absurd.

A more subtle aspect of meaning that often needs to be taught is whether a particular item is the appropriate one to use in a certain context or not. Thus it is useful for a learner to know that a certain word is very common, or relatively rare, or 'taboo' in polite conversation, or tends to be used in writing but not in speech, or is more suitable for formal than informal discourse, or belongs to a certain dialect. For example, you may know that *weep* is virtually synonymous in denotation with *cry,* but it is more formal, tends to be used in writing more than in speech, and is in general much less common.

5. Aspects of meaning (2): meaning relationships

How the meaning of one item relates to the meaning of others can also be useful in teaching. There are various such relationships: here are some of the main ones.

- Synonyms: items that mean the same, or nearly the same; for example, *bright, clever, smart* may serve as synonyms of *intelligent.*

- Antonyms: items that mean the opposite; *rich* is an antonym of *poor.*

- Hyponyms: items that serve as specific examples of a general concept; *dog, lion, mouse* are hyponyms of *animal.*

- Co-hyponyms or co-ordinates: other items that are the 'same kind of thing'; *red, blue, green* and *brown* are co-ordinates.

- Superordinates: general concepts that 'cover' specific items; *animal* is the superordinate of *dog, lion, mouse.*

- Translation: words or expressions in the learners' mother tongue that are (more or less) equivalent in meaning to the item being taught.

Besides these, there are other, perhaps looser, ways of associating meaning that are useful in teaching. You can, for instance, relate parts to a whole (the relationship between *arm* and *body);* or associate items that are part of the same real-world context *(tractor, farmer, milking* and *irrigate* are all associated with *agriculture].*

All these can be exploited in teaching to clarify the meaning of a new item, or for practice or test materials.

6. Word formation
Vocabulary items, whether one-word or multi-word, can often be broken down into their component 'bits'. Exactly how these bits are put together is another piece of useful information - perhaps mainly for more advanced learners.

You may wish to teach the common prefixes and suffixes: for example, if learners know the meaning of *sub-, un-* and *-able,* this will help them guess the meanings of words like *substandard, ungrateful* and *untranslatable.* They should, however, be warned that in many common words the affixes no longer have any obvious connection with their root meaning (for example, *subject, comfortable].* New combinations using prefixes are not unusual, and the reader or hearer would be expected to gather their meaning from an understanding of their components *(ultra-modern, super-hero).*

Another way vocabulary items are built is by combining two words (two nouns, or a gerund and a noun, or a noun and a verb) to make one item: a single compound word, or two separate, sometimes hyphenated words *(bookcase, follow-up, swimming pool).* Again, new coinages using this kind of combination are very common.

A good modern dictionary should supply much of the information listed in this unit when you look up a specific item.

1.3 Stages in teaching vocabulary

There are two stages in teaching vocabulary: presentation or explanation, retention or consolidation.

The process of learning a word means to the pupils:

Identification of concepts, i.e. learning what the word means.

Pupil's activity for the purpose of retaining the word.

Pupil's activity in using this word in the process of communication in different situations.

Accordingly, the teacher's role in this process is:

To furnish explanation, i.e. to present the word, to get his pupils to identify the concept correctly.

To get them to recall or recognize the word by means of different exercises.

To stimulate pupils to use the words in speech.

Presenting new vocabulary

There are two ways of conveying the meaning of words: direct way and translation. The direct way, is usually used when the words denote things, objects, their qualities, sometimes gestures and movements. It is possible to group them into: visual and verbal (context, synonyms, antonyms, definitions, word-building elements etc.)

The use of the direct way, however, is restricted whenever the teacher is to present words denoting abstract notions he must resort to translation. Pupils are recommended to get to know new words independently; they look them up in the word list at the back of the book or the dictionary.

Retention of words

To attain the desired end pupils must first of all perform various exercises to fix the words in their memory. For this purpose it is necessary to organize pupils work in a way permitting them to approach the new words from many different sides, in many different ways, by means of many different forms of work. Two groups of exercises may be recommended for vocabulary assimilation.

Group 1

Exercises designed for developing pupils' skills in choosing the proper word.

Group 2

Exercises designed to form pupils' skills using the word in sentences.

The desirable relationship between these two groups of exercises should be in the ratio 1:2 that is most of the exercises must be connected with developing pupils' skills in using the words in sentences and in connection with the situations offered.

2. Teaching grammar

2.1 The importance of grammar in learning a FL

Grammar is a reality. A command of the structure of the language of the pupil ensures listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing. In order to understand a language and to express oneself correctly one must assimilate the grammar mechanism of the language studies.

The chief difficulty in learning a new language is that of changing from the grammatical mechanism of the native language to that of the new language.

For example, Uzbek pupils often violate the word order which results in bad mistakes in expressing their thoughts. The English tense system also presents a lot of

trouble t Uzbek-speaking pupils because of the difference which exists in these languages with regard to time and tense relations. The sequence of tenses is another difficult point in English grammar for Uzbek-speaking pupils. There can be given some other examples. The most difficult point of English grammar is the article.

The grammar material may be classified into the following 3 groups:

The grammar phenomena which do not require any explanation since there are similar phenomena in the mother tongue of the pupil.

The grammar phenomena which require corrections (money – is).

The grammar phenomena which are strange for Uzbek-speaking pupils (article, tense, modal verbs).

In teaching grammar, therefore, the teacher should approach to the material differently depending on the difficulties pupils encounter in the assimilating of grammar phenomenon.

The content of teaching grammar since school-leavers are expected to acquire language proficiency in aural comprehension, speaking and reading grammar material should be selected for the purpose. There exist principles of selecting grammar material both for teaching speaking knowledge (active minimum) and for teaching reading knowledge (passive minimum), the main one is the principle of frequency, i.e. how frequently this or that grammar item occurs.

The syllabus and the textbooks present grammar differently. The syllabus emphasizes what to teach and gives it in terms of traditional grammar. The textbook emphasize how to teach and present grammar in sentence patterns, structures.

The amount of grammar material pupils should assimilate in school, and the way it is distributed throughout the course of study, may be found in the syllabus. In teaching grammar the teacher follows the recommendations given in Teacher's Books.

2.2 How to teach grammar

Teaching grammar should be based upon the following principles:

Conscious approach to the teaching of grammar. It implies some rules for the teacher:

Realize the difficulties the sentence pattern presents for your pupils. Comparative analysis of the grammar item in English and in Uzbek or within the English language may be helpful.

Think of the shortest and simplest way for presentation of the new grammar item. Remember the more you speak about the language, the less time is left for practice.

Practical approach to the assimilation of grammar. It means that pupils learn those grammar items which they need for immediate use either in oral or written language. The learner masters grammar through performing various exercises in using a given grammar item. Rule for the teacher:

Teach pupils correct grammar usage and not grammar knowledge.

Structural approach. Grammar items are introduced and drilled in structures or sentence patterns. Structural approach allows the pupil to make up sentences by analogy, to use the same pattern for various situations. Pupils learn sentence patterns and how to use them in oral and written speech. Rule for the teacher:

Furnish pupils with words to change the lexical meaning of the sentence pattern so that pupils will be able to use it in different situations.

Situational approach. Pupils learn a grammar item used in situations. Rule for the teacher:

Select the situations for the particular grammar item you are going to present. Look through the textbook and other teaching materials and find those situations which can ensure comprehension and provide the usage of the item.

Different approach to the teaching of active grammar (for conversation) and passive grammar (for reading). Rule for the teacher:

If the grammar item belongs to those pupils need for conversation, select the oral approach method for teaching. If pupils need the grammar item for reading, start with reading and writing sentences in which the grammar item occurs.

2.3 Types of exercises for the assimilation of grammar

Recognition exercises. Since pupils only observe the new grammar item the situations should be natural and communicative. Recognition exercises are indispensable as pupils retain the grammar material through auditory and visual perception. Auditory and visual memory is at work.

Drill exercises.

Repetitive drill. Pupils pronounce the sentence pattern after the teacher, both individually and in unison. Attention should be drawn to the correct pronunciation of the sentence pattern as a sense unit, as a statement (sounds, stress, and tune).

Substitution. Pupils substitute the words or phrases in a sentence pattern. Pupils substitute the words or phrases in a sentence pattern. Pupils consolidate the grammar item without thinking about it. They think of the words, phrases, but not of the form itself, therefore involuntary memory is at work.

Completion. Pupils complete the sentences the teacher utters looking at the pictures he shows (Mike is…).

Answering the teacher's questions. Drill exercises may be done both orally and in written form. Pupils perform oral exercises during the lesson and written ones at home.

Creative exercises (speech exercise). This type of exercises requires creative work on the part of the learners. These may be :

Making statements either on the picture the teacher shows, or on objects.

Asking questions with a given grammar item.

Speaking about the situation offered by the teacher. (He is opening/has opened the door)

Speaking o a suggested topic. For example, a pupil tells the class what he did yesterday.

Making dialogues using the grammar item covered.

Dramatizing the text read. For example, pupils read the text in persons.

Commenting on a film-strip.

Telling the story.

Translating into English.

Participating in free conversation in which pupils are to use the grammar item.

As to the grammar items pupils need only for reading pupils assimilate them while performing drill exercises and reading texts. This is usually done only in senior grades where the grammar material is not necessarily used in oral language.

All the exercises mentioned above are designed:

To develop pupil's skills in recognizing grammar forms while auding and reading English texts.

To accumulate correct sentence patterns in the pupil's memory which they can reproduce whenever they need these patterns for speaking or writing.

To help the pupils to produce sentences of their own using grammar items necessary for speaking about a situation or a topic offered, or writing an essay on the text heard or an annotation on the text read.

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LECTURE 8: DEVELOPING WRITING SKILLS

Teaching writing

Writing as a skill is very important in teaching and learning a foreign language; it helps pupils to assimilate letters and sounds of the English language, its vocabulary and grammar, and to develop habits and skills in pronunciation, speaking, and reading.

The practical value of writing is great because it can fix patterns of all kinds (graphemes, words, phrases and sentences) in pupils' memory, thus producing a powerful effect on their mind. That is why the school syllabus reads: "Writing is a means of teaching a foreign language." Writing includes penmanship, spelling, and composition. The latter is the aim of learning to write.

Since writing is a complicated skill it should be developed through the formation of habits such as:

(1) the habit of writing letters of the English alphabet;

(2) the habit of converting speech sounds into their symbols — letters and letter combinations;

(3) the habit of correct spelling of words, phrases, and sentences;

(4) the habit of writing various exercises which lead pupils to expressing their thoughts in connection with the task set .

In forming writing habits the following factors are of great importance:

1   Auditory perception of a sound, a word, a phrase, or a sentence, i.e., proper hearing of a sound, a word, a phrase, or a sentence.

2   Articulation of a sound and pronunciation of a word, a phrase, and a sentence by the pupil who writes.

3   Visual perception of letters or letter combinations which stand for sounds.

4   The movements of the muscles of the hand in writing.

The ear, the eye, the muscles and nerves of the throat and tongue, the movements of the muscles of the hand participate in writing. And the last, but not the least, factor which determines progress in formation and development of lasting writing habits is pupils' comprehension of some rules which govern writing in the English language.

Since pupils should be taught penmanship, spelling, and composition it is necessary to know the difficulties Russian pupils find in learning to write English.

The writing of the English letters does not present much trouble because there are a lot of similar letters in both languages. They are a, o, e, n, m, p, c, k, g, x, M, T, H. Only a few letters, such as s, r, i, h, 1, f, b, t, j, I, G, Q, N, etc., may be strange to Russian pupils. Training in penmanship is made easier because our school has adopted the script writing suggested by Marion Richardson in which the capital letters in script have the same form as the printed capital letters. The small letters such as h, b, d, i, k, f, are made without a loop.

Pupils find it difficult to make each stroke continuous when the body of the letter occupies one space, the stem one more space above, the tail one more space below.

The most difficult thing for Russian pupils in learning to write is English spelling.

The spelling system of a language may be based upon the following principles:

1. Historical or conservative principle when spelling reflects the pronunciation of earlier periods in the history of the language. For example, Russian: кого, жил; English: busy, brought, daughter.
2. Morphological principle. In writing a word the morphemic composition of the word is taken into account. For example, in Russian: рыба, рыбка; the root morpheme is рыб; in English: answered, asked; the affixal morpheme is *ed*.
3. Phonetic principle. Spelling reflects the pronunciation. For example, in Russian: бесконечный - безграничный; in English: leg, pot.

One or another of these principles may prevail in any given language. In Russian and German the morphological principle prevails. In French and English the historical or conservative principle dominates (as far as the first 1000 words are concerned). The modern English spelling originated as early as the 15th century and has not been changed since then. The pronunciation has changed greatly during that time. Significant difference in pronunciation and spelling is the result. The same letters in different words are read differently. For example, fat, fate, far, fare.

Different letters or letter combinations in different words are read in the same way: I - eye; rode - road; write - right; tale - tail.

Many letters are pronounced in some words and are mute in other words: build [bild] - suit [sju:t]; laugh [la:f] - brought [bro:t]; help [help] - hour [auə].

The discrepancy that exists in the English language between pronunciation and spelling may be explained by the fact that there are more sounds in the language than there are letters to stand for these sounds. Thus, there are 23 vowel sounds in English and 6 letters to convey them.

In teaching English spelling special attention should be given to the words which present much trouble in this respect. The spelling of the words, for example, *busy*, *daughter*, *language*, *beautiful*, *foreign*, and others, must be assimilated through manifold repetition in their writing and spelling. In conclusion it should be said that it is impossible to master accurate spelling without understanding some laws governing it. Pupils should know:

(1) how to add:

1) *-s* to words ending in *y*: *day - days*, *stay - he stays*, but *city - cities*, *study - he studies*;
2) *-ed* to verbs: *play - played*; *carry - carried*;
3) *-ing* to verbs: *write - writing*; *play - playing*; *stand - standing*;
4) *-er*, *-est* to adjectives in the comparative and the superlative degrees: *clean – cleaner - cleanest; large – larger - largest*;

(2) when the consonant should be doubled: *sit - sitting*; *thin - thinner*; *swim - swimming*;

(3) the main word-building suffixes:

-ful: *use - useful*; *-less*: *use - useless*; and others.

Writing a composition or a letter, which is a kind of a composition where the pupil has to write down his own thoughts, is another problem to be solved. The pupil comes across a lot of difficulties in finding the right words, grammar forms and

structures among the limited material stored up in his memory. The pupil often does not know what to write; he wants good and plentiful ideas which will be within his vocabulary and grammar.

How to teach writing

Teaching writing should be based on such methodological principles as a conscious approach to forming and developing this skill, visualization and activity of pupils. Pupils learn to write letters, words, and sentences in the target language more successfully if they understand what they write, have good patterns to follow, and make several attempts in writing a letter (a word, a sentence) until they are satisfied that the work is well done.

Training in penmanship should proceed by steps.

1. The teacher shows the learners a letter or both a capital and a small letter, for example, *B b*. Special cards may be used for the purpose. On one side of the card the letters are written. On the other side there is a word in which this letter occurs.

2. The teacher shows his pupils how to write the letter. He can use the blackboard. For example, *V* and *W* are made with one continuous zigzag movement. *Q* is made without lifting the pen except for the tail, which is an added stroke. *L* is also made without lifting the pen. The first stroke in *N* is a down-stroke; the pen is not lifted in making the rest of the letter. Care should be taken that *r* is not made to look like a *v*: the branching should occur about two-thirds (*r*) from the bottom of the letter. The same applies to the letters *d* and *b*; *g* and *q*; *q* and *p* which are often confused by pupils. Then the teacher writes a word in which the new letter occurs. For example, *B b*, *bed*.

Whenever the teacher writes on the blackboard he gives some explanations as to how the letter is made, and then how the word is written. His pupils follow the movements of his hand trying to imitate them; they make similar movements with their pens in the air, looking at the blackboard.

Much care should be given to the words whose spelling does not follow the rules, for example, *daughter*, *busy*, *sure*, *usual*, *colonel*, *clerk*, *soldier*, etc. Pupils master the spelling of such words by means of repetitions in writing them.

The teacher shows his pupils how to rely on grammar in spelling the words. The more the pupils get acquainted with grammar, the more will they rely on it in their spelling.

For example, the pupils have learned the plural of nouns in the English language. Now they know that the ending *s* is added, though it sounds either [s] as in *maps* or [z] as in *pens*; in both cases they must write *s*.

In the words *famous*, *continuous* it is necessary to write *ous*, as it is an adjective-forming suffix. In the words *dislike*, *disadvantage* it is necessary to write *i* and not *e* as the negative prefix is *dis*.

Copying applies equally well to the phrase pattern and the sentence pattern with the same purpose to help the memory, for pupils should not be asked to write, at least in the first two years, anything that they do not already know thoroughly through

speech and reading. Every new word, phrase or sentence pattern, after it has been thoroughly learnt, should be practised by copying.

Copying may be carried out both in class and at home.

In copying at home the pupils must be given some additional task preventing them from performing the work mechanically. The following tasks may be suggested:

(a) underline a given letter or letter combination for a certain sound;

(b) underline a certain grammar item;

(c) underline certain words depicting, for example, the names of school things.

The additional work the pupil must perform in copying a text or an exercise makes him pay attention to the sound and meaning of the words. This kind of copying is a good way of ensuring the retention of the material. It must be extensively applied in the junior and in the intermediate stages.

Writing exercises

Dictation. This kind of writing exercise is much more difficult than copying. Some methodologists think that it should never be given as a test to young beginners. "It is a means of fixing of what is already known, not a puzzle in which the teacher tries to defeat the pupil" (F. French). Dictation is a valuable exercise because it trains the ear and the hand as well as the eye: it fixes in the pupil's mind the division of each sentence pattern, because the teacher dictates division by division. For example, *Tom and I / go to school / together*.

Dictations can vary in forms and in the way they are conducted:

(a) *Visual dictation* as a type of written work is intermediate between copying and dictation. The teacher writes a word, or a word combination, or a sentence on the blackboard. The pupils are told to read it and memorize its spelling. Then it is rubbed out and the pupils write it from memory.

(b) *Dictation drill* aims at consolidating linguistic material and preparing pupils for spelling tests. The teacher dictates a sentence. A word with a difficult spelling either is written on the blackboard, or is spelt by one of the pupils. Then the pupils are told to write the sentence. The teacher walks about the class and watches them writing. He asks one of the pupils who has written correctly to go to the blackboard and write the sentence for the other pupils to correct their mistakes if they have any. The dictation drill may be given for 10—12 minutes depending on the grade and the language material.

(c) *Self-dictation*. Pupils are given a text (a rhyme) to learn by heart. After they have learned the text at home the teacher asks them to recite it. Then they are told to write it in their exercise-books from memory. So they dictate it to themselves. This type of written work may be given at junior and intermediate stages.

Writing sentences on a given pattern. This kind of writing exercise is more difficult because pupils choose words they are to use themselves. The following exercises may be suggested:

(a) Substitution: *Nick has a sister*. The pupils should use other words instead of *a sister*.

(b) Completion: *How many ... are there in the room? He came late because ... .*

(c) Extension: *Ann brought some flowers*. (The pupils are expected to use an adjective before *flowers*.)

Practice of this kind can lead pupils to long sentences.

Writing answers to given questions. The question helps the pupil both with the words and with the pattern required for the answer.

The object of every kind of written exercise mentioned above is to develop pupils' spelling in the target language and to fix the linguistic material in their memory and in this way to provide favourable conditions for developing their skills in writing compositions. By composition in this case we mean pupils' expression of their own thoughts in a foreign language in connection with a suggested situation or a topic within the linguistic material previously assimilated in speech and reading. Progress in writing a foreign language is possible on condition that pupils have adequate preparation for writing. This preparation should nearly always be carried out orally, except late at the senior stage when it can be done from books independently as at this stage oral questioning need not precede writing. Writing compositions will not help much in the learning of a new language without careful preparation. If pupils have to rack their brains for something to say, or if they try to express something beyond their powers, the writing may be more harmful than helpful. Preparation may include:

(a) oral questioning with the aim of giving the pupils practice in presenting facts and ideas in the target language;

(b) the use of pictures and other visual aids to provide information for written work;

(c) auding an extract or a story which can stimulate pupils' thought; after auding there should always be some questions on the content;

(d) silent reading which can be used as a source of information for pupils, first, to speak about, and then for writing.

In teaching compositions the following exercises may be suggested:

1. A written reproduction of a story either heard or read. With backward classes most of the words that are habitually misspelt must be written on the blackboard.

2. A description of a picture, an object or a situation. For example:
— Write not less than three sentences about (the object).
— Write five sentences about what you usually do after classes.
— Write four sentences about what you can see in the picture of the room.

3. A descriptive paragraph about a text, or a number of texts on a certain subject. Pupils may be given concrete assignments. For instance:
— Describe the place where the action takes place.
  - Write what you have learned about ...
  -Write what   new and useful information you have found for yourself in this text (these texts).
— Write what the author says about ... using the sentences from the text to prove it.

4. An annotation on the text read. The following assignments may help pupils in this.

— Pick out sentences which express the main idea (ideas) in the text and then cross out those words which are only explanatory in relation to the main idea.

— Abridge text by writing out only topical sentences.

— Write the contents of the text in 3—5 sentences.

5. A composition on a suggested topic. For example, "My family" or "Our town" or "The sports I like best". Pupils should be taught to write a plan first and then to write the story to following the plan.

6. Letter writing. Pupils are usually given a pattern letter in English, which shows the way the English start their letters and end them.

The following assignments may be suggested:

— Write a letter to your friend who lives in another town.

— Write a letter to your parents when you are away from home.

— Write a letter to a boy (a girl) you do not know but you want to be your pen-friend.

In testing pupils' skills in writing the teacher should use those kinds of work pupils get used to and which they can do because they must be well prepared before they are given a test. Every pupil should feel some pride in completing a test and be satisfied with the work done. Tests which result in mistakes are very dangerous. They do no good at all. They do a very great deal of harm because pupils lose interest in the subject and stop working at their English. Indeed, if the results of the test are poor, for example, 50% of the pupils have received low marks, they testify not only to the poor assimilation of the material by the pupils, but to the poor work of the teacher as well. He has given an untimely test. He has not prepared the pupils for the test yet. This is true of all kinds of tests in teaching a foreign language.

In teaching writing the following tests may be recommended to measure pupils' achievements in penmanship, spelling, and composition.

1. The teacher measures his pupils' achievement in making English letters in the right way by asking individuals to write some letters on the blackboard. Or else he may ask the pupils to write some letters which he names in their exercise-books. Then he takes the exercise-books for correction.

1. The teacher measures his pupils' achievement in penmanship and spelling by administering dictation tests or spelling test. The teacher dictates a word, a phrase, or a sentence standing in front of the class for the pupils to hear him well. If the teacher dictates a sentence, it is not recommended to repeat it more than twice. Constant repetition of the sentence prevents pupils from keeping it in memory. If the dictation is based on a text whose sentences are logically connected it is necessary to read the whole text first and then dictate it sentence by sentence. When the pupils are ready with writing, the teacher reads the text once more for them to check it.

The amount of material that might be included in a dictation depends on the form, the stage of teaching, and the character of the material itself.

A spelling test may be given either at the beginning of the lesson, or in the second half of it. Thus, if the teacher handles the class well, it makes no difference when he gives it. If he does not handle the class well enough to hold his pupils' attention, it is better to administer a test in the second half of the class-period, the first half of the class-period being devoted to some other work. Otherwise he will not succeed in making his pupils work well. They will be excited because of the test.

2. The teacher measures his pupils' achievement in composition:
— by asking them to write a few questions on the text;
— by answering questions (the questions are given);
— by making a few statements on the object-picture or a set of pictures given;
— by describing a picture illustrating a situation or topic in written form;
— by writing a few sentences on a suggested topic;
— by giving a written annotation on the text read;
— by writing a descriptive paragraph;
— by writing a letter.

In conclusion, it should be said that everything a pupil writes as a test must be easy for him because he is asked to write only those things which he already knows thoroughly.

It cannot be stressed strongly enough that none of the above types of tasks can be used as tests if the pupils were not taught to do them in the process of learning the target language.

There is one more problem which deals with writing that is the correction of mistakes in pupils' exercise-books.

Modern methodologists believe that the essence of correction lies in the fact that a pupil must realize what mistake he had made and how he must correct it. That is why many teachers and methodologists, hot I) in this country and abroad, consider that the teacher should just mark (underline) a wrong letter, or a form, or a word, etc.

In this way he will make the pupil find the mistake and correct it. Learners must acquire the habit of noticing mistakes in their own writing. This habit can be acquired if pupils are properly trained, if teachers will develop these habits in their
pupils. The training that will help pupils to become aware of their mistakes has to be gradual and continuous. When a pupil is made to find his mistakes and correct them he has to apply his knowledge in spelling, vocabulary, and grammar of the target language and this is far more useful for him than the corrections made by the teacher. The effect of the teacher's corrections on the pupils is usually very small. Therefore pupils should be trained to correct mistakes that have been made. The better the teacher trains his pupils, the less work he will have to do in the marking.

In carrying out the training the following techniques may be recommended.

1. Pupils should read through their own written work before handing it in, and correct any mistakes they can find. The habit of revising written work is a useful one, and every pupil has to acquire it.

2. Pupils can correct the sentences themselves looking at the blackboard where the correct answers to exercises are written.

3. Whenever pupils are writing, the teacher can walk round looking through the work they have done and putting a dot at the end of those lines which contain a mistake. The pupil has to find the mistake and correct it. When the teacher comes round again, he crosses out the dot if the mistake has been corrected, if not, he leaves the dot. This takes very little time, because teachers are usually quick in finding mistakes. With small classes (he teacher can get an exercise almost completely corrected.

4. When written work has to be handed in, the teacher asks his pupils to read through their work and count up the mistakes. They should put down the number at the bottom of the page. Then they correct the mistakes. The teacher might give the class three to five minutes for this work. The exercise-books are then collected and the teacher corrects the mistakes. He puts the number of mistakes he finds at the bottom of the page.

5. The teacher can ask his pupils to change exercise-books with their neighbors. The latter look through the work and try to find the mistakes which have been missed by their friends. They put the new number at the bottom of the page.

Thus the teacher varies the procedure keeping the class guessing about what he will want them to do. With the techniques described above the teacher stimulates his pupils to keep a sharp eye for mistakes and, in this way, develops their ability to notice their mistakes and correct them.

Since writing is a mighty means in learning a foreign language pupils should write both in class and at home. For this they need (1) two exercise-books for class and homework (the teacher collects the exercise-books regularly for correcting mistakes and assigns marks for pupils' work in the exercise-books); (2) a notebook for tests (the teacher keeps the notebooks in class and gives them to the pupils for a test and corrections).

The exercise-books must meet the general school requirements established by unified spelling standards.

LECTURES 9-10. TEACHING RECEPTIVE SKILLS: READING AND LISTENING

List of Principal Questions:

1. 1. Teaching listening
     1.1 Difficulties in listening
     1.2 Guidelines for organizing listening activities
     1.3 Extensive and intensive listening.
     1.4 Types of listening activities
2. Teaching reading

2.1 Reading as a Language Skill
2.2 Types of Reading Exercises

Learning Outcomes

By the end of the session students will have:
- become aware of basics of listening and reading as language skill;
- become aware of main techniques and exercises used in teaching listening and reading;
- identified learner difficulties in teaching listening and reading;

Materials: handouts, CD, blackboard, power point presentation.

1. Teaching listening

The previous chapters dealt with the teaching of various aspects of the language, namely, pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. The knowledge of each of the aspects is of great importance to learners. However, when we say a person knows the language we first of all mean he understands the language spoken and can speak it himself. When we speak about teaching a FL we first of all have in mind teaching it as a means of communication.

        Listening   Dialogue
Oral language <   <
        Speaking   Monologue
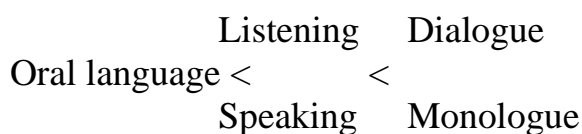
The syllabus requirements for oral language are as follows:

To understand the language spoken

To carry on a conversation and to speak a FL within the topics and linguistic material the syllabus sets.

This is the practical aim of teaching oral language. But oral language is not only an aim in itself; it is also a mighty means of FL instruction.

1.1 Difficulties in listening

When auding a FL pupils should be very attentive and think hard. They should strain their memory and will power to keep the sequence of sounds they hear and to decode it. Not all the pupils can cope with the difficulties entailed. The teacher should help them by making this work easier and more interesting. This is possible on condition that he will take into consideration the following three main factors which can ensure success in developing listening skills.

Linguistic material

The content of the material suggested for listening

Conditions in which the material is presented.

Listening comprehension can be ensured when the teacher uses the material which has already been assimilated by pupils. However this does not completely eliminate the difficulties in auding. Three kinds of difficulties should be overcome: phonetic, lexical, and grammatical: *the horse is slipping (sleeping); they worked (walked) till night; phrasal verbs put on, put off, put down; grammatical homonyms Past Indefinite, Past Participle.*

The content of the material also influences comprehension. The topic of communication should be within the ability of the pupils to understand. Difficulties should be explained (proper names, geographical names, terminology etc.)

Description is more difficult than narration. The pupils' readiness to listen and comprehend is very important. The title of the story may be helpful in comprehending the main idea of the text. Monologic speech is easier.

Conditions of the presenting are of great importance: the speed of the speech, the number of times of presenting the material. Pupils should be taught to listen to the text once. However they sometimes can grasp only 50% of the information and even less, so a second presentation may be helpful. The presence or the absence of the speaker is also an important factor.

Techniques the teacher uses to develop listening skills.

1. Conducting a lesson in a FL gives the teacher an opportunity to develop pupils' abilities in listening, to demonstrate the language as a means of communication, to provide favorable conditions for the assimilation of the language.

The teacher uses drill and speech exercises to develop listening comprehension.

The teacher organizes activities in listening to texts

1.2 Guidelines for organizing listening activities

1. Listening texts

Informal talk. Most listening texts should be based on discourse that is either genuine improvised, spontaneous speech, or at least a fair imitation of it. A typical written text that is read aloud as a basis for classroom listening activity is unlikely to incorporate the characteristics of informal speech and will thus provide the learners with no practice in understanding the most common form of spoken discourse.

Speaker visibility; direct speaker-listener interaction. The fact that in most listening situations the speaker is visible and directly interacting with the listener should make us think twice about the conventional use of audio recordings for listening comprehension exercises. It is useful to the learners if you improvise at least some of the listening texts yourself in their presence (or, if feasible, get another competent speaker of the language to do so). Video also makes a positive contribution to the effectiveness of listening practice, in that it supplies the aspect of speaker visibility and the general visual environment of the text.

Single exposure. If real-life discourse is rarely 'replayed' then learners should be encouraged to develop the ability to extract the information they need from a single hearing. The discourse, therefore, must be redundant enough to provide this information more than once within the original text; and where possible hearers should be able to stop the speaker to request a repeat or explanation.

2. Listening tasks

Expectations. Learners should have in advance some idea about the kind of text they are going to hear. Thus the mere instruction 'Listen to the passage ...' is less useful than something like: 'You are going to hear a husband and wife discussing their plans for the summer ...'. The latter instruction activates learners' relevant

schemata (their own previous knowledge and concepts of facts, scenes, events, etc.) and enables them to use this previous knowledge to build anticipatory 'scaffolding' that will help them understand.

Purpose. Similarly, a listening purpose should be provided by the definition of a pre-set task, which should involve some kind of clear visible or audible response. Thus, rather than say simply: 'Listen and understand ...' we should give a specific instruction such as: 'Listen and find out where the family are going for their summer holidays. Mark the places on your map.' The definition of a purpose enables the listener to listen selectively for significant information - easier, as well as more natural, than trying to understand everything.

Ongoing listener response. Finally, the task should usually involve intermittent responses during the listening; learners should be encouraged to respond to the information they are looking for as they hear it, not to wait to the end.

Listening to texts

Before pupils are invited to listen to the text the teacher should ensure that all the words and grammar are familiar to the pupils. If there are some important words the teacher introduces them beforehand (the words on the board in the sequence they appear in the text). Then the teacher should direct his pupils' attention to what they are going to listen to. This stimulates their thinking and facilitates their comprehension of the text.

Pre-listening tasks stimulate the pupil's attention:

Try to grasp the main idea

Make a plan of the story

Try to finish the story

Pictures can facilitate comprehension. After they have listened, the teacher may ask questions; make statements on the text for pupils to agree or reject them.

1.3 Extensive and intensive listening.

Listening of both kinds is especially important since it provides the perfect opportunity to hear voices other than the teacher's, enables students to acquire good speaking habits as a result of the spoken language they absorb and helps to improve their own pronunciation.

Extensive listening (the teacher encourages students to choose for themselves what they listen to and to do so for pleasure and general language improvement).

Extensive listening will usually take place outside the classroom, material for extensive listening can be found from a number of sources (tapes that accompany different books, songs, video-films).

Intensive listening are taped materials and material on disk. Most coursebooks include tapes and many teachers rely on tapes to provide significant source of language input. The teacher uses taped material at various stages in a sequence of lessons.

1.4 Types of listening activities

1. No overt response

The learners do not have to do anything in response to the listening; however, facial expression and body language often show if they are following or not.

Stories. Tell a joke or real-life anecdote, retell a well-known story, read a story from a book; or play a recording of a story. If the story is well-chosen, learners are likely to be motivated to attend and understand in order to enjoy it.

Songs. Sing a song yourself, or play a recording of one. Note, however, that if no response is required learners may simply enjoy the music without understanding the words.

Entertainment: films, theatre, video. As with stories, if the content is really entertaining (interesting, stimulating, humorous, dramatic) learners will be motivated to make the effort to understand without the need for any further task.

2. Short responses

Obeying instructions. Learners perform actions, or draw shapes or pictures, in response to instructions.

Ticking off items. A list, text or picture is provided: listeners mark or tick off words/components as they hear them within a spoken description, story or simple list of items.

True/false. The listening passage consists of a number of statements, some of which are true and some false (possibly based on material the class has just learnt). Learners write ticks or crosses to indicate whether the statements are right or wrong; or make brief responses ('True!' or 'False!' for example); or they may stay silent if the statements are right, say 'No!' if they are wrong.

Detecting mistakes. The teacher tells a story or describes something the class knows, but with a number of deliberate mistakes or inconsistencies. Listeners raise their hands or call out when they hear something wrong.

Cloze. The listening text has occasional brief gaps, represented by silence or some kind of buzz. Learners write down what they think might be the missing word. Note that if the text is recorded, the gaps have to be much more widely spaced than in a reading one; otherwise there is not enough time to listen, understand, think of the answer, and write. If you are speaking the text yourself, then you can more easily adapt the pace of your speech to the speed of learner responses.

Guessing definitions. The teacher provides brief oral definitions of a person, place, thing, action or whatever; learners write down what they think it is.

Skimming and scanning. A not-too-long listening text is given, improvised or recorded; learners are asked to identify some general topic or information (skimming), or certain limited information (scanning) and note the answer(s). Written questions inviting brief answers may be provided in advance; or a grid, with certain entries missing; or a picture or diagram to be altered or completed.

3. Longer responses

Answering questions. One or more questions demanding fairly full responses are given in advance, to which the listening text provides the answer(s). Because of the relative length of the answers demanded, they are most conveniently given in writing.

Note-taking. Learners take brief notes from a short lecture or talk. Paraphrasing and translating. Learners rewrite the listening text in different words: either in the same language (paraphrase) or in another (translation).

Summarizing. Learners write a brief summary of the content of the listening passage. Long gap-filling. A long gap is left, at the beginning, middle or end of a text; learners guess and write down, or say, what they think might be missing.

4. Extended responses

Here, the listening is only a 'jump-off point' for extended reading, writing or speaking: in other words, these are 'combined skills' activities.

Problem-solving. A problem is described orally; learners discuss how to deal with it, and/or write down a suggested solution.

Interpretation. An extract from a piece of dialogue or monologue is provided, with no previous information; the listeners try to guess from the words, kinds of voices, tone and any other evidence what is going on. At a more sophisticated level, a piece of literature that is suitable for reading aloud (some poetry, for example) can be discussed and analyzed.

2. Teaching reading

2.1 Reading as a Language Skill

Reading is one of the main skills a pupil must acquire in the process of mastering a FL in school. Reading is one of the practical aims of teaching a FL. Reading is of great educational importance. Through reading in a FL the pupil enriches his knowledge of the world around him. He gets acquainted with the countries where the target language is spoken.

Reading develops pupils' intelligence. It helps to develop their memory, will, imagination. Reading is not only an aim in itself; it is also a means of learning a FL. When reading a text, the pupil reviews sounds and letters, vocabulary and grammar, memorizes the spelling of words, the meaning of words and word combinations and in this way he perfects his command of the target language. If the teacher instructs his pupils in good reading and they can read with sufficient fluency and complete comprehension he helps them to acquire speaking and writing skills as well.

There are two ways of reading: aloud and silently. People usually start learning to read orally. In teaching a FL in school both ways should be developed.

When one says that one can read, it means that one can focus one's attention on the meaning and not on the form. A good reader does not look at letters, nor even at words, one by one, however quickly; he takes in the meaning of two, three or four words at a time, in a single moment such reading is the end to be attained.

As a means of teaching reading a system of exercises is widely used in school which includes:

Graphemic-phonemic exercises which help pupils to assimilate graphemic-phonemic correspondence in the English language.

Structural-information exercises which help pupils to carry out lexical and grammar analysis to find the logical subject and predicate in the sentences following the structural signals.

Semantic-communicative exercises which help pupils to get information from the text.

Reading in the English language is one of the most difficult things because there are 26 letters and 146 graphemes which represent 46 phonemes. It is not sufficient to know English letters. It is necessary that pupils should know how this or that vowel, vowel combination, consonant, or consonant combination is read in different positions in the words. The teacher cannot teach pupils all the existing rules and exceptions for reading English words.

The most difficult thing in learning to read is to get information from a sentence or a paragraph on the basis of the knowledge of structural signals and not only the meaning of words. Pupils often ignore grammar and try to understand what they read relying on the knowledge of autonomous words.

Pupils sometimes find it difficult to pick out topical sentences in the text which express the main ideas.

To make the process of reading easier, new words phrases, and sentence patterns should be learnt orally before pupils are asked to read them.

Consequently in order to find the most effective ways of teaching the teacher should know the difficulties pupils may have.

2.2 Types of Reading Exercises

The first group of exercises is designed to develop pupil's ability to associate the graphic symbols with the phonic ones.

Teaching begins with presenting a letter to pupils, or a combination of letters. The use of flash cards and the blackboard is indispensable. The same devices are applied for teaching pupils to read words. In teaching to read transcription is also utilized. It helps the learner to read a word in the cases where the same grapheme stands for different sounds (build, suit).

The second group includes structural-information exercises. They are done both in reading aloud and in silent reading. Pupils are taught how to read sentences, paragraphs, texts correctly. Special attention is given to intonation since it is of great importance to the actual division of sentences, to stressing the logical predicate in them. Marking the text occasionally may be helpful. At an early stage of teaching reading the teacher should read a sentence or a passage to the class himself. When he is sure the pupils understand the passage he can set individual and the class to repeat the sentences after him.

This kind of elementary reading practice should be carried on for a limited number of lessons only. When a class has advanced far enough to be ready for more independent reading, reading in chorus might be decreased, but not eliminated.

Reading aloud as a method of teaching and learning the language should take place in all the forms. This is done with the aim of improving pupils' reading skills.

In reading aloud the teacher uses:

Diagnostic reading (pupils read and he can see their weak points in reading).

Instructive reading (pupils follow the pattern read by the teacher or the speaker).

Control (test) reading (pupils read the text trying to keep as close to the pattern as possible).

Silent reading

Special exercises may be suggested to develop pupils' skills in silent reading.

Teaching silent reading is closely connected with two problems:

1. Instructing pupils to comprehend what they read following some structural signals, the latter is possible provided pupils have certain knowledge of grammar and vocabulary and they can perform lexical and grammatical analysis.

2. Developing pupils' ability in guessing.

Grammar and lexical analysis helps pupils to assimilate structural words, to determine the meaning of a word proceeding from its position in the sentence, to find the meanings of unfamiliar words, and those which seem to be familiar but do not correspond to the structure of the sentence (I saw him book a ticket). Pupils' poor comprehension often results from their poor knowledge of grammar (syntax in particular).

Some examples of tasks:

Read the following sentences and guess the meaning of the words you don't know.

These sentences are too complicated. Break them into shorter sentences.

What is the significance of the tense difference?

The third group of exercises help pupils to get information from the text. To read a text the pupil must possess the ability to grasp the contents of the text. The pupil is to be taught to compare, to contrast, to guess and to foresee events.

Before questions may be very helpful for reading comprehension. They direct the pupil's thought when he reads the text. The teacher instructs pupils how to get information from the text. Communicative exercises are recommended. They are all connected with silent reading. These may be:

Read and say why…

Read and find answers to the following questions

Read the text. Find the words which describe.

Read the text and say what made somebody do something.

Read the text and prove that.

Comprehension may also be checked using the following tasks:

Read and draw.

Find the following information

Correct the following statements

Find the most important sentences in the text.

Some of the assignments may be done in writing.

If the text is easy enough the text uses those techniques which are connected with speaking, with the active use of vocabulary and sentence patterns (asking questions, making up questions, summarizing, discussing).

The work must be carried out in a way which will be of interest to pupils and develop not only their reading ability but their aural comprehension and speaking abilities as well.

If the text is difficult, i.e. if it contains unfamiliar words and grammar items the techniques the teacher uses should be different as intensive work is needed on their part.

The intensive work may be connected with:

Lexical work which helps pupils to deepen and enrich their vocabulary knowledge.

Grammar work which helps pupils to review and systematize their grammar knowledge and enrich it through grammar analysis.

Content analysis.

The exercises are mostly connected with recognition on the part of the learners (find and read, find and analyze, find and translate, answer the questions, read those sentences which you think contain the main information).

Unfortunately, some teachers have a tendency to test instead of teach and they often confine themselves to reading and translating the text. This is a bad practice. The procedure becomes monotonous and the work is ineffective.

Reading texts should meet the following requirements:

Interesting and have something new for the learners.

Deal mostly with the life of people whose language pupils study to achieve the cultural aim.

Be of educational value.

Easy enough for pupils' comprehension to get pleasure from reading.

Should help pupils in enriching their knowledge of the language, in extending so-called potential vocabulary.

While reading pupils are taught to perform the following "acts":

To anticipate the subject of the text. This may be done through the title and skimming are "selective reading"

To search for facts in the text. This is done through before – questions and other assignments phrases and sentences by his own for the purpose. All this results in better comprehension. In this way they are trained to give a summary of the text read.

To interpret the text. Pupils have to acquire necessary habits in interpreting the text (evaluating, giving their opinion).

Further reading on the theme:

1. Adrian Underhill. Sound Foundation. Teaching and Learning Pronunciation.
2. Jim Scrivener. Learning Teaching. Macmillan, 2008.
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LECTURE 11: TEACHING SPEAKING

List of Principal Questions:

1.1 Characteristics of a successful speaking activity
1.2 Problems with speaking activities
1.3 What the teacher can do to help to solve some of the problems
2.1 Speech and oral exercises

Learning Outcomes
By the end of the session students will have:
- become aware of basics of listening and reading as language skill;

Materials: handouts, CD, blackboard, power point presentation.

Speaking a FL is the most difficult part in language learning because pupils need ample practice in speaking to be able to say a few words of their own in connection with a situation. This work is time-consuming.

The stimuli the teacher can use for developing speaking habits are often feeble and artificial. There must be occasions when the pupils feel the necessity to inform someone of something, to explain something and to prove something to someone (situational and communicative approach).

Of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know a language are referred to as 'speakers' of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing; and many if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak.

Classroom activities that develop learners' ability to express themselves through speech would therefore seem an important component of a language course. Yet it is difficult to design and administer such activities; more so, in many ways, than to do so for listening, reading or writing. We shall come on to what the problems are presently, but first let us try to define what is meant by 'an effective speaking activity'.

1.1 Characteristics of a successful speaking activity

1. Learners talk a lot. As much as possible of the period of time allotted to the activity is in fact occupied by learner talk. This may seem obvious, but often most time is taken up with teacher talk or pauses

2. Participation is even. Classroom discussion is not dominated by a minority of talkative participants all get a chance to speak, and contributions are fairly evenly distributed

3. Motivation is high. Learners are eager to speak because they are interested in the topic and have something new to say about it, or because they want to contribute to achieving a task objective

4. Language is of an acceptable level. Learners express themselves in utterances that are relevant, easily comprehensible to each other, and of an acceptable level of language accuracy

In practice, however, few classroom activities succeed in satisfying all the criteria described above.

1.2 Problems with speaking activities

1. Inhibition. Unlike reading, writing and listening activities, speaking requires some degree of real-time exposure to an audience Learners are often inhibited about trying to say things in a foreign language in the classroom worried about making mistakes, fearful of criticism or losing face, or simply shy of the attention that their speech attracts

2. Nothing to say. Even if they are not inhibited, you often hear learners complain that they cannot think of anything to say they have no motive to express themselves beyond the guilty feeling that they should be speaking

3. Low or uneven participation. Only one participant can talk at a time if he or she is to be heard, and in a large group this means that each one will have only very little talking time This problem is compounded by the tendency of some learners to dominate, while others speak very little or not at all

4. Mother-tongue use. In classes where all, or a number of, the learners share the same mother tongue, they may tend to use it because it is easier, because it feels unnatural to speak to one another in a foreign language, and because they feel less 'exposed' if they are speaking their mother tongue If they are talking in small groups it can be quite difficult to get some classes - particularly the less disciplined or motivated ones - to keep to the target language.

The other factor is the fact that the pupil needs words, phrases, sentence patterns and structures stored up in his memory ready to be used for expressing any thought he wants to. In teaching speaking the teacher should stimulate his pupils' speech by supplying them with the subject and grammar they need to speak about the suggested topic or situation. The teacher should lead his pupil to unprepared speaking through prepared speaking.

1.3 What the teacher can do to help to solve some of the problems

1. Use group work

This increases the sheer amount of learner talk going on in a limited period of time and also lowers the inhibitions of learners who are unwilling to speak in front of the full class. It is true that group work means the teacher cannot supervise all learner speech, so that not all utterances will be correct, and learners may occasionally slip into their native language; nevertheless, even taking into consideration occasional mistakes and mother-tongue use, the amount of time remaining for positive, useful oral practice is still likely to be far more than in the full-class set-up.

2. Base the activity on easy language

In general, the level of language needed for a discussion should be **lower** than that used in intensive language-learning activities in the same class: it should be easily recalled and produced by the participants, so that they can speak fluently with the minimum of hesitation. It is a good idea to teach or review essential vocabulary before the activity starts.

3. Make a careful choice of topic and task to stimulate interest

On the whole, the clearer the purpose of the discussion the more motivated participants will be.

4. Give some instruction or training in discussion skills

If the task is based on group discussion then include instructions about participation when introducing it. For example, tell learners to make sure that everyone in the group contributes to the discussion; appoint a chairperson to each group who will regulate participation.

5. Keep students speaking the target language

You might appoint one of the group as monitor, whose job it is to remind participants to use the target language, and perhaps report later to the teacher how well the group managed to keep to it. Even if there is no actual penalty attached, the very awareness that someone is monitoring such lapses helps participants to be more careful.

However, when all is said and done, the best way to keep students speaking the target language is simply to be there yourself as much as possible, reminding them and modelling the language use yourself: there is no substitute for nagging!

Rules for the teacher (principles):

1. Speech must be motivated. It is necessary to think over the motives which make pupils speak. They should have a necessity to speak and not only a desire to get a good mark. *Rule:* ensure conditions in which a pupil will have a desire to say something, to express his thoughts, his feelings.

2. Speech is always addressed to an interlocutor. ***Rule:*** organize the teaching process in a way which allows your pupils to speak to someone, to their classmates in particular. When speaking a pupil should address the class and not the teacher or the ceiling as is often the case. When he retells a text nobody listens to him. The speaker will hold his audience when he says something new. Try to supply pupils with assignments which require individual approach on their part.

3. Speech is always emotionally coloured for a speaker expresses his thought, feelings, and his attitude to what he says. ***Rule***: teach pupils to use intonational means to express their attitude, their feelings about what they say (prove, give your opinion).

4. Speech is always situational for it takes place in a certain situation. ***Rule:*** real and close-to-real situations should be created to stimulate pupils' speech.

2.1 Speech and oral exercises

Speech is a process of communication by means of language examples. Oral exercises are used for the pupils to assimilate phonetics, grammar, and vocabulary (making up sentences following the model). Oral exercises are quite indispensable to developing speech. However, they only prepare pupils for speaking and cannot be considered to be speech.

There are two forms of speaking: monologue and dialogue. In teaching ***monologue*** we can easily distinguish three stages:
1. the statements level
2. the utterance level
3. the discourse level

1. Drill exercises with the sentence pattern (substitution, extension, transformation, completion). When pupils are able to make statements in the FL they may learn to combine statements of various sentence patterns in a logical sequence.

2. Pupils are taught how to use different sentence patterns in an utterance about an object, a subject offered. The pupil's utterance may involve 2-4 sentences which logically follow one another. At this stage pupils learn to express their thoughts, their attitude to what they say using various sentence patterns. Thus, they learn how to put several sentences together in one utterance.

3. After pupils have learned how to say a few sentences in connection with a situation, they are prepared for speaking at discourse level. Free speech is possible provided pupils have acquired habits and skills in making statements and in combining them in a logical sequence. At this level pupils are asked to speak on a picture, a set of pictures, comment on a text, and make up a story of their own.

To develop pupils' skill in ***dialogue*** pupils are taught:
1. how to make responses:

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1) question-response
2) statement-statement
3) statement-question
4) question-question

2. how to begin a dialogue, i.e. to ask questions, to make statements etc.

3. how to carry on a conversation, i.e. to start it, to join a conversation, to confirm, to comment using the following words and expressions: well, look here, I say, you see, do you mean to say, and what about,…to tell the truth, I mean to say…

In acquiring necessary habits in carrying on a conversation pattern-dialogues may be helpful. When a pattern-dialogue is used as a unit of teaching there are three stages in learning a dialogue:

1. Receptive: They listen to the dialogue, then read it silently for better understanding
2. Reproductive: Pupils enact the dialogue. Three kinds of reproduction:

a) Immediate. Pupils reproduce the dialogue in imitation of the speech just after they have heard it. The pupils are asked to learn the dialogue by heart for their homework

b) Delayed. They enact the dialogue on persons. Before calling on pupils it is recommended that they should listen to the dialogue recorded again to remind them of how it sounds.

c) Modified. Pupils enact the dialogue with some modifications in its contents. They change some elements in it. Pupils use their own experience while selecting the words for substitutions.

3. Creative: Pupils make up dialogues of their own. They are given a picture or a verbal situation to talk about.

To make the act of communication easier for the pupils the teacher helps them with "props". The pupil needs props of two kinds: props in content or what to speak about, what to say, and props in form or how to say.

Pupils' speech may be of two kinds prepared and unprepared. It is considered prepared when the pupil has been given time enough to think over its content and form. He can speak on the subject following the plan made either independently at home or in class under the teacher's supervision. His speech will be more or less correct and sufficiently fluent since plenty of preliminary exercises had been done before.

The main objective of the learner, however, is to be able to use the linguistic material in unprepared speech.

1) Speak on the text heard
2) Discuss a problem or problems touched upon in the text read or heard (to compare the system of education)
3) Have an interview with a foreigner (one of the pupils is a Londoner, the classmates ask him various questions and express their opinions on the subjects under discussion)

4) Help a foreigner, e.g. to find the way to the main street, or instruct him as to the places of interest in the town.

There are of course other techniques for stimulating pupil's unprepared speech. In conclusion it should be said that prepared and unprepared speech must be developed simultaneously from the very beginning. The relationship between prepared and unprepared speech should vary depending on the stage of learning the language.

Further reading on the theme:

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3. Жалолов Ж. Чет тил ўқитиш методикаси. – Тошкент, Ўқитувчи. 1996. – 326 б.
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LECTURE 12: ERRORS AND ERROR CORRECTION

When acquiring a foreign language learners make mistakes assuming that their L1 and the L2 work in the same way, i.e.: they encounter many problems due to erroneous concepts.

They are the result of faulty deductions of grammar rules, transfer of learning habits in the L1 that do not match with the L2 and a lack of a proper command of the L2. In addition, learners may also experience various kinds of stressful situations as they have to deal with different areas of the L2, such as grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary.

In order to avoid learners' embarrassment and inhibition that my result in their discouragement to respond to the teacher's input, errors should be regarded as a natural part of the learning process, as a meaningful learning tool and not as an

obstacle that may impede a successful learning experience. Kroll and Schafer (1978) refer to errors as manifestations of the learner's latent linguistic and cognitive procedures.

According to Corder (1967:167)

A learner's errors are significant in three different ways. First to the teacher, in that they tell him how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what still remains to be learned. Second, they provide the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Thirdly, they are indispensable to the learner himself /herself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn.

There are different types of correction techniques the students may get acquainted with throughout their learning process: self-correction, peer correction, group correction and teacher correction. The teacher should choose the one/s that best suit the specific learning situation. More often than not, students' affective filter is high, which makes them oblivious to repairing feedback and thus shelter under a negative attitude that impedes language acquisition problems to be solved.

The classroom atmosphere should be friendly and cooperative in order to prevent learners' negative anxiety, hindrance and increase their self- reliance. The affective impact of error correction on learners depends on their level of proficiency and level of anxiety- the higher, the more negative the impact on the language acquisition process. In other words, aiming to diminish the tension provoked by error correction, positive and constructive comments should be provided to encourage learners to become risk- takers.

Krashen (2009:66) argues that "Methods and materials should not be a test of the student's abilities, should not merely reveal weaknesses, but should help the student to acquire more". Hence, students may not be „on the defensive' and may attempt to communicate without fear of making faulty productions. For example, elicitation and repetition are techniques the teacher uses during the learner's oral production when he/she expects a more complete answer from the latter or repeats the student's idea so that he/she can realise that something has to be reframed. When correcting the written work the teacher may focus on a certain grammar point, for instance present simple tense, narrowing the scope of the different types of mistakes. Therefore, the teacher may help the learner to concentrate on that specific grammar point and may have more time to evaluate the errors made and the learner is corrected privately, without experimenting the annoyance and embarrassment of being corrected in front of the whole group.

Referring to the expected teacher's feedback , Long (as cited in Brown, 2001: 290) also points out the importance of considering errors and mistakes positively stating that At the moment of providing corrective feedback, the teacher should recognize the importance of the error to the current pedagogical focus on the lesson, the teacher's perception of the chance of eliciting correct performance from the student if negative feedback is given, and so on. Teacher classroom feedback to

students should give them the message that mistakes are not „bad' but that most mistakes are good indicators that innate acquisition abilities are alive and well. Mistakes are often indicators of aspects of the new language that are still developing.

Nevertheless, it cannot be ignored that, no matter how well intentioned the teacher's feedback may be, if the student rejects the idea of being corrected, it will not be effective at all. In other words, the teacher will succeed in his/her attempt to correct his/her student only if the latter is open minded to acknowledge his/her weaknesses and accepts the feedback provided.

Kathleen Bailey (as cited in Brown, 2001: 291) recommends the following taxonomy to deal with error treatment. The selection and use of a combination of any option and a suitable possible feature depends on the group of students and the different moments of the teaching situation:

Basic Options
1- To treat or to ignore
2- To treat immediately or to delay
3- To transfer treatment (to say, to other learners) or not
4- To transfer to another individual, a subgroup, or the whole class
5- To return, or not, to the original error maker after treatment
6- To permit other learners to trigger treatment
7- To test for the efficacy of the treatment

Possible Features
1- Fact of error indicated
2- Location indicated
3- Opportunity for new attempt given
4- Model provided
5- Error type indicted
6- Remedy indicated
7- Improvement indicated
8- Praise indicated

1.2 WHY DO LEARNERS MAKE ERRORS?

According to Brown (2001:66)

The native language of learners exerts a strong influence on the acquisition of the target language system. While that native system will exercise both facilitating and interfering effects on the production and comprehension of the new language, the interfering effects are likely to be the most salient. Learner's errors give signals of an underlying system at work. Errors are, in fact, windows to a learner's internalized understanding of the second language, and therefore they give teachers something observable to react on. Errors of the native language interference may be repaired by acquainting the learner with the native language cause of the error.

In the view of Brown (2001:67) "Second language learners tend to go through a systematic or quasi-systematic developmental process as they progress to full competence in the target language. Successful interlanguage development is partially a result of utilizing feedback from others".

The Common European Framework of Reference for Language Learning (2004:155) states that

Errors are due to an interlanguage, a simplified or distorted representation of the target language. Learners unconsciously process, analyse and reorganize their interlanguage, so it is not fixed because it develops and progresses as they learn more.

In other words, errors occur when the student, in an effort to use the target language, tries to employ rules from his L1 to the L2- the correct use/ form of a target item does not reflect the speaker/writer's skilful use of the language. They are made only by the learners of the L2 and not by the native speakers. In this way error correction helps learners to become aware of the existing gap between both languages.

Errors are constant and usually show that learners are learning and that their internal mental processes are working on and experimenting with the L2. They provide researchers corroboration of how learners learn and acquire the language, as well as what strategies or proceedings they use in their finding of the target language Mistakes are the result of the writer/speaker's tiredness and stress. Although the correct use/form of a target item belongs to the learners' competence, mistakes are observable and acknowledged and the learners may make use of the self-correction technique. Mc Arthur (1992:381-383) states that "mistakes are a misapprehension of meaning or a fault in execution". Accordingly, he provides the following classification of mistakes:

Competence mistakes (sometimes technically called errors), that arise from ignorance of or ineptness in using a language, and performance mistakes (technically, mistakes), where one knows what to say or write but through tiredness, emotion, nervousness, or some other pressure makes a slip of the tongue, leaves out a word, or mistype a letter.

LECTURE 13: INTEGRATING SKILLS

List of Principal Questions:
  1.1 Importance of Skills Integration
  1.2 Types of integrated-skills instruction.
  1.3 Integrating reading with other activities.
  1.4 The use of the project method for integrated-skills development.
Learning Outcomes
By the end of the session students will have:
  • become aware of importance of integrating language skills in language education;
Materials: handouts, CD, blackboard, power point presentation.

1.1 Importance of Skills Integration

The principles of integration (integration of different disciplines, technology integration, skills integration etc.) have been widely used in education as the main purpose of higher educational establishments is to facilitate forming a well-developed person and a highly skilled specialist. Integration can be defined as an act or instance of incorporating or combining into a whole [4]. In foreign language teaching an integrated approach, which deals with the development of main language skills interdependently, is typically considered to be an outgrowth of communicative method. Communicative language teaching is defined as an approach to the teaching of languages that emphasizes interaction and is based on the idea that the goal of learning a language is to gain communicative competency [7, p. 66]. According to this method, real-life situations are modeled during the lesson and students acquire four main skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) in the process of communication and interaction. The employment of the method makes studying process interesting and motivating unlike traditional approaches based on unreflective memorizing of rules and lexical items. Students work with language material for communicative tasks solving aimed at achieving purposes and intentions of communication [8, p. 39]. Some of the distinctive features of communicative language learning are the following: effective communication and comprehensible pronunciation are sought; communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e. the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately); intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated [7, p. 67-68]. An integrated-skills approach also implies language acquisition in the process of communication. Students practise their speaking, listening, reading and writing skills while interacting with each other, like in the every-day life. The use of the method seems quite logical as language skills are not isolated in reality. Consequently, segregated-skills language instruction may appear unnatural and inefficient. Thus, the choice of classroom activities is of vital importance as it should be aimed at the development of four language skills in conjunction.

1.2 Types of integrated-skills instruction.

Different tasks can be offered to students depending on the type of integrated-skills teaching method. At present, the models for integrated teaching with a communicative focus include an extensive array of curricula and types of instructional models, such as content-based, task-based, text based (also called genre based), discourse based, project based, problem based, literature based, literacy based, community based, competency based, or standards based and the list can be continued [3, p. 113]. Two main types commonly described are content-based language instruction and task-based instruction [6]. In content-based instruction, all the language skills are practiced in a highly integrated, communicative manner in the process of studying some content such as science, or physics. This method can be applied at any level of proficiency, but the topic will vary by proficiency level. Content-based instruction in its turn falls into three models which are known as

☐ theme-based (students practice integrated skills focusing on one topic, e.g. *Education*, *Travelling* etc., which must be interesting for them);

☐ adjunct (characterized by the coordination of learning language and content);

☐ sheltered (students acquire knowledge about some subject in language they learn in a simplified manner to suit their proficiency level) [6].

Exercises offered to students might involve the discussion of the topic and preparation of projects.

Task-based learning engages students in interaction while participating in communicative tasks. The classroom activities might include problem-solving, exchanging personal information and other tasks which require understanding, reflecting and interacting in real-life situations.

The abovementioned activities can be beneficial for both students and a teacher, since the integrated-skills approach offers a series of advantages: it is highly motivating due to the fact that learners improve skills and acquire knowledge they will definitely use in their future life and career. Students learn to interact and communicate using these skills, while the teacher can see their progress in multiple skills and decide which aspect should be paid more attention. The method can be successfully applied for students of different ages and backgrounds.

1.3 Integrating reading with other activities.

The main criterion for choosing activities for students is that they should be communicative and involve multiple, integrated skills. E. Hinkel points out that in order to make language learning as realistic as possible, integrated instruction has to address a range of language skills simultaneously, all of which are requisite in communication. Thus, teaching reading can be easily tied to instruction on writing and vocabulary, and oral skills readily lend themselves to teaching pronunciation, listening and cross-cultural pragmatics [3, p. 113]. For instance, listening to teacher's assignment to read the text in English, students employ their listening abilities. Then they might read the text and do exercises in pairs or small groups discussing the content and thereby using their reading and speaking skills. And finally learners can be asked to write summary or an essay to the related topic which helps develop writing skills. It should be noted that integrating reading with other activities can be an effective tool for integrated-skills learning. Reading offers the largest number of opportunities for language skills integration. Reading aloud, discussing the text, answering the questions and making up dialogues directly connect reading with listening and speaking. Writing summaries and performing exercises or speculating about the text in written form are examples of reading and writing integration.

In teaching English for specific purposes most lessons are commonly based on the texts related to students' future profession. Hence, special attention should be paid to choosing the reading material. Selecting texts for students a teacher should consider the following aspects:

☐ text authenticity (which provides connection to the world outside the classroom and shows how the real language is used);

☐ an appropriate difficulty level (which is determined by such factors, as presence of unfamiliar vocabulary, technical terms, syntactic structure of the text, complexity of ideas etc). Students' language proficiency level is to be taken into account. The text should not be too easy or too difficult, offering an appropriate level of challenge; otherwise students might be bored or intimidated.

☐ manageable length;

☐ culture familiarity and content (the text must be interesting and profession-related, thus motivating students to read and learn).

In some cases allowing students to choose texts can be a good idea. It helps to personalize learning process and might contribute to students' autonomy and responsibility. Having chosen the right materials a teacher should consider text-based activities. Traditional reading comprehension exercises are multiple choice questions, true-false sentences, filling the gaps etc. However reading practice exercises can also be utilized to develop students' abilities to get the gist of the text (e.g. identify the main idea); to search for the logical links and cause-and-effect relationships (e.g. make up a plan to the text, find key words, give the headings to the paragraphs); to make comparison and contrasts; to voice their opinion and show attitude to the information in the text (e.g. evaluate the events or ideas in the text, give your own definition to the phenomenon, find more information to the topic and be ready to discuss it) etc. [10, p. 58]. The tasks listed above obviously not only enhance students' reading ability and fluency, but also facilitate the development of other language skills since the exercises can be done orally or in written form, individually or in pairs. Interesting and creative tasks can be motivating and thus become effective means of learning. The researchers recommend using comprehension strategies which help learners appreciate the text. These could be reflected in the following tasks: predict the plot of the text; comment on a passage or sentence; make a poster; put down questions and answers; speculate about information gaps; read/ write a review; write a letter; provide your own ending; give opinions about the text etc. [5, p. 30]. Not in all cases, however, can all of these activities be employed. Teaching English for specific purposes, for instance, is usually limited to the use of technical or profession-related literature which hardly boosts students' creativity. The project approach can compensate for the restrictions.

1.4 The use of the project method for integrated-skills development.

The project approach has been used for a long time in education and is a widely recognized methodology today. Project Based Learning can be defined as a teaching method in which students gain knowledge and skills by working for an extended period of time to investigate and respond to a complex question, problem, or challenge [1]. It originated from supported by John Dewey experiential learning, or learning by doing, which implies that students obtain and reinforce their knowledge when they practically implement it. The advantages and main principles of project-based learning were first described in detail by W. Kilpatrick. Nowadays, researchers highlight the following characteristic features of the approach:

a) promotion of manual activity instead of memorization and verbalism,

b) learners' active participation in the learning process, and

c) exploitation of facts relating to the immediate reality as a source for learning [2, p. 113]. The project method is being increasingly used in teaching a foreign language to learners of various ages and proficiency levels. The approach engages students in the organized cooperative work carried out independently which requires students to implement their knowledge for solving a problem or achieving an objective. Students work on a project, which is usually a long-term assignment, using the language they are learning. Projects can be of different topics, related to various knowledge fields and the results may be presented in diverse forms. A variety of project types was suggested by Ye. Polat, who classifies them according to:

☐ the main kind of activity (research, search, creative, role-played, applied etc.);

☐ the subject area (super-subject, inter-subject, mono-subject);

☐ the type of coordination (with direct coordination, with indirect coordination);

☐ the type of contacts (among the participants of one school, city, region or country);

☐ the number of participants (group, pair, individual)

☐ the duration [11, p. 43].

Despite the fact that projects can vary in complexity, subject and scope, any project work is conducted in several stages. Each of them engages students in communication and interaction and therefore promotes language skills integration. L. Miedviedieva describes four main stages of project implementation [9, p. 133]. The first stage is the preparatory one. It includes choice of the topic, putting students in sub-groups, assigning responsibilities, giving instructions to students and determining deadlines as well as assessment criteria. This stage requires the use of listening and speaking skills. If the project is text-based or book-based, students are to choose an author or a book during this phase. However, searching for literature, collecting information, processing and arranging it takes place during the second stage – the stage of conducting the project activities and performing tasks aimed at language skills development. The role of teacher here is to consult and guide as well as make sure the learners are exposed to the authentic materials and are able to make use of them. At this stage members of each group conduct research and discuss all issues related to the project. Reading, writing, listening and speaking are highly integrated at this stage which also prepares students to the next phase. It is during the third stage that students present the results of their work. The presentation phase helps students to reveal their creative potential and introduce the project (e.g. the one based on the text) in the form of Power Point Presentation; poster, drawn or created with the help of computer (picture, scheme, chart, table); presentation of the performance, dialogue modeling real-life situation; video etc. The last stage is the concluding one, at which the project results are discussed, analyzed and evaluated. As I. Fragoulis fairly points out, "evaluation refers to the assessment of the activities from participants and discussion about whether the initial aims and goals have been achieved,

implementation of the process, and final products. Evaluation also entails assessment of the experience at individual and group level, identification of errors and problems, but also appraisal of the rich cognitive and experiential material gathered. Evaluation includes evaluation from others, as well as self-evaluation" [2, p. 115]. In the course of conducting project work students undoubtedly use their integrated language skills.

Project-based learning keeps its leading position among other methods of language teaching due to the considerable advantages it offers. The main of them are as follows:

 the method enhances the development of reading, writing, speaking and listening skills in an integrated manner;

 it teaches students to work with authentic and up-to-date materials and to search them in various sources;

 being an interesting and motivating way of gaining knowledge, it raises the efficiency of the whole studying process;

 it gives students a possibility to apply their knowledge from other subject areas, therefore practicing and reinforcing the skills acquired during the lessons of different disciplines;

 the approach teaches the students to collaborate, improves interpersonal relationships in the group and helps to eliminate the barriers between students and a teacher and thus creates a positive classroom atmosphere. It also facilitates the development of the communication skills, such as teamwork, ethics and social responsibility, self-direction, oral and written communication, leadership, critical thinking, problem solving etc.;

 it encourages students to be self-disciplined and autonomous;

 it helps stimulate students' creativity and imagination.

The mentioned advantages clearly demonstrate an essential role of the method in foreign language instruction. Applying the project approach, every teacher will find it beneficial and add new advantages to the list. Though the organization and conducting of the project work might be time-consuming and seem difficult first, it will definitely bring positive results.

Further reading on the theme:

1. Adrian Underhill. Sound Foundation. Teaching and Learning Pronunciation.
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Lecture 14: Planning Lessons and Courses

List of Principal Questions:
1.1 The necessity for planning
1.2 Unit planning
1.3 Planning a class period

Learning Outcomes

By the end of the session students will have:

* become aware of basics of planning lessons and courses;

Materials: handouts, CD, blackboard, power point presentation.

1.1 The necessity for planning

You know that teaching and learning a foreign language is ensured: 1) through methods and techniques, i. e. acquisition of new information about a linguistic or language phenomenon to acquire some knowledge; drill and transformation to form habits on the material presented; making use of the habits acquired in various language skills. The choice of techniques for realizing each of the methods is determined by the principles which govern teaching and learning this subject in schools nowadays; 2) with the help of various teaching aids and teaching materials now in use; 3) by means of different arrangements of pupils' language learning: work in unison, mass work, work in small groups, in pairs, individual work with programmed materials and individual cards; 4) taking into consideration the stage of instruction, pupils' age, their progress in language learning, their intellectual development, the linguistic and language material, time the teacher has at his disposal. All these points answer the question how to teach and to learn this subject.

To utilize all these points effectively systematic and careful planning is necessary.

The foreign language teacher plans all the kinds of work he is to do: he plans the essential course, the optional course (if any), and the extra-curricular work.

The first step in planning is to determine where each of his classes is in respect to achievements. It is easy for the teacher to start planning when he receives beginners.

Though the teacher does not know his pupils yet, his success will fully depend on his preparation for the lessons since pupils are usually eager to learn a foreign language in the 4th form (or the 2nd form in a specialized school). Planning is also

relatively easy for the teacher who worked in these classes the previous year (or years) because he knows the achievements of his pupils in each class. He is aware of what language skills they have acquired. Planning is more difficult when the teacher receives a class (classes) from another teacher and he does not know the pupils, their proficiency in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing.

The teacher begins his planning before school opens and during the first week. He should establish the achievement level of his classes. There is a variety of ways in which this may be done. The teacher asks the previous teacher to tell him about each of the pupils. He may also look through the pupils' test-books and the register to find out what mark each of his pupils had the previous year. The teacher may administer pre-tests, either formally or informally, to see how pupils do with them. He may also conduct an informal quizzing, asking pupils questions in the foreign language to know if they can understand them and respond properly, or he has a conversation within the topics of the previous year. After the teacher has determined the achievement level of his classes, he sketches out an outline of the year's work. In making up his yearly outline the teacher consults the syllabus, Teacher's Book, Pupil's Book, and other teaching materials and sets seems to him to be realistic limits to the content to be covered during the course of the tear. In sketching out an outline of the term's work the teacher makes a careful study of Teacher's Book, Pupil's Book, teaching aids and teaching materials available for this particular form. Taking into consideration the achievements of his class, he complies a calendar plan in accordance with the time-table of a given form.

1.2 Unit planning

The teacher needs two kinds of plans to work successfully: the plan of a series of class-periods for a lesson or unit of the textbook or a unit plan, and the daily plan or the lesson plan for a particular class-period.

In compiling a unit plan, i. e., in planning the lesson of the textbook, the teacher determines the difficulties of the lesson, namely, phonetic difficulties (sounds, stress, intonation); grammar difficulties (grammar items, their character and amount), and vocabulary difficulties (the amount of new words, their character).

He then distributes these difficulties evenly over the number of class-periods allotted to the lesson in the calendar plan.

1. The teacher starts by stating the objective or objectives of each class-period, that is, what can be achieved in a classroom lesson. Of course the long-term aims of the course help the teacher to ensure that every particular lesson is pulling in the right direction and is another step towards gaining the ultimate goals of the course. "To help the class to speak English better", "To teach pupils to and" or "To develop pupils' proficiency in reading" cannot be the objectives of the lesson because they are too abstract to be clear to the learners. The lesson objectives should be stated as precisely as possible.

Pupils coming to the lesson should know what they are to do during the lesson, what performance level is required of them, and how it can be achieved. There are a few examples:

- Teach pupils to understand the following words … when hearing and to use them in sentences orally.
- Teach pupils to form new words with the help of the following suffixes … and to use them in the situations given.
- Teach pupils to consult a dictionary to look up the meaning of the following words ... .
- Teach pupils to recognize the international words ... when hearing (or reading).
- Teach pupils to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context while reading text " ...".
- Teach pupils to understand the statements in the Present Perfect and to use them in the following situations ... .
- Teach pupils to ask and answer questions in the Present Perfect and to make up dialogues following the models ... .
- Teach pupils to find the logical predicate in the sentences ... while reading following the structural signals.
- Teach pupils to speak about the following objects ... ... on utterance level (in a few sentences).
- Teach pupils to use the words and grammar covered in speaking about the places of interest in our town.
- Teach pupils to find topical sentences while reading text "..." silently.
- Teach pupils to get the main information while reading text "...".

The teacher can state no more than three concrete objectives for a particular class-period depending on the stage of instruction, the material of the lesson, and some other factors.

2. The teacher distributes the linguistic material (sounds, words, grammar, etc.) throughout the class-periods according to the objectives of each period, trying to teach new vocabulary on the grammatical material familiar to pupils, and to teach a new grammar item within the vocabulary assimilated by pupils; or he first teaches pupils hearing and speaking on the new material presented, and then pupils use this in reading and writing.

3. The teacher selects and distributes exercises for class and homework using various teaching aids and teaching materials depending on the objectives of each class-period. For example, for developing his pupils' skill in dialogic speech within the material covered the teacher needs a record with a pattern dialogue, word cards for changing the semantic meaning of the pattern dialogue to make the structure of the dialogue fit new situations.

In distributing exercises throughout the class-periods the teacher should involve his pupils in oral practice and speech, in oral and silent reading, and in writing. Exercises which are difficult for pupils should be done under the teacher's supervision, i. e., in class. Those exercises which pupils can easily perform

independently are left for homework. In other words, new techniques, exercises, and skills should be practiced in class before the pupil attempts them at home. The homework done, the pupils return to class for perfecting, polishing, expanding, and varying what they have practiced at home, they learn to use the new words, the new structures in varied situations.

When the teacher determines the pupil's homework he should take into account that the subject he is teaching though important and difficult is not the only one the pupil learns at school. The realities of schools militate against more than 20-30 minutes of every day homework in a foreign language. This requires the teacher to teach in class rather than test. Practice proves that pupils do their homework provided they know exactly what to do, how it should be done, and that their work will be evaluated. Besides, pupils should know that six twenty-minutes' work at their English on consecutive days is more effective than two hours at a stretch.

The unit plan, therefore, involves everything the teacher needs for the detailed planning of a lesson (class-period), namely: the objective (objectives) of each lesson, the material to work at, and the exercises which should be done both during the class-period and at home to develop pupils' habits and skills in the target language.

The unit plan includes nine columns:
1. The number of class-periods.
2. The objectives of each period.
3. Language material.
4 – 7. Language skills.
8. Accessories.
9. Homework.

The importance of unit plans cannot be overestimated since unit planning permits the teacher to direct the development of all language skills on the basis of the new linguistic material the lesson involves. He can lead his pupils from reception through pattern practice to creative exercises, and in this way perfect their proficiency in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. He can vary teaching aids and teaching materials within the class-periods allotted to the lesson. Unit planning allows the teacher to concentrate pupils' attention on one or two language skills during the lesson; in this case the class hour is divided into two main parts: a period of 20—25 minutes, during which he takes his pupils through a series of structural drills or other exercises supplied by the textbook, and a period of 20—25 minutes during which the teacher engages the class in creative exercises when they use the target language as a means of communication.

The teacher should bear in mind that pupils lose all interest in a language that is presented to them by means of endless repetitions, pattern practices, substitutions, and so on, and which they cannot use in its main function of exchange of information through hearing or reading. That is why, whenever possible, the teacher should make his pupils values of his pupils aware of the immediate values of his lesson if he hopes to keep and stimulate their interest in language learning which is very important in itself. When a pupil is convinced that learning is vital, he is usually willing to work

hard to acquire a good knowledge of the target language. It is well known that some pupils see little value in much of their school work in a foreign language and feel no enthusiasm for their work at the language. Careful unit planning helps the teacher to keep pupils' progress in language learning under constant control and use teaching aids and teaching materials more effectively and, in this way, make his classes worthwhile to all of his pupils.

All this should be done by the teacher if there are no teacher's books to the textbooks. If there are such books the teacher's planning should deal with

(1) the study of the author's recommendations;

(2) the development of these recommendations according to his pupils' abilities.

The teacher tries to adapt the plan to his pupils. He may either take it as it is and strictly follow the authors' recommendations, or he may change it a bit. For instance, if he has a group of bright pupils who can easily assimilate the material, the teacher utilizes all the exercises involved in Pupil's Book and include some additional material or stimuli pictures, objects for the pupils' speaking within the same class-periods. If the teacher has a group of slow pupils, he needs at least one more period to cover the material, he also omits some exercises in Pupil's Book with asterisk designed for those pupils who want to have more practice in the target language. The teacher may also increase the number of oral exercises and give pupils special cards to work on individually and in pairs.

Given below are the examples of plans the teacher can find in Teacher's Book.

In *Fourth Form English Teacher's Book* by A. P. Starkov, R. R. Dixon, M. D. Rybakov the material is distributed throughout the terms, and within the term – the weeks and class-periods. The plan includes nine columns:

Week	Class-period	Oral language					Reading	Writing
		Phonetics	Auding		Speaking			
			Gram.	Vocab.	Gram.	Vocab.		

Looking through the plan the teacher can see that auding is the most important skill that should be developed in pupils in this form. They can aud more than they can speak. In the first term pupils learn to aud and to speak. As far as reading and writing are concerned, pupils learn the English alphabet and English penmanship.

The plan in *Ninth Form English Teacher's Book* is:

Week	Class	Class work			Home work	Gramma
		Au	Speaking	Reading		

			Revision of topic	New topic	Exercises	Newspaper	Exercises	Text	Writing	

The plan manifests the importance of planning pupils' work in the classroom and at home. The teacher can see that in the classroom he should develop pupils speaking, and auding skills. As to reading, pupils develop this skill at home reading various texts and performing oral and written exercises connected with the texts. The teacher can also see what topics should be reviewed and what topics are new for his pupils. He can also find a new column in the plan "Newspaper reading". It means pupils should be taught to work with this type of texts. There is a column in the plan dealing with grammar. Pupils should review grammar in a certain system.

The teacher therefore thoroughly studies the plans in Teacher's Books and adapts them to his pupils.

1.3 Planning a class period

The unit plan completed the teacher may move into planning a class-period or a daily plan which, in addition to what has been determined by the unit plan, indicates the ways the teacher will follow to organize his class to work during he lesson. Therefore the daily plan includes

(1) what should be achieved during this particular lesson;

(2) what material is used for achieving the objectives;

(3) how the objectives should be achieved.

Since almost every teacher has several classes of one level he usually makes preparations for each level although, ideally, a separate plan is needed for each class because classes proceed at different speed, thus he must make adaptations in his plans to compensate for varying speeds of progress in the classes of the same level.

The teacher should write his daily plans if he strives for effective and reasonable use of time allotted to his pupils' learning a foreign language. However some teachers, including novice teachers, do not prepare written plans. They claim that they can teach "off the top of their heads", and they really can, but their teaching usually results in poor pupils' language skills because in this case we have, "teacher-dominated" classes when the teacher works hard during the lesson while his pupils remain mere "observers" of the procedure. Indeed, when the teacher is standing in front of pupils he does not have much time to think how to organize his pupils' activity. This should be done before the lesson for the teacher to be able to stimulate and direct pupils' learning the language.

We may state that the effectiveness of pupils' desired learning is fully dependent on the teacher's preparation for the lessons. If the teacher is talking, reading, and writing a great deal himself during the lesson, he is not ready for it. And vice versa, if the teacher gets his pupils to talk or read with communicative assignments while he

listens, or to write while he moves about the class, giving a helping hand to everyone who needs it, he has thoroughly thought over the plan of the lesson beforehand. Therefore we may conclude: to provide necessary conditions for pupils' learning a foreign language, the teacher should thoroughly plan their work during the lesson which is possible if he writes his daily plan in advance.

There are teachers who strictly follow the textbook and accept plans that others have made for them without any changing. In doing this they overlook the unique capacities of their particular classes. They race through the textbook covering the ground regardless of whether pupils master each section.

Some experienced teachers assume that the content of foreign language teaching is constant and as they have worked for many years they do not need daily plans; they have them in their minds. In reality, however, the content changes continuously as well as the methods and techniques of teaching. Moreover, the old plans which are in their minds may not suit the needs of a particular class, since each group of pupils is unique, or they may no longer be applicable because better and more effective teaching aids and teaching materials have appeared. Consequently, proceeding from these considerations the teacher needs a daily plan to provide a high level of language learning of his pupils.

To involve all pupils in the work done in the classroom the teacher should compile a kind of scenario in which every pupil has his role, while the teacher only stimulates and directs his pupils' role-playing. In any case, a workable form for a daily plan should state the objectives, specify the activities, include evaluation techniques, indicate the assignment, and determine teaching aids and teaching materials. The plan itself should

(1) be brief, but with sufficient detail to be precise;
(2) assign a definite number of minutes to each activity;
(3) indicate exactly what words, phrases, facts, items are to be learnt and how;
(4) make use of a variety of classroom activity for every pupil.

In the organization and conduct of a foreign language lesson there is always a wide range of possibilities. No two teachers will treat the same topic in the same way. There are, however, certain basic principles of teaching and learning which should be observed:

1. Every lesson should begin with a greeting in the foreign language and a brief talk between the teacher and the pupils. Through this conversation the lesson may be motivated. The conversation may take place between:

Teacher — Class

Teacher — Pupil on duty

Pupil on duty — Class

Two Pupils on duty

The foreign language should be used for all common classroom activities; the teacher manages the class activities by giving directions in the foreign language. He stimulates pupils' participation by asking questions, praises and encourages pupils

from time to time, and he may also criticize the behavior of a pupil or a class if necessary.

2. There should be a variety of activities at every lesson, including pronunciation drill, oral activities, reading, and writing. The success of activity is measured by attention, enthusiasm, and involvement on the part of the pupils.

3. The lesson should be conducted at a high speed when oral drill exercises are performed. Pupils should not stand up to say a word, a phrase, or a sentence.

4. The lesson should provide a certain sequence in pupils' assimilating language material and developing habits and skills from perception, comprehension, and memorizing, through the usage in a similar situation following a model, to the usage of the material received in new situations that require thinking on the part of the learner.

5. The lesson should provide time, for the activity of every pupil in the class. They must be active participants of the procedure and not the teacher as is often the case when the teacher talks more than all the pupils.

6. The lesson should provide conditions for pupils to learn. "Language is a skill so it must be learnt, it cannot be taught" (M. West). A certain amount of time should be devoted to seatwork as opposed to activities involving the class as a whole. During seatwork and other forms of solitary study pupils learn to learn for themselves. The use of language laboratories, teaching machines, and programmed instruction creates conditions for each pupil to learn for himself.

7. The work done during the lesson should prepare pupils for their independent work at home. It is generally accepted as good practice not to assign exercises that have not been covered in class; this especially refers to early stages of language learning.

8. The lesson should be well equipped with teaching aids and teaching materials which allow the teacher to create natural situations for developing pupils' hearing and speaking skills in a foreign language.

In *Teacher's Book* the teacher can find daily plans which differ greatly in form from conventional plans. For example, the author A. P. Starkov and his coauthors do not determine the objectives of each class-period and the points of the lesson (session) in a traditional way when the object of planning was rather teacher's work than pupils' activity. They plan pupils' work for each particular class-period. Pupils should pass through a number of "steps", each designed for forming a particular habit or involving them in a certain language activity. Since there are a lot of habits and skills to be formed and developed in pupils, a daily plan comprises a great number of "steps".

Further reading on the theme:

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LECTURE 15: MONITORING AND ASSESSING LEARNING

List of Principal Questions:
   1.1 The relationship between assessment and correction
   1.2 Approaches to the giving of feedback
   1.3 Correcting mistakes in oral work
   2.1 Tests and Testing
   2.2 Types of tests

Learning Outcomes
By the end of the sessions learners will have learned the benefits of assessing and monitoring learning and will have known the types and forms of assessing and testing learners.

Materials: handouts, CD, blackboard, power point presentation.

   In the context of teaching in general, feedback is information that is given to the learner about his or her performance of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance. Some examples in language teaching:
the words 'Yes, right!', said to a learner who has answered a question; a grade of 70% on an exam; a raised eyebrow in response to a mistake in grammar; comments written in the margin of an essay.

   Feedback has two main distinguishable components: assessment and correction. In assessment, the learner is simply informed how well or badly he or she has performed. A percentage grade on an exam would be one example; or the response 'No' to an attempted answer to a question in class; or a comment such as 'Fair' at the end of a written assignment. In correction, some specific information is provided on

aspects of the learner's performance: through explanation, or provision of better or other alternatives, or through elicitation of these from the learner. Note that in principle correction can and should include information on what the learner did **right,** as well as wrong, am why! - but teachers and learners generally understand the term as referring to the correction of mistakes, so that is (usually) how it is used here.

1.1 The relationship between assessment and correction

It is, of course, perfectly possible to give assessment without correcting, as when a final percentage mark on an exam is made known to a learner without the exam itself being returned or commented on. The other way round is very much less feasible: it is virtually impossible to comment on what is right or wrong in what a learner has done without conveying some kind of assessment. If a correction is supplied, the learner is very aware that this means the teacher thinks something was wrong; if comment is given on why something was appropriate, there is necessarily an underlying message of commendation.

Teachers are sometimes urged to be 'non-judgemental' when giving feedback. Although any meaningful feedback is going to involve some kind of judgement It is more useful, perhaps, to accept that there is judgement involved, but to try to make the attitude to this more positive: that mistakes are a natural and useful part of language learning; that when the teacher gives feedback on them, the purpose is to help and promote learning; and that 'getting it wrong' is not 'bad', but rather a way into 'getting it 'right'.

1.2 Approaches to the giving of feedback

Below you will find expressions of selected opinions on the nature and functions of assessment and mistake correction; these are based on different theories of language learning or methodologies

Assessment: different opinions

Audio-lingualism

Negative assessment is to be avoided as far as possible since it functions as 'punishment' and may inhibit or discourage learning. Positive assessment provides reinforcement of correct responses, and promotes learning.

Humanistic methodologies

A crucial function of the giving of assessment is to preserve and promote a positive self-image of the learner as a person and language learner. Assessment therefore should be positive or non-judgemental.

Skill theory

For successful acquisition of a skill, the learner needs feedback on how well he or she is doing; hence the importance of the provision of constant and honest assessment

The correction of mistakes: different opinions

Audio-lingualism

Learner mistakes are, in principle, avoided by the limiting of progress to very small, controlled steps: hence there should be little need for correction. The latter is, in any case, not useful for learning; people learn by getting things right in the first place and having their performance reinforced.

Cognitive code-learning

Mistakes are regrettable, but an unavoidable part of learning; they should be corrected whenever they occur to prevent them occurring again.

Intel-language

Mistakes are not regrettable, but an integral and important part of language learning;

correcting them is a way of bringing the learner's 'intwerlanguage' closer to the target language.

Communicative approach

Not all mistakes need to be corrected; the main aim of language learning is to receive and convey meaningful messages, and correction should be focused on mistakes that interfere with this aim, not on inaccuracies of usage.

Monitor theory

Correction does not contribute to real acquisition of the language, but only to the learner's conscious 'monitoring' of speech or writing. Hence the main activity of the teacher should be to provide comprehensible input from which the learner can acquire language, not to correct.

Assessment

Most of the feedback we give our learners is ongoing correction and assessment directed at specific bits of learner-produced language with the aim of bringing about improvement; the type of evaluation involved here is sometimes called 'formative', since its main purpose is to 'form': to enhance, not conclude, a process. Distinct from this is the evaluation usually termed 'summative', when the teacher evaluates an overall aspect of the learner's knowledge in order to summarize the situation: how proficient he or she is at a certain point in time, for example, or how much he or she has progressed during a particular course. Summative evaluation may contribute little or nothing to the ongoing

Teaching/learning process; but it is a part of the teacher's job, something we need to know how to do effectively.

Below are descriptions of various ways of gathering the information which will serve as a basis for assessment, and of some common criteria used for assessing it.

Gathering information (1): Tests

The most common way of gathering information for assessment is through tests; the usual criterion is an arbitrary level which the learner is expected to have reached; and the result is generally expressed through percentages.

Gathering information (2): Other sources

There, are, however, various problems with tests as a basis for summative evaluation: they are a one-off event which may not necessarily give a fair sample of the learner's overall proficiency; they are not always valid (actually testing what they say they are) or reliable (giving consistent results); and if they are seen as the sole basis for a crucial evaluation in the learner's career, they can be extremely stressful.

Other options do, however, exist. These are summarized below.

1. Teacher's assessment. The teacher gives a subjective estimate of the learner's overall performance.

2. Continuous assessment. The final grade is some kind of combination of the grades the learner received for various assignments during the course.

3. Self-assessment. The learners themselves evaluate their own performance, using clear criteria and weighting systems agreed on beforehand.

4. Portfolio. The learner gathers a collection of assignments and projects done over a long period into a file; and this portfolio provides the basis for evaluation.

Criteria

Having collected the 'evidence' of the learners' proficiency in one or more of the ways described above, the teacher has to decide how good it is? The following are some of the possibilities.

1. Criterion-referenced: how well the learner is performing relative to a fixed criterion, where this is based on an estimation of what it is reasonable or desirable to demand from learners at the relevant point in their development (age, career, level, stage of a course).

2. Norm-referenced: how well the learner is performing relative to the group. In this case, a group of slow learners would be assessed according to different, easier, norms than a group of faster ones.

3. Individual-referenced: how well the learner is performing relative to his or her own previous performance, or relative to an estimate of his or her individual ability.
What criteria do/would you yourself use in assessing learners' performance? Would you combine different criteria? Would you take into account learners' effort, motivation and progress in deciding on a final grade?

1.3 **Correcting mistakes in oral work**

There are some situations where we might prefer not to correct a learner's mistake: in fluency work, for example, when the learner is in mid-speech, and to correct would disturb and discourage more than help. But there are other situations when correction is likely to be helpful.

The recommendation not to correct a learner during fluent speech is in principle a valid one, but perhaps an over-simplification. There can be places where to refrain from providing an acceptable form where the speaker is obviously uneasy or 'floundering' can actually be demoralizing, and gentle, supportive intervention can help. Conversely, even where the emphasis is on getting the language right, we may not always correct: in a grammar exercise, for example, if the learner has contributed an interesting or personal piece of information that does not happen to use the target form; also, when they have got most of an item right we may prefer not to draw attention to a relatively trivial mistake.

Oral corrections are usually provided directly by the teacher; but they may also be elicited from the learner who made the mistake in the first place, or by another member of the class. Corrections may or may not include a clarification of why the mistake was made, and may or may not require re-production of the acceptable form by the learner.

As important as what the correction consists of is **how** it is expressed: gently or assertively, supportively or as a condemnation, tactfully or rudely. On the whole, of course, we should go for encouraging, tactful correction; but it is less easy to generalize about gently/assertively: some learner populations respond better to the one, some to the other. In general, in fact, learner responses to different expressions of feedback are often surprising: a teacher correction that seems to an observer a humiliating 'put-down' may not be perceived as such by the learner to whom it was addressed; or an apparently gentle, tactful one may give offence. A good deal of teacher sensitivity is needed here.

2.1 Tests and Testing

People vary very widely in their reactions to tests. Some like the sense of challenge; others find it unpleasant. Some perform at their best under test conditions, others perform badly.

Thus, it would be a mistake to come out with sweeping statements like: 'People get very stressed when they are tested', or 'Tests are unpopular'. The amount of unpleasant stress associated with a test depends on various factors, at least some of which may be under the control of the teacher: how well the learners are prepared for it and how confident they feel of success; what rewards and penalties are associated with success or failure (how important the results are perceived to be); how clear the test items are; how easy the test is as a whole; how often such tests are given; and so on.

2.2 **Types of tests**

1. Questions and answers

These can be used to test almost anything. The more 'closed' the question is (that is, the fewer the possible options for correct answers), the easier the item will be to mark. It is fairly easy to compose and grade closed-ended questions; more open, thought-provoking ones are more difficult, but may actually test better.

2. True/false

This does not directly test writing or speaking abilities: only listening or reading. It may be used to test aspects of language such as vocabulary, grammar, content of a reading or listening passage. It is fairly easy to design; it is also easy to administer, whether orally or in writing, and to mark.

3. Multiple-choice

This may be used for the same testing purposes as true/false items; it does test rather more thoroughly since it offers more optional answers and is obviously very easy to mark. It is administered more conveniently through writing; but note that since the reading of the question-and-options is fairly time-consuming, the process of comprehension of the actual question items may take more time and effort than the point ostensibly tested, which raises problems of validity. Another important problem is that good multiple-choice questions are surprisingly difficult to design: they often come out ambiguous, or with no clear right answer, or with their solutions over-obvious. They are to be approached with caution!

4. Gap-filling and completion

This usually tests grammar or vocabulary, as in the examples. It is tedious to compose, though not so difficult as multiple-choice; it is more easily administered in writing than in speech; the marking is usually simple. You may need to be aware that there is more than one possible right answer.

5. Matching

This usually tests vocabulary, and is rather awkward to administer orally: thus it is best presented written on the board or on paper, though responses may be either oral or in writing. Items can be time-consuming and difficult to compose, and again, there may be alternative 'right' answers to any particular item. Answers are fairly easily checked.

6. Dictation

This mainly tests spelling, perhaps punctuation, and, perhaps surprisingly on the face of it, listening comprehension: people can only usually write words down accurately from dictation if they understand them. It does not, however, test other writing skills or speech, and involves very little reading. It may supply some information on testees' passive knowledge of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. It is very easy to prepare and administer; it is relatively easy to mark, though there may be a problem deciding how much weight to attribute to different mistakes.

7. Cloze

This tests (intensive) reading, spelling, and to some extent knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. It can be adapted to 'target' specific language items, by, for example, omitting all the verbs (in which case it is not, strictly speaking, 'cloze', but rather 'gap-filling'). It is fairly easy to prepare and administer. Marking can be tricky: you may find it difficult sometimes to decide if a specific item is 'acceptable' or not.

8. Transformation

This item is relatively easy to design, administer and mark, but its validity may be suspect. It tests the ability of the testee to transform grammatical structures, which is not the same as testing grammar: a testee may perform well on transformation items without knowing the meaning of the target structure or how to use it in context. Marking is fairly straightforward.

9. Rewriting

This tests the same sort of thing as transformation, but is likely to reflect more thorough knowledge of the target items, since it involves paraphrasing the entire meaning of a sentence rather than transforming a particular item. It is, however, more difficult to compose, and the marking may be more subjective. It is, as its name suggests, usually done in writing.

10. Translation

A technique which, at the time of writing, is for various reasons rather unpopular, but in my opinion undeservedly so. In a monolingual class whose teacher also speaks the learners' mother tongue, the translation of a 'bit' of language to or from the target language can give very quick and reliable information on what the testee does or does

not know, particularly when it involves entire units of meaning (phrases, sentences) within a known context. Translation items are also relatively easy to compose - even improvise, in an informal test - and administer, in either speech or writing. Marking may sometimes be more difficult, but not prohibitively so.

11.Essay

This is a good test of general writing abilities. It is relatively easy to provide a topic and tell the class to write an essay about it but marking is extremely difficult and time-consuming. It must be clear in advance, both to you and to the students, how much emphasis you are going to lay on language forms, such as spelling, grammar, punctuation, and how much on aspects of content, such as interest and originality of ideas, effectiveness of expression, organization

12. Monologue

This tests oral fluency in 'long turns' - something not everyone can do in their mother tongue! It also tests overall knowledge of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. To choose a topic and allot it is not so difficult; to assess is very difficult indeed, demanding concentration and a very clear set of criteria and weighting system.

Stages in testing. Below are given some recommendations of an experienced teacher how to organize testing.

Before the test

I use the period leading up to the test in order to do all I can to ensure that my students will succeed in it. Thus the tests are announced at least a week in advance in order to give them plenty of time to prepare and details are given of when, where and how long the test will be. The class is also told as precisely as possible what material is to be tested, what sort of items will be used, and how answers will be assessed. I sometimes give them 'test-tips' - for example, how best to allot time, or what to do first - particularly if they are coming near to the state school-leaving exam, for which my course is to some extent a preparation. I usually allow at least some class time for revision, in order to encourage and help with pre-test learning.

Giving the test

It is quite important for me to administer the test myself, and more pleasant for my students. Thus, I will be able, if I wish, to remind them about the test content, format and marking system before giving out the papers; and sometimes run through the instructions with them after doing so in order to make sure that everything is clear - as well as wishing them good luck!

During the test, I may help students who still have difficulty with instructions; I do not normally help with the content itself.

After the test

The tests are marked and returned as quickly as possible (within a week) so that we can discuss specific points while the test is still fresh in the students' minds. Usually I will go through the answers in class, but fairly briskly; points that seem to produce special problems I note for more leisurely re-presentation and further practice in the future. I do not usually ask students to copy out corrected answers: this is, I think,

more tedious than helpful for them. It is better and more interesting to provide the practice in the same language points in other activities, using new content and tasks.

Further reading on the theme:

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LECTURE 1: TEACHING AND LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN UZBEKISTAN

Lecture Outline:
1.1 Foreign Languages Teaching Reforms in Uzbekistan
1.2 Introduction of the CEFR in Uzbekistan
1.3 Overview of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

1.1 Foreign Languages Teaching Reforms in Uzbekistan

The end of 1990's and beginning of 2000's marked a new era in foreign languages teaching in Uzbekistan when all stakeholders including teachers, students, schools, colleges, and universities started to feel that they were ready for change in the way foreign languages were taught and learned. Nevertheless, there was uncertainty on how these changes would be implemented, what kind of changes should be introduced, who would be the initiator of the changes and what people's reactions would be to the changes in the education sector (Jalolov 2013). The reason for uncertainty was due to the fact that for almost a century Uzbekistan was under the Soviet Union and there was not held any consistent reforms in foreign language teaching (Jalolov 2013).

The reforms in foreign language teaching in Uzbekistan mainly touched upon teaching English language in all levels and stages of education.

The start of incorporating English language teaching into the education system of Uzbekistan started in 1932 (Hasanova, 2007). Nevertheless, teaching and learning of English as well as other foreign languages were carried out in secondary schools at the beginning of the fifth grade when learners were at the age of 12 (Hasanova, 2007). Hasanova (2007, p4) states that most of the lessons in 1930's-1990's were held mainly in student-centered approach and classes were mainly dedicated to the study and analysis of grammatical rules, analytical reading, and grammar translation exercises. In addition according to Bereday and Pennar (in Shafiyeva and Kennedy, 2010) in the Soviet Union, grammar-translation method was justified by the dominating political system.

Gulyamova, Irgasheva and Bolitho (2014, p45) outlining the reasons for the problem state that in most cases in teaching foreign languages there was a "…tendency for the country's institutions to remain sealed off from foreign influences, particularly those from the West, …" and "These deficiencies were passed

on from generation to generation of Uzbek English teachers, all steeped in a Soviet-rooted version of the Grammar-Translation method, and reliant on outdated textbooks".

In 1991 when Uzbekistan gained independence from the Soviet Union, great attention has been paid to the reforms in education sector, especially in the area of teaching and learning foreign languages (Jalolov 2013). However, foreign language teaching methods and approaches remained the same as in Soviet era for at least two decades. According to Hasanova (2008) foreign language teachers, especially English teachers were exposed to modern approaches to ELT as communicative language teaching in the early 1990's. However, "continued lack of financial support and insufficient teacher training made CLT more a topic of discussion rather than an approach being implemented in many Uzbek classrooms" (Hasanova 2008, p139).

In the beginning of 2000's there was launched an extensive baseline study which covered all 12 regions of Uzbekistan. The baseline study aimed at defining areas in English language teaching as well as teaching other foreign languages that needed to be reformed. The baseline study was carried out in universities and in-service teacher training institutions across 12 regions of Uzbekistan and consisted of interviews, questionnaire surveys which were held among English language teachers, education authorities, recent graduates of foreign language teacher training courses (Mamatov, 2009).

British Council Uzbekistan became the leading international organization in assisting the reforms (Mamatov 2009).

The baseline research carried out by the British Council in cooperation with the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education of the Republic of Uzbekistan provided quality data on the areas that needs change. According Hoshimov (2008) the challenges which were exposed in the baseline research was the need to make state educational standards, curricula and other educational documents responsive to the needs of teachers and language learners, to align national educational standards with those of international standards and make a shift from teacher-centered classroom to learner-centered classroom where language learners are provided with more autonomy in learning and to link foreign language teacher education programs in Uzbekistan to international standards.

1.2 Introduction of the CEFR in Uzbekistan

Prior to the introduction of the National Educational Standard for Continuing Education System on Foreign Languages (Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Uzbekistan, 2013), which is based on the Common European Framework of

Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR, Council of Europe 2001) there was inconsistency and lack of continuity in educational standards. There was not a single document which outlined the aims and outcomes of teaching and learning English in all levels and stages of education. For instance, educational standard for secondary stage of education outlined aims and outcomes of learning foreign languages for students who attended school from 5th grade to 9th grade (State Educational Standard and Syllabus, 2010), state educational standard for secondary specialized education outlined aims and outcomes of teaching and learning foreign languages for students and teachers who attended colleges and academic lyceums from 1st to 3rd year (State Educational Standard and Syllabus, 2001). In this manner all educational standards were separated from each other according to their content, aims, and outcomes. Moreover, there were repetitions in themes and topics to be taught in each academic year. For example, students who attended schools from the 5th grade started learning English alphabet whereas students who started studies at college or academic lyceum level or even university level started learning English with its alphabet and grammatical system. In addition, the curriculum and syllabus mainly stressed on teaching grammar and translation practice.

Thus, analysis of the system of teaching and learning foreign languages carried out by the group of experts from Uzbekistan State University of World Languages, Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education, and Ministry of Public Education reveled that the former curricula on foreign language teaching, standards for different levels of education were not efficient in terms of finance and effort (Irisqulov 2015). Therefore, it was decided to develop and implement totally new concept of national standards which could provide continuity and consistency of teaching foreign languages in all levels of education system. And at this point the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) played as the main framework to be adopted in developing the national standard.

Table 2.2.1 (REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN, Cabinet of Ministers 2013) illustrates the characteristics of the present national educational standard for foreign languages and its alignment features with the CEFR.

Stage of Education	Graduates	CEFR	Name of the Level
General	Primary (4th grade) level graduates	A1	Beginner level of foreign language learning

Secondary Education	9th grade graduates	A2	Basic level of foreign language learning
	9th grade graduates of school specializing in foreign languages learning	A2+	Reinforced basic level of foreign language learning
Secondary specialized and vocational education	Graduates of non-specialized academic lyceums	B1	Independent beginner level of foreign language learning
	Vocational colleges		
	Graduates of academic lyceums specializing in foreign language teaching (second foreign language)		
	Graduates of academic lyceums specializing in foreign languages	B1+	Reinforced independent beginner level of foreign language learning
Higher education	Baccalaureate level graduates of non-specialized faculties	B2	Independent communication level of foreign language learning
	Master level graduates of non-specialized faculties		
	Baccalaureate level graduates of faculties specializing in foreign language teaching (second foreign language)		
	Baccalaureate level graduates of faculties specializing in foreign language teaching	C1	Proficient level of foreign language learning
	Master level graduates of faculties specializing in foreign language teaching		

Table 2.2.1 Stages of teaching and learning foreign languages according to the new national standard based on the CEFR

As it was mentioned in the previous paragraph the implementation of a new project on the development of the national curricula and standard on the teaching and learning of foreign languages was started along with the project aiming at the reform of PRESETT and INSETT system of Uzbekistan. According to Irisqulov (2015) adoption and implementation of the new standard was a requirement of time and started a new era in the whole system of foreign languages learning in Uzbekistan.

2.3 Overview of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, which is commonly referred as CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) is considered as an innovative language policy document designed and developed by the language policy division of the Council of Europe in the 1990s. It was published online in 1996 and in 2001 it was introduced in a paper version. The document "provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc." (Council of Europe, 2001 p1). Initially the document was developed to ease language learning and facilitate mobility of citizen within European countries. Later on, subsequently the document gained worldwide recognition as a language education policy document to help aligning the language assessment levels across educational stages and institutions. Since its gaining popularity around world the CEFR document has been translated into 39 languages and has been used and/or referred by a number of countries around the world for the development and introduction of foreign language policies (Figueras, 2012; Martyniuk and Noijons, 2007).

As it is declared by the Council of Europe the main purpose of the CEFR is the alignment of language learning, teaching, assessment and testing and ultimately guarantee correlation of learning outcomes across languages, contexts and countries. That is to say, the document is considered to act as a tool that can "be used to analyze L2 learners' needs, specify L2 learning goals, guide the development of L2 learning materials and activities, and provide orientation for the assessment of L2 learning outcomes" (Little, 2006, p167), and in coherent and comprehensible way. The CEFR 1 - depicts competencies language learners need to form to be an effective language user; 2 – it suggests sets of "can do" descriptors that point out what learners can do when they reach a certain competency in a definite proficiency level; 3 – it offers instructional guiding principles on how to teach and assess learners competencies; 4 - it offers a common reference level scales for the comparability and recognition of language competences across contexts and countries.

Through the equipment of users with a common methodology and metalanguage for teaching, learning and assessing language competencies, the CEFR document facilitates cooperation among various educational institutions and educational and other stakeholders around the world, moreover, providing easier mobility opportunities for professionals and common citizens across countries (Council of Europe, 2001).

Goullier (2007) and North (2007) suggest that the CEFR is a descriptive document, rather than a prescriptive document. In other words it refers and can be used with all languages and its primary goal is to enhance language practitioners' reflections on their specific educational and geographical contexts, language learners and language teaching objectives.

According to North (2007, p. 656) the CEFR is defined as a "concertina-like reference tool, not an instrument to be applied". Therefore, it should be referred, consulted and adapted depending on the needs and realities of a definite local area rather than blindly followed as a set of concrete unchangeable and discrete rules.

LECTURE 2: TEACHING YOUNG LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN THE CONTEXT OF UZBEKISTAN'S EDUCATION SYSTEM

Lecture Outline:
1. Young Learners
1.1 Advantages of Learning English in Primary Stage of Education
1.2 Challenges of Learning English Language in Primary Stage of Education
2. Developing Listening and Speaking Skills of YL in the Classroom
2.1 Context and Learners
2.2 Listening and Speaking versus Young Learners
2.3 The Ways of Teaching Speaking and Listening to YL
2.3.1 Listen and Do Activities
2.3.2 Total Physical Response
2.3.3 Dialogues and Role Play
3. Language Policies in Uzbekistan and Their Impact on TEYL

1. Young Learners

Children begin to learn foreign languages in different ages and circumstances. Therefore, first of all, it is necessary to distinguish age differences in defining YL. Since there is a distinction between what children of the age of six can do and what children of the age of eleven can do, Scott and Ytreberg (1990) suggest the division of YL into two distinctive groups.

First group comprises children between the age of 5 and 7. Slattery and Willis (2005) also define this group as 'very young learners'.

The second group comprises children of the ages between 8 and 10 (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). Children who belong to this group, according to Slattery and Willis (2005), are termed as 'young learners'. Undoubtedly, differences between these two groups are very large. Therefore, language teachers need to be aware of the peculiarities of a definite age group and adapt their teaching methods, techniques and styles according to the characteristics of the group.

Eliis (2014) proposes consensus in defining the term young learner for the sake of ELT professionals. According to her observations still there is a misunderstanding in defining the term. She suggests to adopt terms used in educational systems that young learners belong to (Ellis, 2014). Thus, the age group that comprises children between the ages of 6-11 is termed as 'young learners, kids, primary, juniors and tweens' (Ellis, 2014). In the context of Uzbekistan's education system young learners of the ages between 6, 7 to 11 are called 'primary school pupils'.

1.1 Advantages of Learning English in Primary Stage of Education

Although it is hard to prove the superiority of young learners in learning a foreign language (Cook, 2008), a lot of research show that age plays a crucial role in the effective learning of languages. However, many studies carried out in this area suggest that younger learners learn some aspects of a foreign language such as pronunciation and listening better, while some areas, especially grammar, and vocabulary acquired slowly (Lynne, 2001). According to Lynne (2001) pronunciation and listening skills are acquired effectively in naturalistic setting whereas in classroom settings they are not effectively developed. Moreover, younger learners tend to acquire more native like accents, whereas for adult learners it is difficult to get rid of their mother tongue accent in L2 speech (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). Therefore, in the early years of education it is effective to emphasize on teaching speaking and listening rather than on writing and reading.

In addition, younger learners possess such advantages in language acquisition as brain plasticity, weaker group identity, less analytical thinking, and simplified input (Saville-Troike, 2012).

1.2 Challenges of Learning English Language in Primary Stage of Education

Apart from the fact that younger learners are good language learners in informal and naturalistic contexts (Saville-Troike, 2012), there are also challenges that young learners and their teachers may face in language classroom contexts.

Saville-Troike (2012) claims that younger learners possess weaker brain capacity, which does not allow them to learn vocabulary of a foreign language effectively. Other disadvantages that younger learners may have include lack of L1 knowledge, shorter attention span, less world knowledge and analytical skills (Saville-Troike, 2012). In L2 classroom these disadvantages may cause several challenges for language teachers. First, primary school learners start learning grammar of their mother tongue in later grades. For instance, in the context of Uzbek public schools pupils are introduced with the grammar of L1 starting from grade 2, whereas learning a foreign language starts in grade 1, which does not allow a learner to transfer knowledge of L1 to L2 learning.

Second, the fact that children have shorter attention span requires from a teacher to develop shorter activities that do not overload YL. Moreover, teachers have to design activities which do not employ grammatical and lexical rules as YL tend to be less analytical.

2. Developing Listening and Speaking Skills of YL in the Classroom
2.1 Context and Learners

The teaching context for the discussion is the first grade pupils in public schools of Uzbekistan.

Most of the pupils in primary schools are monolingual learners with few or no previous experience of learning foreign languages, as most of the kindergartens and nursery schools do not provide foreign languages instruction. Average class size of first graders in Uzbek schools is 25 to 28 pupils and English language classes are conducted by dividing the class into two small groups of 12 to 14 pupils. According to the results of recent research conducted by Blatchford (2007), class size has a great impact on the efficiency of teaching English to YL of 7 to 11 age group. As Blatchford (2007, p168) points out that small class size provides individualized teaching, makes it easier to control the classroom, and allows more time for marking, assessments and planning, and less teacher stress. The division of classes into small groups has been widely practiced in public schools and other educational institutions across Uzbekistan since the Soviet period. However, due to the lack of EFL teachers there are schools that can not afford class division, especially in rural areas.

According to national curriculum of public schools, first graders or primary class learners have 2 hours of English lessons every week, academic year averaging 33 weeks in total.

2.2 Listening and Speaking versus Young Learners

Tompkins (2002) argues that listening is an important skill for YL and it is assumed that about 50 per cent of classroom time involves listening. It is true that in naturalistic language learning context the main source of language input and output is through listening and speaking. In classroom settings spoken language prevails over written language, especially in primary stages of language education. Listening and speaking are both active use of language (Cameron, 2001). According Cameron (2001) unlike reading and writing, prevailing element in spoken language is meaning, by speaking children try to transfer their meaning and by listening they try to understand others' meaning. Therefore, children strive to build meaning through interacting with others which takes place in the form of listening and speaking in the early years of development. Next, Cameron (2001) explains that children's desire to communicate is a drive to speaking.

Teaching speaking and listening to YL involves plenty of natural language use in classroom settings. It is teacher's responsibility of expose YL to as many spoken language as possible in the classroom. In addition, in the early years of classroom language learning teacher plays the role of a main model for children in their learning to listen and speak. Additionally, exposure to foreign language should be carried with meaningful and purposeful activities. According to Vygotskian theories of development meaning in communication is constructed with the help of expert others (Cameron, 2001). Thus teacher plays the role of an expert other and creates Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) for YLs in their process of learning how to create meaning through listening and speaking. According to Saville-Troike (2012, p112) ZPD is an "area of potential development where learner can achieve that development only with assistance". In ZPD scaffolding plays an important role which is given by an expert other. Saville-Troike (2012) also argues that scaffolding occurs only with the active participation of a learner.

Teaching speaking according to Scott and Ytreberg (1990) is one of the most demanding tasks before the language teacher. One of the reasons for this is that most of the learners do not have an access to speaking practice outside the classroom and teachers need to dedicate most of the class time for the speaking activities, which on its own place require a lot of effort from a teacher. Another difficult aspect of teaching speaking is the issues of correcting and giving feedback to learners in speaking activities, which also requires special knowledge on how to correct and when to correct young learners.

It is worth mentioning that listening and speaking almost always come together and it is almost impossible to teach speaking without listening or vice versa. Pinter

(2006, p45) claims that young learners need to be exposed to plenty of listening activities and practice with rich input, which as a result leads to speaking tasks.

2.3 The Ways of Teaching Speaking and Listening to YL
2.3.1 Listen and Do Activities

In primary stage of English language teaching listening and speaking activities should be accompanied by movements according to the spoken message. In this sense, Scott and Ytreberg (1990) suggest several methods of teaching listening to young learners, one of which is 'listen and do' activities. They also argue that most of the class instructions correspond to 'listen and do' activities and teacher's instructions to students to perform one or another activity plays an important role in developing their listening skills. Moreover, teacher can easily see whether learners have understood the instruction e.g. listening or not (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). Scott and Ytreberg (1990) also suggest other 'listen and do' activities which include mime the story activity, listen and draw and others. In mime the story activity the teacher reads or tells the story and performs the actions described in the story with learners. In a listen and draw activity teacher, a learner or a recording describes an object and learners draw it.

2.3.2 Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response (TPR) perhaps is the most widely used methods of teaching foreign languages to young learners. Its advantages in teaching listening and speaking are numerous. Total Physical Response is a method invented by Prof. James Asher in 1970s (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Asher (in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) believes that children acquire their first language through physical response to language inputs. Their first introduction with language occurs when their parents give commands to perform different actions before they start producing their own speech. One of the underlying principles of TPR in classroom is the reduction of learners' affective filter and to facilitate the process of learning the language. Affective filter is a mechanism that allows or restricts the processing of input (Saville-Troike, 2012). Thus by reducing the affective filter, learners feel themselves free to perform actions instructed by their teachers and learn the language, especially spoken and listening skills. In this process teacher plays an important role of a facilitator by creating favorable atmosphere for learners. Another important aspect of TPR is comprehension, e.g. understanding the spoken input provided by the teacher. Therefore, learners should practice a lot by doing different activities that mostly involve listening comprehension and then move to production of their own utterances

(Richards and Rodgers, 2001). The advantage of using TPR with young learners is that it provides a lot of amusement, fun and movement for young learners and makes it possible to keep them motivated during the whole lesson. Another advantage of TPR is in giving feedback to learners. Richards and Rodgers (2001) suggest that teachers should adopt the way how most of parents correct their children e.g. teachers should use less immediate correction of spoken output produced by learners in the initial stages of learning, as immediate feedback or correction may result in the increase of learners' affective filter.

Despite many benefits of TPR, it has some challenges to implement in the classroom both for the learners and the teacher. Cameron (2001) believes that there are possible dangers when children can not construct meaning during the lessons. This is especially important while giving commands and instructions using the TPR method. That is why is it very important for a teacher to make sure that the message uttered towards the learners is accessible.

2.3.3 Dialogues and Role Play

Sesnan (1997) states that easy to perform dialogues encourage the use of spoken language effectively. Scott and Ytreberg (1990, p39) claim that for a teacher using a dialogue with learners is an easy and useful way to bridge between guided practice and freer practice activities. In the initial introducing of a dialogue to young learners teachers are recommended to use various objects such as puppets, pictures to scaffold the construction of meaning. The teacher may move to the stage of performing the dialogue with learners putting them in pairs or groups. Another option of doing the dialogue activity is to ask and lead two or more learners to perform the dialogue in from of the class, thus giving a model to other learners. Scott and Ytreberg (1990) also suggest employing movements, actions, mimics and intonation in presenting a dialogue to young learners which helps them to feel the dialogue from different perspectives.

Role plays containing dialogues is another type of effective activity which is beneficial and entertaining for learners. In introducing learners with role plays, Scott and Ytreberg (1990) suggest teachers to move from structured to more free type of activity. The best way to do this is, first, let the young learners learn the dialogue by heart and then act it in pairs or groups in front of the class. In assigning the roles and movements that accompany dialogues teachers should consider psychological features of each learner in order to not to affect their affective filter. It is also important to remember about giving a model before each activity or performance.

3. Language Policies in Uzbekistan and Their Impact on TEYL

The start of incorporation of English language into the education system of Uzbekistan dates back to 1932 (Hasanova, 2007). However, teaching and learning of EFL was carried out in secondary schools e.g. with the start of fifth grade when pupils were at the age of 12 (Hasanova, 2007). As Hasanova (2007, p4) points out most of the classes during that era were mainly student centered and were dedicated to analytical readings, grammatical rules, and translation exercises. According to Gulyamova, Irgasheva and Bolitho (2014, p45) the reasons for this were "the tendency for the country's institutions to remain sealed off from foreign influences, particularly those from the West, …" and "These deficiencies were passed on from generation to generation of Uzbek English teachers, all steeped in a Soviet-rooted version of the Grammar-Translation method, and reliant on outdated textbooks". After gaining the independence from Soviet Union in 1991, great attention has been paid to the reformation of education system, especially teaching and learning foreign languages. However, teaching methods and approaches remained the same as in Soviet era for 20 years. According to Hasanova (2008, p139) Uzbek teachers were exposed to modern approaches to ELT as communicative language teaching in mid 1990's, however "continued lack of financial support and insufficient teacher training have made CLT more a topic of discussion rather than an approach being implemented in many Uzbek classrooms".

Recent analyses of the system of organization of learning foreign languages revealed that educational standards, curricula and textbooks did not fully meet modern requirements, especially in the use of achievements of foreign language teaching methodology, IT and media technologies. This situation led to the issue of the presidential decree No. 1875 on December 10, 2012 *On Measures of Further Improving the System of Learning Foreign Languages*, which clearly outlined the further aims and tasks of reforming the system of learning foreign languages. One of the first steps that have been taken after the decree, in order to implement the reforms, was designing and adoption of a new national educational standard for continuing education system (Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Uzbekistan, 2013) which is based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR, Council of Europe 2001).

According to the new standard teaching foreign languages in schools begins in the first grade of the primary schools, when children are at the age of 6-7. And by the end of primary stage (grades 1-4) of education pupils have to achieve A1 level according to the national curriculum and CEFR. The widespread introduction of teaching English language in primary education around the world, including in Uzbekistan, is described by Johnstone as "the world's biggest policy development in

education" (in Copland, Garton, and Burns, 2014, p738). There are several reasons for this. First, it is better to begin learning foreign languages as early as possible (Copland, Garton and Burns, 2014). Second, wide use of English in the process of globalization and integration of market economies, workforce with English language skills considered to be an advantage.

The impact of the new curriculum and EFL reform in Uzbekistan was huge on pre-service and in-service teacher training, materials design and teachers' continuing professional development areas. The new standard required the whole system of foreign languages teaching to rethink and reform the approaches used in educational institutions.

The new textbook series titled Kids' English (Irisqulov et al., 2014) for primary schools were designed and published based on the new standard. Mandatory cascade in-service teacher trainings were held after the publication of the textbooks in all regions of Uzbekistan with the purpose of training teachers to teach YL and using the new textbook. Nevertheless, the content of training programmes lack input sessions on SLA theories and the ways children learn foreign languages. Cameron (2003) discussing the skills needed for an English teacher in teaching YL puts "an understanding of how children think and learn" on the first place, and explains that teaching YL in primary levels may be more demanding than teaching in higher levels. In addition, most of the pre-service teacher training programmes in Uzbek universities do not provide SLA or foreign language pedagogy modules, which explain how language acquisition takes place and develops in young learners. Instead they provide general pedagogy and psychology courses.

Unlike previous textbooks Kids' English incorporates wide use of Total Physical Response, Communicative Language Teaching, using games, songs and pictures and other modern approaches to teaching YL. However, Enever and Moon (in Copland, 2014) point out that communicative language teaching is an approach to be used with adult learners in small groups.

Discussing the advantages, disadvantages and impact of reforms introduced in Uzbekistan's education system in terms of teaching foreign languages in primary public schools is early since there was not conducted any kind of comprehensive study in this area in Central Asian Post-Soviet countries.

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LECTURE 3: TEACHING AND LEARNING LANGUAGES BY MEANS OF COMPUTER TECHNOLOGIES. COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING

Lecture Outline:
1. The role of the computer in learning
 1.1 The advantage of using computer in language teaching and learning
 1.2 The disadvantage of using computer in language teaching and learning
2. The development of CALL
 2.1 Background
 2.2 A brief history
3. Types of CALL Programs
 3.1 Types of CALL Activities
 3.2 What Computers Can and Can't "Do"
 3.4 Principles of Using and Designing CALL Programs in Language Learning and Teaching
4. Top Ten Software to Teach and Learn English

1. The role of the computer in learning

Generally speaking, computers can be classified into three generations. Each generation lasted for a certain period of time, and each gave us either a new and improved computer or an improvement to the existing computer.

First generation: 1937 – 1946 - In 1937 the first electronic digital computer was built by Dr. John V. Atanasoff and Clifford Berry. It was called the Atanasoff-Berry Computer (ABC). In 1943 an electronic computer name the Colossus was built for the military. Other developments continued until in 1946 the first general– purpose digital computer, the Electronic Numerical Integrator and Computer (ENIAC) was built. It is said that this computer weighed 30 tons, and had 18,000 vacuum tubes which was used for processing. When this computer was turned on for the first time

lights dim in sections of Philadelphia. Computers of this generation could only perform single task, and they had no operating system.

Second generation: 1947 – 1962 - This generation of computers used transistors instead of vacuum tubes which were more reliable. In 1951 the first computer for commercial use was introduced to the public; the Universal Automatic Computer (UNIVAC 1). In 1953 the International Business Machine (IBM) 650 and 700 series computers made their mark in the computer world. During this generation of computers over 100 computer programming languages were developed, computers had memory and operating systems. Storage media such as tape and disk were in use also were printers for output.

Third generation: 1963 - present - The invention of integrated circuit brought us the third generation of computers. With this invention computers became smaller, more powerful more reliable and they are able to run many different programs at the same time. In1980 Microsoft Disk Operating System (MS-Dos) was born and in 1981 IBM introduced the personal computer (PC) for home and office use. Three years later Apple gave us the Macintosh computer with its icon driven interface and the 90s gave us Windows operating system.

As a result of the various improvements to the development of the computer we have seen the computer being used in all areas of life. It is a very useful tool that will continue to experience new development as time passes.

The rapid spread of computers has been spurred by intensive development in the field of computer technology. Now the computers have become much more powerful, yet smaller in size, more adaptable, more flexible, and easier to use. In addition, they are much more inexpensive than those of the last ten years. 'Computer literacy' becomes a big issue which is the knowledge about computers and computing when schools and governments have devoted resources to it.

As we know that the computer is a tool. Its role in education is that of a medium. The computer will perform exactly the instructions given by a user. These instructions can be typed into the computer from a keyboard, a mouse, sounds, or a series of programs. The teacher can create educational materials for students by using the computer. Unfortunately, not all of the teachers know how to master the computers.

1.1 The advantage of using computer in language teaching and learning

In the introduction of their book CALL, Hardisty and Windeatt (1989) comment that, compared with the language laboratory, it has taken for less time for language teachers to perceive what the computer has to offer to language learning. "It took the

profession fifteen or more years to find effective ways of utilizing language laboratories. … It has taken CALL a considerably shorter time to move from its crude beginnings … to a stage where the use of computers is both innovative and truly appropriate." (1989,p.3) This statement reflects the experience in learning foreign language when using the information technology.

(1) The inherent nature of the computer

The computer can handle a much wider range of activities, and much more powerfully, than other technological aids. It offers a two-way learning session with the student. It is much more than a mere programmed textbook, whose powers of interaction are virtually limited to an ability to reveal the correct answer: the computer can 'assess' the student's response. It can also display messages, take the student through subsequent attempts at a question, and even take the student to a different section of package, depending in the nature of the response. Most of all, the computer can complete all of these action very quickly and is always unfailingly accurate and precise.

(2) The benefit of the teacher

As for the benefit of the teacher, the computer presents several aspects of particular promise. Prominent among these is its versatility in handling different kinds of material. For example, the simplest is the one-way presentation of information, in the form of text, graphics, audio and video. Also, the computer can handle question-and-answer routines, simulated 'dialogues', hypothesis testing, and many other types of exercises. When the student has completed the session, the computer can record results, errors, success rates, the time spent, and much more information for the teacher to review at a later time. Unlike a textbook lesson, which the teacher cannot change, and to which at best some subsidiary materials can be added, the computer exercise can be easily modified.

(3) The benefit of the learner

The computer also offers many advantages for the student. 'Access' is one of the benefits. The computer offers the student the choice of when to study particular topics and how long to spend on them. The flexibility makes many educational courses accessible to students who would otherwise have no chance to take them.

1.2 The disadvantage of using computer in language teaching and learning

There are some problems in using the computer for language teaching. Some of these stems from the nature of the computer itself, while others relate to the present state of CALL. The easiest way to start with CALL is to buy materials off-the-shelf or to borrow materials developed by colleagues. In the early days, computer

programs are seldom 'compatible'. Unless the computer is the same as the one on which the materials were produced, they will probably not run without modification. Although such problem is reduced more than that of the past, it still exists. Another problem is the quality of CALL programs. If such CALL packages can be borrowed or bought, the quality of a lot of CALL material leaves much to be desired. Like any other educational materials, CALL programs need to be evaluated.

In addition, there is the question of the range of activities to which to computer can contribute. The material which can usefully be handled by a computer represents at best a tiny fraction of the linguistic knowledge which a teacher brings to bear in a language class. What computers really can do is present text to the student; accept the responses from specific input such as keyboard, mouse; given the right equipment; provide graphics, video and audio. In question-and-answer learning, the variety of responses which a question can evoke from the student must therefore be carefully anticipated by the CALL author.

2. The development of CALL
2.1 Background

CALL arose from the combination of two separate factors: educational needs and technological means. Developments in CALL can be traced back to the 1960's: the PLATO project, a large system developed at the University of Illinois, and the computer-based foreign-language-teaching project at Stanford University, led the way in the evolution of CALL. Over the last few years, there has been a flurry of largely unrelated activity in CALL. All of these are prompted by the emergence of inexpensive microcomputer systems. Although the computer's educational potential was being discussed as far as back as the late 1940's, it took some time for educators to begin to assess the educational nature of the computer, and the ways in which it could be adapted to, and integrated into, learning programs and curricula.

Modern CALL is the result of the convergence of several lines of research into the use of computers in handling language. Except the work directly concerned with language teaching and the history of the component of CALL, there are three other lines of research which have had an important influence on the evolution of CALL: experiments in programmed instruction, developments in computational linguistics and work on machine translation.

Developments in computational linguistics and machine translation had an indirect but important influence on CALL. Ahmad et al. (1985) comments, "… since research efforts in the two fields clearly determine the 'limit' of computer usage in literary and linguistic research and so by implication also define the 'limits' of computer usage in language teaching and learning."

2.2 A brief history

The late 1960s and early 1970s are of particular historical important for CALL. The rapid development in computer technology paved the way for the educational use of computers in language teaching and learning.

There were famous plans during the early development of CALL as follows:

(1) The Stanford Project

It dates from the mid 1960s and was carried out under the supervision of Van Campen in the Slavic Language Department. The work was a computer-based introductory Russian course, and was self-instructional: most of the teaching material was on the computer. The 170 hour Russian course was scheduled by the student over an academic year. During the course of the project, the hardware at Stanford has changed significantly. Instead of the slow teletype there is now a bilingual visual display unit, and in place of the tape-reorder there is a computer-generated audio system. Overall, the work done at Stanford on the curriculum was interesting and significant.

(2) The PLATO System (The Programmed Logic for Automated Teaching Operations) System. The system was developed at the University of Illinois, in conjunction with the Control Data Corporation, together with the special purpose software to develop CAL material. One measure of the success of the PLATO system is its ability to survive over a period of two decades and to sustain the interest of teachers.

The first teacher to use the PLATO system for language teaching is Curtin. (Curtin et al. 1972).

(3) The microcomputer boom

The late 1970s will be remembered as a period in which the microcomputer established itself as a consumer product. The cheapness of the microcomputer means that computing facilities are now much more widely available. The teacher may well have access to a machine at home or at work, and it is probable that several students in a given class will own one. Microcomputers offer certain advantages over mainframes since they are normally used on an individual basis. Although microcomputers are less powerful than mainframes, their capabilities are impressive. Michael C., Roy B. and Jeremy Fox (University of East Anglia) have shown that micros can support a range of CALL programs. These programs include a student monitoring system and an authoring package1. Tim Johns (University of Birmingham) has devised a range of text-based programs, which run on smaller micro (Johns 1988). A collection of articles on the teaching of English as mother

tongue and as a foreign language describes several imaginative possibilities for expanding the range of CALL activities using the microcomputer (Chandler 1983).

3. Types of CALL Programs

CALL programs/materials include (from ICT4LT Module 1.4):

- **CALL-specific software:** applications designed to develop and facilitate language learning, such as CD-ROMs, web-based interactive language learning exercises/quizzes (see CD-ROM examples for language learning)

- **Generic software:** applications designed for general purposes, such as word-processors (Word), presentation software (PowerPoint, see an e-book made by students "Many Moons"), and spreadsheet (Excel), that can be used to support language learning (see examples of using Excel for language learning & teaching) *Also see Microsoft Office Online Templates)

- **Web-based learning programs:** online dictionaries, online encyclopedias, online concordancers, news/magazine sites, e-texts, web-quests, web publishing, blog, wiki, etc.

- **Computer-mediated communication** (CMC) programs: synchronous - online chat; asynchronous - email, discussion forum, message board.

3.1 Types of CALL Activities

- multiple-choice & true/false quizzes - gap-filling exercise/cloze - matching - re-ordering/sequencing - crossword puzzles - games - simulations	- writing & word-processing - concordancing (Concordancing is a means of accessing a corpus of text to show how any given word or phrase in the text is used in the immediate contexts in which it appears) - web quests/searching - web publishing - online communication (synchronous and asynchronous)

3.2 What Computers Can and Can't "Do"

Computers CAN	Computer CAN'T
Judge **predetermined** right-or-wrong	Judge **unexpected input**

answers, e.g., multiple choice and fill-in-the-blanks	
Provide **immediate**, yet **fixed**, feedback, suggestions, and encouragement	Provide **individualized** feedback **beyond a predetermined list** of messages
Provide **authentic** information through **multimedia** - **texts**, **images**, **sounds**,**videos**, and **animations**	Engage learner in rich **negotiation of meaning** characteristic of face-to-face interaction
Motivate task **persistence** •**Record** learner's writing, speech, and learning progress	Motivate **depth and quality of engagement** characteristic of human interaction

3.3 Roles of the Computer in language learning and teaching:
- computer as **tutor** for language drills or skill practice
- computer as a **tool** for writing, presenting, and researching
- computer as a **medium** of global communication

3.4 How Computers can be used in the Language Class

1) **Teaching with one computer in the class**
- delivery of content (PowerPoint, word-processor, Webpages, etc.)
- classroom activities/discussions mediated by the computer
- Interactive whiteboard

2) **Teaching in the computer network room** (network-based language teaching)
- task-based group work /activities
- computer-mediated communication (CMC): asynchronous/synchronous
- tandem learning

3) **Self-access learning** (independent learning)
- drills and exercises
- word processing
- resource searching

4) **Distance learning** (i.e. individual learners working by themselves, at a place and time of their choice and, to some extent, at a pace and in an order also chosen by themselves.)

- delivering online course content
- CMC activities: email, discussion forum, chat rooms
- tandem learning
- community building

3.4 Principles of Using and Designing CALL Programs in Language Learning and Teaching

- student/learner-centeredness (to promote learner autonomy)
- meaningful purpose
- comprehensive input
- sufficient level of stimulation (cognitively and affectively)
- multiple modalities (to support various learning styles and strategies)
- high level of interaction (human-machine and human-human)

4. Top Ten Software to Teach and Learn English

Rosetta Stone English helps its students learn English through an interactive system of incremental advancement in the language. Learning English in Rosetta Stone occurs through three core components: You learn, practice and play to reinforce what you've learned. The Rosetta Stone learning method is about absorbing English. It starts by teaching words instead of vocabulary lists. There's also speech recognition technology to help with English pronunciation.

English Live

English Live is an online English learning program that helps its users quickly and easily learn the English language. You can use this ESL application 24/7 from any internet connection. This program offers private classes, group conversations and lessons that are not only designed to improve listening skills, but also reading, writing and speaking skills.

Exceller

Exceller is a web-based learning English program to help you perfect the English language and become a better communicator. This program is designed for individuals who already have the basics of the English language down but still want to improve and become more fluent in the language. It uses reading, writing, listening and speaking methods to help you more easily learn English as a second language.

Transparent Language

Transparent Language is designed to help anyone learn English quickly. This is an online learning English application, so you don't have to worry about long downloads or losing CDs. It lets students set their own pace and learning methods; you don't have to follow a limited and structured plan, like some other applications require.

Memrise

What is a corpus?

In order to answer this question, let's go back to the year 1755. The great lexicographer, Samuel Johnson, has just completed the heroic task of writing the most influential dictionary in the history of the English language.

One notable feature of the 42,773 entries in his work is that they are accompanied by both definitions and literary quotations. For example,

Opulence

Wealth; riches; affluence

"There in full *opulence* a banker dwelt,

Who all the joys and pangs of riches felt;

His sideboards glitter'd woth imagin'd plate,

And his proud fancy held a vest estate."

- Jonathan Swift

For Dr Johnson, it was these literary quotations or "illustrations" as they are usually referred to, that carried the weight: the specimens came first, analysis came later. This meant that the largest part of his 10-year task involved ploughing through huge quantities of texts.

Writer Henry Hitchings hints at the state of Johnson's work area when he says, "The garret at 17, Gogh Street [his study]… became a sort of backstreet abattoir specializing in the evisceration of books; traumatized volumes lay all around."

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LECTURE 4: CEFR: TEACHING, LEARNING AND ASSESSMENT

Lecture Outline:
1. A brief history of the CEFR
2. CEFR Levels
3. Understanding the benefits for teachers
4. Defining how long it will take to reach each CEF level
5. Using CEF-referenced course books

1. A brief history of the CEFR

The CEFR is the result of developments in language education that date back to the 1970s and beyond, and its publication in 2001 was the direct outcome of

several discussions, meetings and consultation processes which had taken place over the previous 10 years.

The development of the CEFR coincided with fundamental changes in language teaching, with the move away from the grammar-translation method to communicative approach. The CEFR reflects these later approaches.

The CEFR is also the result of a need for a common international framework for language learning which would facilitate co-operation among educational institutions in different countries, particularly within Europe. It was also hoped that it would provide a sound basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications and help learners, teachers, course designers, examining bodies and educational administrators to situate their own efforts within a wider frame of reference.

2. CEFR Levels

People have been learning, teaching, and assessing language for centuries. In this long history, there have been as many different ways of teaching as there have been ways of describing levels of language learning and assessment. Even today, schools, universities, and language academies use many different methodologies and many ways to describe proficiency levels. What may be an intermediate level in one country may be an upper-intermediate level in another. Levels may vary even among institutions in the same area.

Consider how you would describe to a learner what you mean by intermediate:

• What is an intermediate level?

• What does intermediate mean to you as a teacher and to your learners?

• Does intermediate refer to how a learner communicates in an everyday situation in an English speaking country, to the amount of vocabulary a person has learned to use, or to the grammar items a person at that level understands?

• How can we assess a learner's achievement at an intermediate level if we don't define exactly what we mean by intermediate?

Comparing levels becomes even more difficult when comparing someone who is learning English to someone who is learning another language, for example, French. Can we directly compare the proficiency level of an advanced English student to that of an advanced French student?

In order to facilitate both teaching and learning, we need a way to specify what our learners are able to do at certain levels. As teachers, we also need to know how these levels can guide our teaching and the way we select course books and resources. In short, we need a common language by which we can describe language learning, teaching, and assessment.

In most countries there is general agreement that language learning can be organized into three levels: basic/beginner, intermediate, and advanced.

Reflecting this, the Council of Europe developed the Common European Framework of References for Languages to establish international standards for learning, teaching, and assessment for all modern European languages. B. Understanding and using the Global Scale The Common European Framework describes what a learner can do at six specific levels: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2.

• Basic User (A1 and A2)

• Independent User (B1 and B2)

• Proficient User (C1 and C2)

These levels match general concepts of basic, intermediate, and advanced and are often referred to as the Global Scale. For each level, the full CEF document complements this by describing in depth

• Competencies necessary for effective communication.

• Skills and knowledge related to language learning and competencies.

• Situations (people, place, time, organization, etc.) and contexts (study, work, social, tourism, etc.) in which communication takes place. The Global Scale is not language-specific. In other words, it can be used with virtually any language and can be used to compare achievement and learning across languages. For example, an A2 in Spanish is the same as an A2 in Japanese or English. The Global Scale also helps teachers, academic coordinators, and course book writers to decide on curriculum and syllabus content and to choose appropriate course books, etc.

"Can do" statements The Global Scale is based on a set of statements that describe what a learner can do. The "can do" statements are always positive: they describe what a learner is able to do, not what a learner cannot do or does wrong. This helps all learners, even those at the lowest levels, see that learning has value and that they can attain language goals.

The Common European Framework is not a political or cultural tool used to promote Europe or European educational systems. The word European refers to European languages, although the CEF has now been translated into more than 30 languages, including non-European languages such as Arabic and Japanese, making it accessible to nearly everyone around the world.

3. Understanding the benefits for teachers

If you choose to use the CEF as a reference point for your classroom, here are some of the benefi ts related to using a common framework:

1. Teachers have access to a meaningful and useful point of reference that is understood globally and that informs their decisions on measuring language knowledge and skills.

2. Teachers receive a detailed description of learning, teaching, and assessing languages, how learners compare to a set of competencies, and how they carry out communicative tasks.

3. Teachers and learners move toward specifi c levels and specifi c goals of those levels.

4. Teachers may want to select teaching materials (course books and resources) that are referenced to the CEF.

5. CEF levels provide an indication of performance and ability to function in communicative contexts in a foreign language.

6. There are no requirements in the CEF; it is a framework of reference. It is up to the teacher and learner to plot a course for language development. The CEF does not tell them what to do or how to do it. 7. The CEF invites practitioners (all those involved in teaching and learning a language) to refl ect on their approach to teaching, learning, and assessment.

4. Defining how long it will take to reach each CEF level

As mentioned before in this guide, one of the main concerns of teachers is how long it takes to reach each level. At fi rst glance, the CEF appears to be like a staircase with each step the same distance from the next (A1 eto A2 to B1 to B2, etc.). This might seem to indicate that each step or level should be achieved in an equal amount of time. But learning a language is like climbing a mountain:

the ascent gets harder the higher you climb. It does not take the same amount of time to reach each level. It will take longer to get to B2 from B1 than it does to get to A2 from A1. A principle reason for this is that as the learner progresses with the language, he or she needs to acquire a larger range of language knowledge and competencies. Also, when going beyond B1 level, most learners reach a linguistic plateau, and acquisition slows. Teachers are of course aware of this and understand that the language learning process is a continual and very individualized one. Because no two learners develop their language skills in the same way or at the same pace, it is diffi cult to defi ne the exact amount of time needed to reach each level. The Association of Language Testers of Europe (ALTE), whose members have aligned their language examinations with the CEF, provides guidance on the number of guided teaching hours needed to fulfi ll the aims of each CEF level:

A1 Approximately 90 - 100 hours

A2 Approximately 180 - 200 hours

B1 Approximately 350 - 400 hours

B2 Approximately 500 - 600 hours

C1 Approximately 700 - 800 hours

C2 Approximately 1,000 - 1,200 hours

Guided teaching hours are the hours during which the learner is in a formal learning context such as the classroom. The number of hours needed for different learners varies greatly, depending on a range of factors such as

• age and motivation

• background

• amount of prior study and extent of exposure to the language outside the classroom

• amount of time spent in individual study

Learners from some countries and cultures may take longer to acquire a new language, especially if they have to learn to read and write with a Latin script.

5. Using CEF-referenced course books

For many teachers and curriculum planners, one diffi culty with any framework (not just the CEF) is deciding how to match the levels to an existing curriculum and classroom goals. By comparing the content of your course to the CEF, you can defi ne what language skills, vocabulary, grammar, and communicative functions will be covered. Course books and supplementary materials that are referenced to the CEF can help the teacher achieve his or her classroom goals. Pearson Longman has helped by aligning course books with the CEF. This helps the teacher decide whether the content of the course book (topics, language covered, etc.) fi ts classroom goals and learners' needs and whether the level is appropriate. Teachers know their classroom goals better than anyone else. Working with other teachers in your institution as a group, you may want to read through the levels in the CEF Global Scale and self-assessment grids (as a minimum) and decide how you think they fi t the classroom goals, the curriculum, the syllabus, and the course book you have chosen.

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LECTURE 5: RAISING LANGUAGE LEARNERS' INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE IN EFL CLASSROOM

Lecture Outline:

- Introduction
- What is intercultural learning?
- What do we understand by the word 'culture'?
- Intercultural awareness
- Intercultural communicative competence
- Intercultural awareness skills
- How does this affect the role of the teacher?
- When should we introduce this?
- Classroom Activities for Intercultural Learning

Introduction

There will have been points in most teachers' careers when we have stopped to wonder "What am I actually doing?". Sometimes, filling our students up with all the requisite grammar and vocabulary, and polishing their pronunciation and honing their communicative skills doesn't actually seem to be helping them to achieve the wider goal of being able to genuinely communicate with and understand the real world outside the classroom at all.

For too long, teachers have been concentrating on structures and forms and producing materials that may help our students to have perfect diphthongs or a flawless command of the third conditional while leaving out anything approaching real, valid, meaningful content. Major ELT publishers have produced materials so carefully calculated not to offend anyone that they far too often end up being vacuous if not completely meaningless. If our students are to have any hope of using their language skills to genuinely comprehend and communicate in the global village, intercultural awareness is crucial.

What is intercultural learning?

The process of becoming more aware of and better understanding one's own culture and other cultures around the world. The aim of intercultural learning is to increase international and cross-cultural tolerance and understanding. This can take

lots of forms - intercultural learning is by no means only a part of EFL, but has exponents in all fields of education.

What do we understand by the word 'culture'?

A way of life. A set of social practices. A system of beliefs. A shared history or set of experiences. A culture may be synonymous with a country, or a region, or a nationality or it may cross several countries or regions. A culture may be synonymous with a religion, though followers of Christianity or Judaism or Islam may also come from different cultures. It is highly possible to belong to or identify oneself with more than one culture.

Intercultural awareness

Intercultural awareness in language learning is often talked about as though it were a 'fifth skill' - the ability to be aware of cultural relativity following reading, writing, listening and speaking. There is something to be said for this as an initial attempt to understand or define something that may seem a difficult concept but, as Claire Kramsch points out ... "If...language is seen as social practice, culture becomes the very core of language teaching. Cultural awareness must then be viewed as enabling language proficiency ... Culture in language teaching is not an expendable fifth skill, tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading and writing" (in Context and Culture in Language Teaching OUP,1993).

Language itself is defined by a culture. We cannot be competent in the language if we do not also understand the culture that has shaped and informed it. We cannot learn a second language if we do not have an awareness of that culture, and how that culture relates to our own first language/first culture. It is not only therefore essential to have cultural awareness, but also intercultural awareness.

Intercultural communicative competence

Following on from what Kramsch says above, intercultural awareness is not really therefore a skill, but a collection of skills and attitudes better thought of as a competence.

Intercultural communicative competence is an attempt to raise students' awareness of their own culture, and in so doing, help them to interpret and understand other cultures. It is not just a body of knowledge, but a set of practices requiring knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Intercultural awareness skills

What are these attitudes and skills that make up the competence? Among them are:

- observing, identifying and recognizing
- comparing and contrasting

- negotiating meaning
- dealing with or tolerating ambiguity
- effectively interpreting messages
- limiting the possibility of misinterpretation
- defending one's own point of view while acknowledging the legitimacy of others
- accepting difference

These are very similar to many of the skills we teach normally. So what makes intercultural learning different? Raised awareness of what we do and of the vital importance of these skills already makes intercultural communicative competence a more attainable goal. Moreover - and despite the fact that the competence is more than just a body of knowledge - intercultural awareness skills can be developed by designing materials which have cultural and intercultural themes as their content, a kind of loop input, if you like.

How does this affect the role of the teacher?

Intercultural learning gives the teacher a role not only as one or more of these, but also as an educator. This makes many teachers feel uncomfortable, above all with the idea that we may be influencing our students in some way. Are we responsible for transmitting some kind of ideology to our students?

No, we are helping them to become more aware of the world around them, and to better interact with that world. These are the crucial roles of the teacher.

Moreover, EFL teachers tend to have a wide variety of different backgrounds in different disciplines. They have different experiences, and in many cases may have travelled extensively and got to know several different cultures. They may have undergone the experience of living in, adjusting to and understanding a different culture. There is a lot that they can bring to the job. They are unique mediators of cultural relativity.

When should we introduce this?

Previously, "cultural awareness" has often only been seen as something for advanced learners, an extension exercise that can be "tacked on" to an ordinary lesson. This is partly due to the all-too-frequent error of assuming that students with a low level of English also have a low intellect generally, or that it is impossible to explain intellectual concepts in level one English. Intercultural awareness, as a fundamental feature of language and an integral part of language learning, is important at all levels.

Activities for Intercultural Awareness
Exploring self

One of the aims of IcLL is to make learners' invisible culturally-shaped knowledge visible in culture learning so that they can explore their self. To do this, for example, learners can engage in group discussion activities about the differences in ideas that make up a family in their own family trees. This task can increase awareness of the diversity within learners' own culture as well as their individual concepts of family (Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993).

Learners can also develop their cultural awareness through cultural connotations of vocabulary which may draw different pictures for people from different cultures. Teachers can ask learners to draw a spidergram about words associated with family or breakfast in order to know which words reflect the learners' own culture or the target culture. For example, the word family produces a picture of an extended family (grandparents, aunts, uncles, nephews, nieces, etc) in Uzbek culture, whereas it is a picture of a nuclear family (parents and children) in English-speaking cultures. An awareness of such cultural connotation can help learners avoid misconceptions about other cultures which may have different cultural connotations of vocabulary.

Noticing/observation

• Creating an authentic environment

To arouse learners' interest, motivation and curiosity for culture learning, teachers and learners can decorate their classrooms with cultural images of the target culture. For example, teachers and learners can bring photos of families from different cultures or posters and pictures of some typical types of British food and drinks to make a culture wallchart (Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993) in the classroom. This technique is known as the culture island (Hughes, 1986) which aims at "attracting student attention, eliciting questions and comments" (p. 168) for culture learning. Learners can also bring some authentic materials about family life in the target culture, or eating and drinking habits of English people to share with the whole class. Such activities will make the lessons more interesting and learners will feel more motivated in learning about the target culture.

• Watching video

Video is used as a means of expanding learners' ability to observe the cultural behaviours of people of the target culture. With a critical eye, learners can increase their awareness of observable features of the target culture for reflections and language production. For example, a video clip about a British family having dinner with some guests can help learners identify British people's cultural norms in table manners, self-reflect on those in their own culture and discuss cultural similarities and differences. Similarly, watching a video clip about the tradition of tea breaks in

British Culture can help learners notice how people of the target culture behave socially in the afternoon tea. By observing cultural behaviours of people from the target culture, learners will "become aware of the ways in which their own cultural background influences their own behaviour, and develop a tolerance for behaviour patterns that are different from their own" (Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993, p. 82).

Cultural exploration

• Ethnographic interviews

Learners can conduct ethnographic interviews with native English speakers to interpret and construct their own model of cultural learning through the exploration of family values or eating and drinking norms in the target culture. This can be done outside the classroom or with native English speakers invited to the class. Learners are then asked to present an oral report about what they have known about the target culture from their interviews. Ethnographic interviews are used because of a variety of cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes they offer.

As Bateman (2004) argues, learners engaging in ethnographic interviews enhance not only their attitudes towards the speakers and the target culture, but also their communication competence with people from other cultures and awareness of the influence of their own culture in their lives.

• Dealing with cultural stereotypes

Learners can engage in tasks of cultural exploration to identify any cultural stereotypes that may exist. For instance, learners can present their ideas about British food through the posters/pictures they bring to class. They will reflect on what they may think in cultural stereotypes. This task can help them to reflect on the bad reputation of British food as a stereotype. Another stereotypical representation dealing with a family issue about living with one's parents until marriage can be modified. In Uzbekistan, many people still live with their parents after marriage. Learners can thus discuss the advantages and disadvantages of living with parents when they are grown-up or when they are daughters-in-law or sons-in-law. Tomalin and Stempleski (1993) state that some stereotypes are harmful as "they don't allow for individuality, they encourage negative judgment, and lead to misunderstanding" (p. 127).

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LECTURE 6: USING AUTHENTIC MATERIALS IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

Outline of the lecture session:
1. Historical overview
2. Defining authenticity
3. The gap between authentic language and textbook language
4. Using Authentic Materials
4.1 Sources
4.2 Aren't authentic materials too difficult?

1. Historical overview

The use of authentic materials in foreign language learning has a long history. Henry Sweet, for example, who taught and wrote at the end of the nineteenth century and is regarded as one of the first linguists, made regular use of authentic texts in his books and was well aware of their potential advantages over contrived materials: The great advantage of natural, idiomatic texts over artificial 'methods' or 'series' is that they do justice to every feature of the language [...] The artificial systems, on the other hand, tend to cause incessant repetition of certain grammatical constructions, certain elements of the vocabulary, certain combinations of words to the almost total exclusion of others which are equally, or perhaps even more, essential. (Sweet 1899: 177)

During the twentieth century, however, prevailing linguistic theories of the time spawned a multitude of methods such as the 'New Method' and the 'Audiolingual Method' (Richards and Rodgers 1986) which all imposed carefully structured (and therefore contrived) materials and prescribed behaviours on teachers and learners, leading to what Howatt (1984: 267) refers to as a 'cult of materials', where: " The authority of the approach resided in the materials themselves, not in the lessons given by the teacher using them, a philosophy which paved the way for the replacement of teachers by machines such as language laboratories." (ibid: 267)

Large-scale trials in the 1960s, comparing the merits of different methods in the classroom, not surprisingly, proved inconclusive since researchers were seriously underestimating the role of teachers and learners in the learning process and the profession grew disillusioned with the search for a 'perfect method' (Howatt 1984; Alderson & Beretta 1992).

The issue of authenticity reappeared in the 1970's as the debate between Chomsky (1965) and Hymes (1972) led to a realisation that communicative competence involved much more than knowledge of language structures and contextualized communication began to take precedence over form. This culminated in the approach which, at least in EFL circles, still holds sway today – Communicative Language Teaching – and paved the way for the reintroduction of authentic texts which were valued for the ideas they were communicating rather than the linguistic forms they illustrated. However, despite appeals for greater authenticity in language learning going back at least 30 years (O'Neill & Scott 1974; Crystal &

Davy 1975; Schmidt & Richards 1980; Morrow 1981), movements in this direction have been slow. The debate over the role of authenticity, as well as what it means to be authentic, has become increasingly sophisticated and complex over the years and now embraces research from a wide variety of fields including discourse and conversational analysis, pragmatics, cross-cultural studies, sociolinguistics, ethnology, second language acquisition, cognitive and social psychology, learner autonomy, information and communication technology (ICT), motivation research and materials development.

Unfortunately, many researchers limit their reading to their own particular area of specialization and, although this is understandable given the sheer volume of publications within each field, it can mean that insights from one area don't necessarily receive attention from others. With a concept such as authenticity, which touches on so many areas, it is important to attempt to bridge these divides and consolidate what we now know so that sensible decisions can be made in terms of the role that authenticity should have in foreign language learning in the future.

2. Defining authenticity

There is a considerable range of meanings associated with authenticity, and therefore it is little surprise if the term remains ambiguous in most teachers' minds. What is more, it is impossible to engage in a meaningful debate over the pros and cons of authenticity until we agree on what we are talking about. At least eight possible meanings emerge from the literature:

a) Authenticity relates to the language produced by native speakers for native speakers in a particular language community (Porter & Roberts 1981; Little et al. 1989).

b) Authenticity relates to the language produced by a real speaker/writer for a real audience, conveying a real message (Morrow 1977; Porter & Roberts 1981; Swaffar 1985; Nunan 1988/9; Benson & Voller 1997).

c) Authenticity relates to the qualities bestowed on a text by the receiver, in that it is not seen as something inherent in a text itself, but is imparted on it by the reader/listener (Widdowson 1978/9; Breen 1983).

d) Authenticity relates to the interaction between students and teachers (van Lier 1996).

e) Authenticity relates to the types of task chosen (Breen 1983; Bachman 1991; van Lier 1996; Benson & Voller 1997; Lewkowicz 2000; Guariento & Morley 2001).

f) Authenticity relates to the social situation of the classroom (Breen 1983; Arnold 1991; Lee 1995; Guariento & Morley 2001; Rost 2002).

g) Authenticity relates to assessment (Bachman 1991; Bachman & Palmer 1996; Lewkowicz 2000).

h) Authenticity relates to culture, and the ability to behave or think like a target language group in order to be recognized and validated by them (Kramsch 1998).

From these brief outlines we can see that the concept of authenticity can be situated in either the text itself, in the participants, in the social or cultural situation and purposes of the communicative act, or some combination of these. Reviewing the multitude of meanings associated with authenticity above, it is clear that it has become a very slippery concept to identify as our understanding of language and learning has deepened.

3. The gap between authentic language and textbook language

It has long been recognised that the language presented to students in textbooks is a poor representation of the real thing:

'…even the best materials we have seen are far away from that real, informal kind of English which is used very much more than any other during a normal speaking lifetime; and if one aim of the language-teaching exercise is to provide students with the linguistic expertise to be able to participate confidently and fluently in situations involving this kind of English, then it would generally be agreed that this aim is not being achieved at the present time.' (Crystal & Davy 1975: 2)

Although, in the intervening years since these comments were made, much has been done to redress the balance, there remain numerous gaps. Research into different areas of communicative competence through discourse or conversational analysis, pragmatics and sociolinguistics has exploded and, with our deepening understanding of how people make meaning through language, it has become clear that it is time for a fundamental change in the way we design our syllabuses:

'…awareness of discourse and a willingness to take on board what a language-as-discourse view implies can only make us better and more efficient syllabus designers, task designers, dialogue-writers, materials adaptors and evaluators of everything we do and handle in the classroom. Above all, the approach we have advocated enables us to be more faithful to what language is and what people use it for. The moment one starts to think of language as discourse, the entire landscape changes, usually, for ever.' (McCarthy & Carter 1994: 201)

What follows, is a review of some of the relevant research that supports the need for the paradigm shift, alluded to above. It is far from comprehensive but serves to illustrate how inadequate many current language textbooks are in developing learners' overall communicative competence.

4. Using Authentic Materials

Using authentic materials is one of the mainstays of an imaginative and motivating higher level course, but rarely features at levels lower than intermediate. There are several reasons for this, primarily a kind of fear that students will panic when faced with language that is largely unfamiliar, and a feeling that to prevent this the language should be edited to the students' level. This is an unnecessary fear, as using authentic materials can be rewarding and stimulating for both teacher and students.

4.1 Sources

When people first think of authentic materials they usually assume that we are talking about newspaper and magazine articles. However, the term can also encompass such things as songs, web pages, radio & TV broadcasts, films, leaflets, flyers, posters, indeed anything written in the target language and used unedited in the classroom.

The materials used, will of course, depend on the 'usual' factors:

topic

target language area

skills

students' needs and interests

It's no good trying to get your students fascinated by a text on the latest art movie if they are all fans of action films. You might as well save your time and energy and just use the text book!

4.2 Aren't authentic materials too difficult?

Yes they are, but that's the point! Your text, written or recorded, is likely to be too hard, even, in some cases, for advanced students. The trick, regardless of the text used, is not to edit and grade the text, but to grade the task according to your students' abilities. This is for three reasons: most importantly, it reflects the kind of situation your students may face in an English-speaking environment, it saves you time and energy (more of an added bonus than a reason) and lastly it encourages and motivates your students when they can 'conquer' a real text.

4.3 An example

The same text could be used in a variety of different ways. Let us take a tourist information leaflet. This kind of authentic material has the added advantage that it can be easily and swiftly ordered for free and in multiple copies from tourist boards and agencies. This also removes issues of copyright, which is a common problem of using authentic materials and should be checked depending on your particular situation. (Some countries allow a small number of copies to be made for educational purposes, but this can vary.)

With a little pre-teaching a low level class can use the leaflet to find out key information, 'What is the telephone number for..?' or 'When is..?' and so on.

At higher levels the same text could be used together with similar or related texts to form part of a research project (in this case, web sites, posters and similar leaflets spring to mind).

4.4 The question of levels

Naturally certain texts will lend themselves more easily to certain levels.

At lower levels some possibilities include leaflets, timetables, menus, short headline type reports, audio and video advertising, or short news broadcasts. The task should be simple and relatively undemanding, and it is important to pre-teach key vocabulary so as to prevent panic.

At more intermediate levels this list could be expanded to include longer articles, four or five minute TV or radio news reports, a higher quantity of shorter items, or even whole TV programmes, if your copyright agreements allow it. Again pre-teaching is important, although your students should be able to deal with unknown vocabulary to some extent.

At higher levels it's a case of anything goes. At an advanced level students should have some tactics for dealing with new vocabulary without panicking, but it's still useful to have a few quick definitions to hand for some of the trickier stuff!

4.5 Dealing with unknown language

As can be seen, a key skill here is dealing with unknown language, in particular vocabulary. It is hard to cover this topic here, as there are several methods, although one which seems immediately appropriate is the skill of ignoring it, if they can complete the task without it!

Especially with lower levels, it needs to be emphasised that students do not have to understand everything. I've found that students don't often believe you until you go through a few tasks with them. Teaching them this skill, and developing their confidence at coping with the unknown is an important element in their development as independent learners.

5. Conclusion

As can be seen, using authentic materials is a relatively easy and convenient way of improving not only your students' general skills, but also their confidence in a real situation. This is only a brief introduction to the ideas involved, but some of these ideas could easily be expanded to form part of a motivating and effective course.

If you have any suggestions or tips for using authentic materials in the class you would like to share on this site, contact us.

LECTURE 7: USING AND EVALUATING TEXTBOOK IN TEACHING ENGLISH

Lecture Outline:
Introduction
1. Types of Textbooks
2. English Textbook in Teaching and Learning
3. English Textbook Selection and Evaluation

Introduction

The spread of English as a global language of communication and the almost simultaneous advances in information and communications technology have led to a worldwide demand for up-to-date and user-friendly teaching materials. Publishing houses throughout the English-speaking world respond by producing mass-market coursebooks, designed to appeal to as many teaching and learning situations as possible, thus maximising their sales potential, but there have also been a number of recent initiatives involving the production of coursebooks designed to meet the needs of learners and teachers in a particular country or group of countries.

Textbooks provide novice teachers with guidance in course and activity design; it assures a measure of structure, consistency, and logical progression in a class; It meets a learner's needs or expectations of having something concrete to work from and take home for further study; It may provide multiple resources: tapes, CDs, videos, self-study workbooks etc. While the quality of ESL reading textbooks has improved dramatically in recent years, the process of selecting an appropriate text has not become any easier for most teachers and administrators. Thus, the paper discusses for evaluating reading textbooks for use in ESL/EFL classrooms. Classroom teachers spend much time using textbooks in class, so choosing an appropriate one is important. And the paper describes the role of the textbook. Using this will make the textbook selection process more efficient and more reliable.

Textbooks and related teaching and learning materials/media have been adapted continuously to the ever-changing and growing challenges and demands of learning English as a foreign language, to new findings in foreign/second language research and theory construction and to advances in information technology, scholarly views on the role of the textbook and recommendations on how to use it in everyday classroom practice very often reflect little more than personal opinion and/or common sense. Learning is simply the process of adjusting the environment to

accommodate new experiences. The administrative de-emphasis of the teacher in the second language classroom would suggest that teachers must learn how to integrate and organize content of a textbook to make learning an interactive and meaningful experience, as opposed to an act that can be completed alone by self-directed study with a textbook. A practical, thorough, and straightforward method for choosing ESL textbooks is to analyze the options according to program issues, going from broad to specific. The strategy behind this technique is to eliminate unsatisfactory textbooks at each stage of analysis so that only the most appropriate are left at the end, making the choice clear and manageable. Parrish (2004) describes benefits of using a textbook can meet a learner's needs or expectations of having something concrete to work from and take home for further study.

1. Types of Textbooks

Core series:

This is a sequence of books, usually from beginning through high-intermediate or advanced levels that sometimes includes a literacy level as well. The four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) are integrated, although according to Betsy Parrish, "many series put a stronger emphasis on listening and speaking skills development and have a life-skills focus." (2004, p. 25). The books include life-skills competencies, grammar and language functions, vocabulary, and often, American social and cultural information. Many series include many components (such as audiovisual elements, teacher materials, Web-based assistance, and assessment options). Most core series try to relate in some way to standardized assessments, national, state, and other standards.

Integrated-skills texts:

These books also provide practice in the four skills, but they are single texts rather than being part of a leveled core series.

Grammar texts:

Some books are core grammar series (going from beginning to advance) and include both presentation and practice for learners. Others are reference books not typically used as student texts, but useful for both teachers and learners as specific questions arise.

Skill-specific texts:

These books focus on one particular skill, such as listening, reading, speaking, vocabulary, or pronunciation.

Literacy texts:

Some books and other materials are designed specifically for learners who have had limited formal education (usually six or fewer years).

Content-based texts:

These books are focused on specific subject areas such as civics or citizenship, job-related topics, or academic preparation.

Dictionaries:

Picture dictionaries for beginning levels and a range of English-only dictionaries (from limited, with simple definitions to high advanced) for other levels can be useful for learners both in and outside of class.

2. English Textbook in Teaching and Learning

Textbooks remain a staple within school curricula worldwide, presenting teachers and students with the official knowledge of school subjects as well as the preferred values, attitudes, skills, and behaviors of experts in those fields. Textbooks are commodities, political objects, and cultural representations and, therefore, are the site and result of struggles and compromise in order to determine how and by whom they will be produced, how and by whom their contents will be selected, how and to whom they will be distributed, and how teachers and students will make use of them. The integration of language and content instruction is of increasing interest in second and foreign language programs at elementary, secondary, and tertiary levels around the world.

3. English Textbook Selection and Evaluation

The reliability of selecting and evaluating a commercial textbook is influenced by the target use group, the perspective used in making the selection and the instruments used in the process.

In some situations, the textbook may function as a supplement to the teachers' instruction in the ESL teaching and learning process. For most teachers, textbooks provide the foundation for the content of lessons, the balance of the skills taught, as well as the kinds of language practice the students engage in during class activities. For the ESL learners, the textbook becomes the major source of contact they have with the language apart from the input provided by the teacher. Prior to selecting a textbook, educators should thoroughly examine the program curriculum.

If the goals and curriculum of the program are clear and well defined, the parallels with certain textbooks may become obvious. For example, if one of the goals of the program is to give students an opportunity to interact with authentic texts, then books that use articles written for native English speakers would be appropriate. If the program focuses on developing reading fluency, books designed to support the development of reading skills would be appropriate. The textbook has a

process for developing curriculum that is based on a needs assessment of learners and includes participation and input from other stakeholders. The curriculum and instructional materials are easily accessible, up to date, appropriate for learners, culturally sensitive, oriented to the language and literacy needs of the learners, and suitable for a variety of learning styles. Sample Measures for Instructional Materials:

☐ They are up to date (e.g. published within the past 10 years).

☐ They contain relevant content.

☐ They take into account the linguistic and cultural diversity of the student population.

☐ The layout and formatting (including font size) is appropriate for the student population.

☐ Visuals and graphics are clear, appropriate for adults and culturally sensitive.

☐ Voice and sound in audiovisual materials are clear, authentic, and appropriate.

☐ The materials address a variety of learning styles.

☐ The materials are conducive to being used with a variety of grouping strategies.

☐ The materials contain exercises in which learners share previous experience with prior knowledge of the content.

According to Los Angeles Unified School District Textbook Evaluation (2002) research, the following model standards, current teaching strategies and methods are used to rate textbook effectiveness:

☐ Integrates four language skills: speaking, listening, reading, writing.

☐ Incorporates life skills included in course outline.

☐ Receptive skills before productive (listen/read before speak/write).

☐ Integrates different learning styles: aural, oral, visual, kinesthetic.

☐ Incorporates and varies different methodologies and techniques.

☐ Grouping strategies: individual, pair, group and team work.

☐ Incorporates higher level thinking skills and problem solving.

☐ Sufficient student practice.

☐ Grammar: taught in context; spiraling activities.

☐ Interactive/communicative approaches.

☐ Vocabulary: target vocabulary in lesson, recycled in lesson.

☐ Reading: pre-read, read, post-read activities; theme recycled.

☐ Writing activities integrated in text.

☐ Assessments and self evaluations at end of unit; final tests.

☐ Design and Format: illustrations, type size, color/black white, layout.

☐ Pace appropriate to level.

☐ Promotes cross-cultural awareness.

Rod Bolitho suggests some generic features of good coursebooks.

A good coursebook will:

(i) be appropriate to the context in which it is to be used, in terms of language and cultural content, length, grading and methodology

(ii) offer choices to teachers and learners

(iii) be valued by teachers and learners

(iv) contain language which has real world relevance and is, wherever possible, drawn from authentic sources

(v) contain tasks and activities to motivate learners

(vi) deal with topics which learners can identify with

(v) support learning outside the classroom.

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LECTURE 8: LEARNER AUTONOMY IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Introduction

Learner autonomy, especially in the field of foreign language learning was clearly articulated in the 1979 report prepared by Holec for the Council of Europe under the title of Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning. As for the philosophical background of learner autonomy, the starting point to encourage learners to become more autonomous is to have them accept the responsibility for their own learning.

According to Holec (1981), learners should be given the responsibility to make decisions concerning all aspects of their own special learning styles, capacities and needs. Fener and Newby (2000), Benson (1997) argue that constructivist theories of learning constitute the major theoretical background for the psychological aspect of learner autonomy. In view of pedagogical background, Fener and Newby (2000) point to the fact that each individual has a unique way of constructing his or her own world. Each generates rules and mental models so that they make sense of experiences. Learning is a search for meaning. Therefore, learning must start with issues around which students actively try to construct meaning. The key to succeed in learning depends on allowing each individual to construct his or her meaning, not make them memorize and repeat another person's meaning. In formal learning environments, learners can be enabled to construct their own personal learning spaces in accordance with their personal and educational needs. It seems that if learners are given a share of responsibility in the decision-making processes regarding dimensions such as pace, sequence, mode of instruction, and content of study, learning could be "more focused and more purposeful, and thus more effective both immediately and in the longer term" (Little, 1991, p.8). According to Benson, "the key idea that autonomy in language learning has borrowed from constructivism is the idea that effective learning is active learning" (2001, p. 40).

Autonomy is an elusive notion that is somewhat difficult to get hold of. In general, it denotes a significant measure of independence from external control. This is, however, balanced by our mutual dependence on each other in society. Thus, it is a question of social interdependence. According to Little (1991), autonomy is essentially a "capacity-for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, an

independent action" (p.4). The term autonomy has been used in five ways as follows (Benson and Voller, 1997, p. 2):

1. situations in which learners study entirely on their own,
2. an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education,
3. a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning,
4. the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning,
5. the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning.

Development of Autonomy through Language Teaching

Littlewood (1997) makes a detailed explanation on how autonomy develops in a language learner through the process of language learning. He starts his explanation by distinguishing three kinds of autonomy to be developed relevant to language teaching as follows: Language teachers aim to develop students' ability to operate independently with the language and use the language to communicate in real, unpredictable situations. Language teachers aim to help their students to develop their ability to take responsibility for their own learning and to apply active, personally meaningful strategies to their work both inside and outside the classroom. Helping their students to increase their ability to communicate and learn independently, language teachers also try to reach the goal of helping their students to develop greater generalized autonomy as individuals. Then, in language teaching teachers need to help students develop motivation, confidence, knowledge and skills that they require in order to communicate more independently, to learn more independently and to be more independent as individuals.

Autonomy and Language Learning

It is a commonly held view that language learning is greatly enhanced when a student has control over the goals and the content of a course of study (Little, 1991; Dam, 1995). Helping students to develop autonomous learning capacities can be approached in a number of ways. These approaches are often given under an umbrella term of learner training and may consist of awareness raising, scaffolding, strategy training, increased social interaction, and the encouragement of reflection.

Three pedagogical principles may be suggested to express the characterization of an autonomous learner in language classroom: 1. learner empowerment, 2. reflectivity, and 3. appropriate target language use (Little, 1991).

1. The Principle of Learner Empowerment

It entails that teachers bring their learners to accept responsibility for their own learning. A truly dialogic process entails joint exploration: teacher's understanding

should grow along with that of their learners. If it does not, that is a sure sign that teachers are standing outside the process, going through the motions rather than engaging with their teaching in the way that they demand their learners should engage with their learning.

2. The Principle of Reflectivity

It is already implied by the principle of learner empowerment. In the autonomous language classroom, reflection begins as a collaborative activity in which teacher and learners seek to make explicit their joint understanding of the process they are engaged in. Reflection must be pursued as a routine that retains this meaning because the scope of the learners' responsibility is always expanding outwards, which means that the reach of their reflection is always being extended. Reflection on the learning process is another key component of learner autonomy. By reflecting on the learning process, learners become aware of how and why they choose the methods and strategies they use in different projects, and for solving different tasks.

Being aware of the learning process helps makes them autonomous (Turloiu and Stefansdottir, 2011). Reflection is unlikely to progress far without the support of writing because:

1. It is by writing things down that we provide ourselves with something to reflect on in the first place.

2. It is easier for teachers to step back from their own utterances and thoughts when they have been written down,

3. The reflective process itself is greatly facilitated if teachers use written notes to help them work out what they think.

When reflection is explicitly focussed on the learning process, it is likely to take account of motivation and affect; but it should always try to focus on the specific quality of the experience that gave rise to positive or negative feelings. For that is how learners gradually become aware that a growing capacity for metacognitive control nurtures intrinsic motivation.

3. The Principle of Appropriate Target Language Use

It requires that from the earlier stages teachers must engage their learners in forms of exploratory dialogue that require them to use the target language to express their own meanings. They must help students to construct and maintain multiple scaffolding in writing and in speech; and they must include in appropriate target language use the activities required by the principle of reflectivity. The three principles of learner empowerment, reflectivity, and target language use do not refer to three discrete aspects of the language teaching-learning process. Rather, they offer

three closely related perspectives on one holistic phenomenon, the web of pedagogical dialogue that is partly in interaction between the participants in the process and partly in each participant's head. Their consistent and sustained pursuit produces a learning community in which teaching is learning, learning involves teaching, and language learning is inseparable from language use.

In an autonomous classroom the starting point is not the textbook but the learners. It should be considered that each member of the class has interests, and emotional as well as educational and communicative needs. It should be considered that learning is not a simple matter of the unidirectional transmission of knowledge, skills, and expertise. On the contrary, it is a bidirectional process, for anything can only be learned in terms of what we already know.

Learner autonomy comes into play as learners begin to accept responsibility for their own learning. But they can do this only within the limits imposed by what they already know and what they have already become. What is called the textbook approach to language teaching involves learning "from the outside in"; the textbook author's meanings are first learnt and then gradually adapted to the learners' own purposes. The autonomous approach, by contrast, insists that language is learnt partly "from the inside out", as learners attempt to express their own meanings for their own learning purposes (Dam, 1995). In the autonomous approach, learning is anchored in the achieved identity of the individual learner and the interactive processes by which learners collaboratively construct their shared learning space.

Ways to Foster Learner Autonomy in English Teaching and Learning

1. Teaching Learning Strategies

According to Oxford, learning strategies are "…. specific actions taken by the learner to make learning more easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations" (1989, p. 8). Strategies are the tools for active, self-directed involvement needed for developing L2 communicative ability (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Research has repeatedly shown that the conscious, tailored use of such strategies is related to language achievement and proficiency. In addition, Rubin and Wenden view learning strategies as "behaviours learners engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language" (1987, p. 6). In that sense, fostering learner autonomy involves cultivation of learning strategies. In order to learn autonomously, teachers should give students adequate training to prepare them for more independent learning. For the students, strategies have to be learned. The best way to do this is with "hands-on" experience. Students need to become independent, self-regulated learners. Self-assessment contributes to learner autonomy (Freeman and Anderson, 2011). Metacognitive strategies go

beyond the cognitive mechanism and give learners to coordinate their learning. This helps them to plan language learning in an efficient way. As Oxford (1990) states that metacognition refers to learners' automatic awareness of their own knowledge and their ability to understand, control and manipulate their own cognitive processes. Meta-cognitive is a term to express executive function, strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production, evaluating learning process.

Social strategies are very important in learning a language because language is used in communication and communication occurs between people. Three sets of strategies are included in this group: Asking Questions, Cooperating with others, and Empathizing with others. Among the three, cooperation with others eliminates competition and in its place brings group spirit. Studies show that cooperative learning results in higher self-esteem, increased confidence, and rapid achievement. Learners do not naturally apply cooperative strategies because of strong emphasis put on competition by educational institutions.

Sometimes competition brings a strong wish to perform better than others, but it often results in anxiety and fear of failure. It is important to help learners change their attitudes from confrontation and competition to cooperation.

Language learners need training in learning strategies in order to increase their potential and contribute to their autonomy. Indeed, the teacher should be a model in the use of strategy using. Three sets of strategies are included in this group: Lowering Your Anxiety, Encouraging Yourself, and Taking Your Emotional Temperature. Good language learners control their attitudes and emotions about learning and understand that negative feelings retard learning. Teachers can help generate positive feeling in class by giving students more responsibility, increasing the amount of natural communication, and teaching affective strategies. Techniques like self-reinforcement and positive self-talk which help learners gain better control over their emotions, attitudes, and motivations related to language learning (Oxford, 1993).

2. Using Cooperative Learning

Since cooperative language learning is an approach designed to foster cooperation rather than competition, to develop critical thinking skills and to develop communicative competence through socially structured interaction activities, these can be regarded as the overall objectives of CLL. Learners are directors of their own learning. They are taught plan, monitor and evaluate their own learning which is viewed as a compilation of lifelong learning skills. Therefore, cooperative learning is a powerful approach for learner autonomy. Cooperative learning incorporates five elements: positive interdependence; face-to-face interaction, individual accountability

and personal responsibility; interpersonal and small group skills and group processing. Positive interdependence occurs when group members feel that what helps all and what hurts one member hurts all. It is created by the structure of CL tasks and by building a spirit of mutual support in the group. Students are encouraged not to think competitively and individualistically, but rather cooperatively and in terms of the group. Teachers not only teach language; they teach cooperation as well.

3. Self-Reports

According to Wenden (1998), 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" (Wenden, 1998, p. 81). Introspective reports are assumed to provide information on the strategies learners are using at the time of the report.

4. Diaries and Evaluation Sheets

Perhaps one of the principal goals of education is to alter learners' beliefs about themselves by showing them that their supposed failures or shortcomings can be ascribed to a lack of effective strategies rather than to a lack of potential. Herein lays the role of diaries and evaluation sheets, which offer students the possibility to plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning, identify any problems they run into and suggesting solutions.

5. Learner Autonomy through Portfolio Creation

Portfolio creation leads to more autonomous learning. It includes planning yourself and achieving the plan, taking responsibility for your own role, setting goals for yourself, heading toward them and doing what you have to do, and making a decision about something on your own. Learners should have opportunities to discover what a portfolio is and the purposes of portfolio creation. They can do so by examining sample portfolios and sharing each other's work in progress. Also, the portfolio leads the learner to reflective and metacognitive process which is key factors in autonomy.

Thomsen (2010) revealed that the portfolio helped learners talk about their learning experiences, and assume an active role in their learning. Portfolios are convenient tools for teachers in the process of getting to know the learners closely as individuals and as learners of English. In addition, it is useful when choosing strategies for individual learners or groups of learners. The European Language Portfolio (ELP) supports the development of learner autonomy by self-assessment

and goal setting. The learners are expected to record how they progress in the target language and any intercultural experiences they may have during the learning process (Little, 2005). ELP is a document kept by language learners, at school and outside school, to log and reflect on their learning and cultural experiences when learning a language. The ELP aims to motivate learners and help them keep a comprehensive record of their linguistic and cultural skills. It acknowledges their efforts to develop and diversify their language skills at all levels. One of its various objectives is to build up learners' motivation by improving their communicative skills in the target languages.

6. Teacher Roles

For the implementation and development of learner autonomy, teachers play an important role because they are responsible for developing a learning environment conductive to promoting learner autonomy. However, it is pointed out that in order to promote learner autonomy in the teaching contexts, teachers need freedom so that they can apply their own autonomy in teaching.

Learner autonomy is based on the idea that teachers teach how to learn. Therefore, teachers, first, recondition learners while assisting them to develop a conscious awareness of their language learning strategies and their effectiveness, and their beliefs about the language learning process. Additionally, teachers train learners to gradually become more active, reflective and critical thinkers in using learning strategies for their own learning as well as encouraging them to initiate experimental practice inside and outside classroom. Moreover, teachers involve learners in the decision making process. Teachers encourage learners to set up reachable learning goals based on the feedback from evaluation and selfassessment. Learner autonomy requires teachers to act as catalysts, discussants, consultants, observers, analysts, facilitators and counsellor to stimulate the learning process in various ways (Little, 1991). Furthermore, teachers are supportive, patient, tolerant, emphatic, open and non-judgmental. To support learner autonomy, teachers consider learners as their partners in achieving common goals.

For the promotion of learner autonomy in foreign language classes, teachers help learners set objectives, plan works, select materials, evaluate themselves, and acquire the skills and knowledge needed. Teachers also change students' concepts about the traditional role of the teacher and the learner in the classroom.

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LECTURE 9: USING TRANSLATION IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Lecture Outline:
Introduction
1 The origins of pedagogical translation
2 Translation in the classroom: pros and cons
Conclusion

Introduction

A discussion of translation pedagogy requires that a distinction be made between two types of translation, which are called pedagogical translation and real translation. Pedagogical and real translation differs from each other on three counts: the function, the object, and the addressee of the translation.

As regards function, pedagogical translation is an instrumental kind of translation, in which the translated text serves as a tool of improving the language learner's foreign language proficiency. It is a means of consciousness raising, practising, or testing language knowledge.

There is also a difference concerning the addressee of the two kinds of translation. In real translation it is a target language reader wanting some information about reality, while in pedagogical translation the addressee is the language teacher or the examiner, wanting information about the learner's proficiency.

1 The origins of pedagogical translation

The use of translation for the purposes of language teaching is bound to be associated with the Grammar-Translation Method, which was first employed in the secondary schools of Prussia at the end of the 18th century. The method appeared as a reaction to a social need, as the teaching of modern languages to masses of learners required changes in earlier practices of language teaching. The Grammar-Translation Method was a modified version of the ancient Scholastic Method, which was traditionally used to study the written form of the classical languages through a meticulous lexical and grammatical analysis of classic texts. This method involved,

as a natural component of language learning, producing translations of parts of the original text.

The Grammar-Translation Method aimed to make the language learner's task easier by using, instead of whole texts, artificially made-up sentences illustrating particular grammatical features. Such graded example sentences were translated into or out of the target language in writing. Thus the Grammar-Translation Method, while bringing changes to the structure of the syllabus and the materials used, also preserved the focus of the Scholastic Method on grammar and on written language.

In ancient Rome, there were basically three levels of education. In the elementary classes children learned, beside other skills, to read and write. They then moved on into grammar school, where they received further linguistic instruction. After finishing the grammar school, at around the age of 13, they could enrol in a rhetorical school, providing education for would-be orators, which included studying texts by renowned authors, learning the techniques of argumentation, acquiring the skills of producing and embellishing texts for effect.

Since in the imperial age Rome became practically bilingual, in the grammatical classes Latin as well as Greek texts were used for educational purposes. This would lead to the practice of relying on translation as a tool for analysing and interpreting the contents of literary works. As in the grammatical classes the focus was on the analysis of lexical items, the interpretation of texts took the form of a kind of word-for-word translation.

As opposed to this kind of literal translation done in the grammatical schools, in rhetorical schools children were instructed in a more sophisticated, literary form of translation. According to Pliny, this practice has the following advantages: It enriches one's vocabulary, increases the number of figures of speech one can use, develops the ability of interpretation, and through the imitation of the best writers it makes us able to produce similarly good texts, because translation forces us to notice such details as would escape the attention of a simple reader.

2 Translation in the classroom: pros and cons

The usefulness of translation in the practice of foreign language teaching has long been brought into question. The objections against the use of translation in language teaching seem to be a reaction which was evoked by the obvious shortcomings of the Grammar-Translation Method, the dominant form of language teaching until the 20th century.

The first voice to cry out against the use of translation in foreign language teaching came from the Reform Movement of the late 19th century, and it was

followed by a wave of renewed attacks by proponents of the Audio-Lingual, the Direct, the Natural, and the Communicative Language Teaching Methods throughout the 20th century. The Reform Movement was based on three fundamental principles: (a) the primacy of speech, (b) the importance of connected text in language learning, and (c) the priority of oral classroom methodology. On this basis the use of isolated, out-of-context sentences, especially in written translation tasks, can be considered detrimental to the process of foreign language acquisition, because it hinders the contextualised or situationalised use of language in spoken communication.

The problem with the use of translation in language teaching is that translation into the native language is bound to mislead the learner, because the semantic units of different languages do not match, and because the student, under the practised stimulus of the native form, is almost certain to forget the foreign one.

In other words, the problem is twofold. The first is that translation conceals the differences that exist between the systems of the two languages, and the second is that translation, by providing the wrong sort of stimulus, fails to reinforce correct foreign language behaviour. It is easy to notice the theoretical driving forces of the criticism here: structural linguistics and behaviourism. The behaviourist conception of language learning was introduced by the psychologist B. F. Skinner in his book Verbal Behaviour. In this book he describes language as a form of behaviour and argues that the first language is acquired by the infant through a stimulus – response – reinforcement cycle, and that language performance arises largely as the result of positive or negative reinforcement. This idea of language learning as habit formation, along with the view of language as a structural system, lead to the rise of the Audio-Lingual Method of second language teaching, which made use of constant structural drills in the target language followed by instant positive or negative reinforcement from the teacher. Clearly, in such a methodology, translation could not have a role to play.

Many teachers believe that English should be taught monolingually; that the ideal language teacher is a native speaker; and that if other languages are used, the standard will drop. They also think that translation should not be used to make life easier for teachers and students.

Although the only use of the target language may create stress in the classroom, but this stress remains useful and helpful.

Methodologists mention the following reasons for not using translation in language teaching:

• The use of translation in foreign language teaching causes interference.

• Translation can inhabit thinking in the foreign language and can produce compound bilingualism rather than coordinate bilingualism.

• The use of translation in foreign language teaching makes learners assume that there is one-to-one correspondence of meaning between native language and foreign language.

• This study showed that teachers are divided over the issue of using or not using translation in language learning and teaching with slight inclination towards not using translation.

Translation can be a useful activity, if used properly, in language teaching and learning. According to Duff (1994), "translation develops three qualities essential to all language learning: accuracy, clarity and flexibility. It trains the learner to search (flexibility) for the most appropriate words (accuracy) to convey what is meant (clarity)."

According to Newmark (1991), translation is a useful tool to be used in the elementary, intermediate and advanced stages of language learning. In the elementary stage, translation is useful as a brief time saver, and translation from L1 to L2 may be useful as a form of control and consolidation of basic grammar and vocabulary.

In the primary level, using translation can make learning meaningful because the learner is an active participant in the process. For beginners, of course, it is useful because it expounds grammar and teaches vocabularies. In the intermediate level, "translation from L2 to L1 of words and clauses may be useful in dealing with errors and it is "useful for the expansion of vocabulary. In the advanced level, "translation from L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 is recognized as the fifth skill and the most important social skill since it promotes communication and understanding between strangers. Also, translation assists advanced learners' reading comprehension and vocabulary building.

Teachers may use L1 in classroom management or to teach grammar. When using translation, grammar becomes less frightening and more accessible if students are allowed to use their mother tongue and thus notice the similarities and differences between their mother tongue and the target language.

Also, translation can be used to give the meanings of new words. There are numerous ways of conveying the meaning of an unknown word. These include a definition in L2, a demonstration, a picture or a diagram, a real object, L2 context clues, or an L1 translation. In terms of the accuracy of conveying the meaning, none of these ways is intrinsically better than any of the others. (Nation, 2001).

Furthermore, giving the meaning of words in L1 enhances comprehension. Research shows that L1 glosses provided by teachers or looked up in a good bilingual dictionary are beneficial for text comprehension and word learning.

In addition, translation can be used as a postreading procedure to evaluate students' comprehension of a text.

According to researches students most frequently use translation to learn English vocabulary words, idioms, phrases, grammar, to read, write, speak English, to check their reading and listening comprehension.

The mother tongue may be useful in the procedural stages of a class, for example: setting up pair and group work, sorting out an activity which is clearly not working, checking comprehension and using L1 for translation as a teaching technique.

The following are the cases where teachers may use L1, when:

1) Starting beginner classes to make students feel more comfortable when facing the enormous task of learning a foreign language.

2) L1 is used for the purpose of contrastive analysis, i.e. to introduce the major grammatical differences between L1 and L2.

3) The teacher's knowledge of students' L1 can also help him understand the learner's mistakes caused by interference.

4) L1 is used to explain complex instructions to basic levels.

5) L1 is used to get feedback from the students about the course, the teacher's approach, evaluation of teaching styles, etc.

Other methodologists suggest the following uses of L1: classroom management, language analysis, presenting grammar rules, discussing cross-cultural issues, giving instructions, explaining errors and checking for comprehension. According to Cook, mother tongue can be used positively by the teacher in the L2 classroom in many ways: to convey the meaning, to organize the class, and students can use L1 to explain tasks to one another (Cook, 2001).

Schweers (1999) mentioned the following suggested uses for L1 in the EFL classroom:

1) Eliciting Language. "How do you say `X' in English?"

2) Checking comprehension. "How do you say I've been waiting for ten minutes in Spanish?" (Also used for comprehension of a reading or listening text.)

3) Giving complex instructions to basic levels

4) Co-operating in groups. Learners compare and correct answers to exercises or tasks in the L1. Students at times can explain new points better than the teacher.

5) Explaining classroom methodology at basic levels

6) Using translation to highlight a recently taught language item

7) Checking for sense. If students write or say something in the L2 that does not make sense, have them try to translate it into the L1 to realize their error.

8) Translation items can be useful in testing mastery of forms and meanings.

Conclusion

So should translation have a role to play in foreign language teaching? It seems from the above discussion that there are some good reasons in favour of the inclusion of translation exercises in the foreign language syllabus or, at least, that there are no fundamental reasons for its exclusion. The objections to the use of translation in foreign language teaching are all based on a limited view of translation. But translation is not only structure manipulation; it is primarily a form of communication. And as such, it necessarily involves interaction and cooperation between people, which makes it a potentially very useful device in foreign language teaching. Obviously, this answer leads to a number of other questions, concerning the level of language proficiency at which translation may be most useful, the kinds of translation exercises that may be useful, or the purposes which translation may usefully serve in language teaching.

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LECTURE 10: COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING (CLT)

Lecture outline:
1. What is CLT?
2. CLT origins and reasons for its popularity
3. The Features of CLT
4. Common Misconceptions Regarding CLT
5. Barriers to CLT
6. Principles of CLT

1. What is CLT?

CLT is a language teaching approach based on the linguistic theory of communicative competence. Developing communicative competence in learners is the goal of CLT. CLT emphasizes "humanism," which focuses on students' needs and individual affective factors; advocates several language-learning principles, as opposed to an articulated learning theory; and draws from several language teaching methods. Therefore, CLT is an approach rather than a method of English language teaching (ELT).

2. CLT origins and reasons for its popularity

CLT was developed in the UK in the 1960s and 1970s and popularized by the British Council and the Council of Europe. CLT was a reaction to language teaching methods that seemed ineffective (e.g., grammar/translation [GT], audiolingual method [ALM]) in developing learners "who can communicate both orally and in writing with native speakers in a way appropriate to their mutual needs" (Ellis, p. 214). English has become the international language of commerce, science, and technology. As a result, many people around the world are now experiencing

"English fever," which is a great desire to learn English, especially how to engage in conversation in English.

3. The Features of CLT

- Focus on negotiation of meaning and meaningful communication (rather than linguistic structures)

- Focus on active learning and active learners (collaboration among learners and purposeful interactions)

- Focus on the affective domain of the classroom and creating a language-learning environment that supports risk-taking by the learners, i.e., a community of learners

- Focus on "whole learner," i.e., learner with his/her own learning style + person with emotions and individual needs

- Focus on teachers as facilitators

- Use of "authentic" materials, i.e., materials aimed at native English speakers rather than ESL learners, and realia, i.e., real objects from a native-English speaking culture, such as an advertisement

- Use of a variety of strategies, which address different learning styles and language skills

- Tolerance for errors

- Teaching of target language culture(s) to accompany language teaching

4. Common Misconceptions Regarding CLT

CLT does not teach grammar

It was Stephen Krashen, not CLT advocates, who spoke against explicit grammar teaching. Dr. Krashen's second language acquisition (SLA) theory, the Monitor Model, inspired the development of the Natural Approach and Focal Skills in ELT. CLT advocates urge that grammar be taught inductively (guiding students to discover the rules themselves, as in linguistics data problems) rather than deductively (the teaching of rules). However, because adult learners possess analytical skills, they sometimes demand and often benefit from explicit grammar teaching. Grammatical analysis and drills do not dominate CLT classrooms because CLT teachers realize that learners learn more by using the language than by learning about the language.

CLT teaches only speaking.

CLT is based on the linguistic theory of communicative competence, which includes more than just negotiating meaning through oral interaction alone. Communicative competence includes the following components:

grammatical competence;

psychomotor (pronunciation) competence;

lexical (vocabulary) competence;

discourse (overall organization of an oral or written utterance, coherence or unity of topic, and cohesion or sentence-to-sentence fluency) competence;

strategic (overall fluency and linguistic spontaneity) competence;

sociolinguistic (cross-cultural awareness) competence;

pragmatic (culturally appropriate rhetoric and paralinguistic behaviors) competence.

CLT uses only pair work and/or group work in the classroom.

CLT teachers tend to use a lot of pair work and group work in the classroom in order to highlight the interactional nature of real language. However, individual work is also a part of a CLT classroom.

CLT uses only English in the classroom.

The CLT teacher does not hesitate to use the learners' native language to expedite learning. Usually such native language use is limited to clarifying a vocabulary item or a complex grammatical structure.

CLT encourages fossilization in learners.

CLT teachers tolerate errors, but they are aware that developing communicative competence includes learners' developing interlanguages, or learners' own understanding of how the language works, which is often flawed until learners develop a higher proficiency level of their interlanguages. CLT teachers look for patterns of errors in a learner, rather than all the mistakes, and the CLT teachers correct the patterns. CLT teachers do not focus on accuracy at the expense of fluency or communicativeness. CLT teachers aim first for fluency, then for accuracy.

5. Barriers to CLT

- High English language proficiency required of teachers

- Test preparation required of teachers/ use of national, regional, and/or local non-communicative tests

- Large class sizes (e.g., 50-60 students in a single class) for one teacher to handle

- Fixed furniture, physically small classroom

- Lack of teacher training in effective CLT strategies

- Lack of practice among teachers in using effective CLT strategies

- Expected classroom behavior among teachers and students in certain cultures

- Much time on the part of the teacher needed for preparing effective CLT activities

- Much time required in the classroom for implementing effective CLT activities

6. How can teachers overcome these barriers?

If necessary, improve oral/aural proficiency.

Try to develop an "eclectic" English teaching approach, which incorporates some traditional English teaching strategies along with CLT strategies.

The following guidelines have been developed in China to support teachers developing a CLT approach:

*Teaching should start with listening and speaking.

*Drills on language form should not be excessive.

*English should be used in class.

*Use of translation should be limited.

*Audio-visual aids like realia, pictures, over-head transparencies, audio-tapes, videos, computers should be fully utilized.

*The teacher's role should be a facilitator and helper to guide students to develop effective learning habits.

*Teachers should be aware of the individual differences among students in the learning process.

*Appropriate encouragement should be given to students to reinforce their initiatives.

7. Principles of CLT

Principle 1: Use Tasks as an Organizational Principle

For decades traditional methods of language teaching have used grammar topics or texts (e.g., dialogues, short stories) as a basis for organizing a syllabus. With CLT methodologies this approach has changed; the development of communicative skills is placed at the forefront, while grammar is now introduced only as much as needed to support the development of these skills.

Such an approach to syllabus design has become known as task-based instruction (TBI). The rationale for the employment of communicative tasks is based on contemporary theories of language learning and acquisition, which claim that language use is the driving force for language development.

ILLUSTRATION 1

Organizing a welcome dinner (see Appendix 3 for the entire lesson)

Step 1. Students organize the group of international students around three dinner tables. For example, a student might say: "On table 1, Andrew Smith and Sandra Mogambe sit next to each other, because they both speak Spanish and collect butterflies."

Step 2. Students listen to new information about the students given to them by their Spanish teachers and if necessary rearrange students at the tables.

Step 3. Students provide some personal information about themselves. Then they choose a student from their own group, who also wants to attend the welcome dinner, and select a table for this student.

Step 4. Now you are going to revise your distribution and write a brief report.

Step 5. A representative from each group presents their report and justifies the group decision.

Step 6. The groups and the teacher compare the results.

Principle 2: Promote Learning by Doing

A task-based approach to learning implies the notion of learning by doing. This concept is not new to communicative language teaching methodologies, but it has been recognized and promoted as a fundamental principle underlying learning throughout history by many educators. It is based on the theory that a hands-on approach positively enhances a learner's cognitive engagement. In addition, as Doughty and Long (2003) remind us, "new knowledge is better integrated into long-term memory, and easier retrieved, if tied to real-world events and activities" (p. 58).

In research on SLA, the "learning by doing" principle is strongly supported by an active approach to using language early on. For example, Swain suggests that learners need to actively produce language. Only in this way can they try out new rules and modify them accordingly. According to Omaggio-Hadley (2001), learners should be encouraged to express their own meaning as early as possible after productive skills have been introduced. Such opportunities should also entail a wide range of contexts in which they can carry out numerous different speech acts. This, furthermore, needs to happen under real conditions of communication so the learner's linguistic knowledge becomes automatic (Ellis 1997).

Principle 3: Input Needs to Be Rich

Considering the rich input we each experience and are exposed to while developing our native tongue, growing up speaking in our native languages means that we are exposed to a plethora of language patterns, chunks, and phrases in

numerous contexts and situations over many years. Such a rich exposure to language ultimately allows us to store language in our brains that we can retrieve and access as whole chunks.

Principle 4: Input Needs to Be Meaningful, Comprehensible, and Elaborated

A fundamental prerequisite for learning to occur is that the information we process must be meaningful. This means the information being presented must be clearly relatable to existing knowledge that the learner already possesses. This existing knowledge must be organized in such a way that the new information is easily assimilated, or "attached," to the learner's cognitive structure. The necessity of meaningfulness is not in particular new to CLT. Throughout the history of language teaching, there have always been advocates of a focus on meaning as opposed to form alone, and of developing learner ability to actually use language for communication. Meaningfulness, however, has emerged as a primary principle of CLT—and as a counter-reaction to audiolingual teaching, which was criticized for repetitive drills that did not require the processing of language so the content made sense or was meaningful to learner.

Principle 5: Promote Cooperative and Collaborative Learning

In general education, cooperative or collaborative learning has long been recognized as a strong facilitator of learning. In such an approach, classrooms are organized so that students work together in small cooperative teams, such as groups or pairs, to complete activities. In second language learning environments, students work cooperatively on a language-learning task or collaboratively by achieving the goal through communicative use of the target language. Particularly in the latter case, if the learning tasks are designed to require active and true communicative interaction among students in the target language, they have numerous benefits on attainment.

Principle 6: Focus on Form

One of the debates about grammar teaching centered on the issue of whether to make grammar explicit or whether to have the learners figure out the rules themselves. In this context, explicit means that the rules become salient or are laid out to the learner at one point during the course of instruction. Although not everybody agrees, research provides ample evidence for the benefits of making grammar rules explicit to adult language learners. Within explicit ways of teaching grammar, Long (1991) conceived a further distinction between what he calls "**focus on form**" and "**focus on formS.**" A focus on **formS** approach represents a fairly traditional approach to teaching grammar where "students spend much of their time in isolated linguistic structures in a sequence predetermined externally and imposed

on them by a syllabus designer or textbook writer . . .," while meaning is often ignored. In contrast, a focus on form approach to explicit grammar teaching emphasizes a form-meaning connection and teaches grammar within contexts and through communicative tasks. Doughty and Long (2003) point out that overwhelming empirical evidence exists in favor of a focus-on-form approach, hence they proclaim it a fundamental methodological principle in support of CLT and task-based language instruction.

Principle 7: Provide Error Corrective Feedback

In a general sense, feedback can be categorized in two different ways: positive feedback that confirms the correctness of a student's response. Teachers demonstrate this behavior by agreeing, praising, or showing understanding. Or, negative feedback, generally known as error correction, which has a corrective function on a student's faulty language behavior. As learners produce language, such evaluative feedback can be useful in facilitating the progression of their skills toward more precise and coherent language use. Both types are vital during a learner's interlanguage development since they allow the learner to either accept, reject, or modify a hypothesis about correct language use. The study of feedback in learning situations has a long history. In language learning, many research studies have documented that teachers believe in the effectiveness of feedback and that students ask for it, believe in the benefits of receiving it, and learn from it. Yet the degree to which information provided through feedback aids a learner's progress is not always clear. Such a claim can be illustrated by what teachers frequently experience; namely, that their students, after receiving feedback, often keep making the same mistakes—or even when they get it right initially, many still fall back into their previous and faulty language behavior. Achieving positive effects with error corrective feedback involves a long-term process that depends on corrective strategies and most of all on individual learner factors.

For example, in a classroom study of the effectiveness of various feedback techniques, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that recasts—that is, when a teacher repeats a student's faulty language production, but in a correct way—were the most widespread response to learner error. Yet recasts were in fact the least effective in eliciting learners to immediately revise their output. Instead, direct error corrective strategies that involved the teacher's help—such as providing metalinguistic clues or clarification requests—were the most effective in stimulating learner generated repairs.

Principle 8: Recognize and Respect Affective Factors of Learning

Over the years, consistent relationships have been demonstrated between language attitudes, motivation, performance anxiety, and achievement in second language learning. Needless to say, all teachers eventually experience how learners feel about the target language or how their attitudes toward it impact their motivation and subsequently their success. A learner who is motivated wants to achieve a particular goal, devotes considerable effort to achieve this goal, and experiences in the activities associated with achieving this goal.

One characteristic of language learning that has received a great deal of attention over the past years is the role of anxiety during the learning process. In particular, with active language performance as a major goal of CLT, anxiety has been noticed as a trait with many individual learners. Anxiety manifests itself in many ways such as self-belittling, feelings of apprehension, stress, nervousness, and even bodily responses such as faster heartbeat. Numerous studies have corroborated what Krashen contended in his Affective Filter hypothesis, which states that language learning must take place in an environment where learners are 'off the defensive' and the affective filter (anxiety) is low in order for the input to be noticed and gain access to the learners' thinking.

There is a clear negative relationship between anxiety and learning success. Anxiety as a personal trait must be recognized and kept at a minimal level for learning to be maximized.

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Lecture 11: Second Language Acquisition Theories

Introduction

Interest in second language learning and use dates back many centuries, but it is only since the 1960s that scholars have formulated systematic theories and models to address the basic questions in the field of SLA: (1) What exactly does the L2 learner know? (2) How does the learner acquire this knowledge? (3) Why are some learners more successful than others? As I noted earlier, different approaches to the study of SLA can be categorized as primarily based on linguistic, psychological, and social frameworks. Each of these perspectives will be the subject of a separate chapter, although we should keep in mind that there are extensive interrelationships among them.

Important theoretical frameworks that have influenced the SLA approaches which we will consider are listed in table 2.3, arranged by the discipline with which they are primarily associated, and sequenced according to the decade(s) in which they achieved relevant academic prominence: Prior to the 1960s, interest in L2 learning

was tied almost exclusively to foreign language teaching concerns. The dominant linguistic model through the 1950s was Structuralism, which emphasized the description of different levels of production in speech: phonology (sound systems), morphology (composition of words), syntax (grammatical relationships of words within sentences, such as ordering and agreement), semantics (meaning), and lexicon (vocabulary). The most influential cognitive model of learning that was applied to language acquisition at that time was Behaviorism, which stressed the notion of habit formation resulting from S-R-R: stimuli from the environment (such as linguistic input), responses to those stimuli, and reinforcement if the responses resulted in some desired outcome. Repeated S-R-R sequences are "learned" (i.e. strong stimulus-response pairings become "habits"). The intersection of these two models formed the disciplinary framework for the Audiolingual Method, an approach to language teaching which emphasized repetition and habit formation that was widely practiced in much of the world at least until the 1980s. Although it had not yet been applied to second language concerns, Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (1962 in English translation) was also widely accepted as a learning theory by mid-century, emphasizing interaction with other people as critical to the learning process. This view is still influential in SLA approaches which are concerned with the role of input and interaction.

Table 2.3

Timeline	Linguistic (Chapter 3)	Psychological (Chapter 4)	Social (Chapter 5)
1950s and before	Structuralism	Behaviorism	Sociocultural Theory
1960s	Transformational-Generative Grammar	Neurolinguistics Information Processing	Ethnography of Communication Variation Theory
1970s	Functionalism	Humanistic models	Acculturation Theory Accommodation Theory
1980s	Principles and Parameters Model	Connectionism	Social Psychology
1990s	Minimalist Program	Processability	

Linguistic

There have been two foci for the study of SLA from a linguistic perspective since 1960: internal and external. The internal focus has been based primarily on the work of Noam Chomsky and his followers. It sets the goal of study as accounting for speakers' internalized, underlying knowledge of language (linguistic competence),

rather than the description of surface forms as in earlier Structuralism. The external focus for the study of SLA has emphasized language use, including the functions of language which are realized in learners' production at different stages of development.

Psychological

There have been three foci in the study of SLA from a psychological perspective: languages and the brain, learning processes, and learner differences.

Languages and the brain The location and representation of language in the brain has been of interest to biologists and psychologists since the nineteenth century, and the expanding field of Neurolinguistics was one of the first to influence cognitive perspectives on SLA when systematic study began in the 1960s. Lenneberg (1967) generated great interest when he argued that there is a critical period for language acquisition which has a neurological basis, and much age-related research on SLA is essentially grounded in this framework. Exploratory procedures associated with brain surgery on multilingual patients, as well as the development of modern noninvasive imaging techniques, are dramatically increasing knowledge in this area.

Learning processes

The focus on learning processes has been heavily influenced by computer based Information Processing (IP) models of learning, which were established in cognitive psychology by the 1960s. Explanations of SLA phenomena based on this framework involve assumptions that L2 is a highly complex skill, and that learning L2 is not essentially unlike learning other highly complex skills. Processing itself (of language or any other domain) is believed to cause learning. They have been especially productive in addressing the question of how learners acquire knowledge of L2, and in providing explanations for sequencing in language development. Processability is a more recently developed framework which extends IP concepts of learning and applies them to teaching second languages.

Connectionism is another cognitive framework for the focus on learning processes, beginning in the 1980s and becoming increasingly influential. It differs from most other current frameworks for the study of SLA in not considering language learning to involve either innate knowledge or abstraction of rules and principles, but rather to result from increasing strength of associations (connections) between stimuli and responses. Because this framework considers frequency of input an important causative factor in learning, it is also providing a theoretical base for research on language teaching.

Learner differences

The focus on learner differences in SLA has been most concerned with the question of why some learners are more successful than others. It arises in part from the humanistic framework within psychology, which has a long history in that discipline, but has significantly influenced second language teaching and SLA research only since the 1970s (see Williams and Burden 1997). This framework calls for consideration of emotional involvement in learning, such as affective factors of attitude, motivation, and anxiety level. This focus also considers biological differences associated with age and sex, as well as some differences associated with aspects of processing.

Social

Some of the frameworks that I categorize within a social perspective can also be considered linguistic, since they relate to language form and function; some can also be considered cognitive, since they explore learning processes or attitude and motivation. We will review them in this section because (in addition to linguistic and cognitive factors) they all emphasize the importance of social context for language acquisition and use. There are two foci for the study of SLA from this perspective: microsocial and macrosocial.

Conclusion

For a variety of reasons, the majority of people in the world know more than one language. The first language is almost always learned effortlessly, and with nearly invariant success; second language learning involves many different conditions and processes, and success is far from certain. This may be at least partly because older learners no longer have the same natural ability to acquire languages as do young children, and because second language learning is influenced by prior knowledge of the first and by many individual and contextual factors. This lecture has identified a number of theoretical frameworks which provide the bases for different approaches to the study of SLA that we will consider. All of these approaches address the basic what, how, and why questions that we posed, but they have different foci of interest and attention. Linguistic frameworks differ in taking an internal or external focus on language; psychological frameworks differ in whether they focus on languages and the brain, on learning processes, or on individual differences; and social frameworks differ in placing their emphasis on micro or macro factors in learning. Like the lenses with different color filters used in photographing Mars, these complement one another and all are needed to gain a full spectrum picture of the multidimensional processes involved in SLA. Even so, much remains a mystery, stimulating continued research.

Lecture 12: Research Methods in Language Teaching and Learning

Lecture Outline:

Introduction

1. Types of Research

2. Classroom Research Forms

3. Observation

4. Ethnography

5. Case Studies

References and Further Reading

Introduction

Any teacher sooner or later starts to summarise the gained experience trying to explain the failures and reasons the success. So called "practitioner research" can be of great importance for other teachers, language learners and formal researchers as are based on data which can be gained inside actual classrooms and can serve as a source of theoretical and empirical knowledge about second language acquisition (SLA). Moreover, for language teachers in the system of higher education research is a part of their job. However, having set even a narrow research goal, practitioners often face the problem of a relevant research method.

1. Types of Research

The type of the research to great extend is defined by the data to be collected and analysed. According to Ellis and Barkhuizen [Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005] three types of data are commonly used in SLA research:

- performance data that do not involve production (measures of reaction times, non-verbal measures of comprehension, grammaticality judgement tests);
- samples of learner production (naturally occurring samples, clinically elicited data, experimentally elicited data);
- verbal reports from learners about their own learning (self-report, selfobservation, self-revelation, self-assessment).

2. Classroom Research Forms

Various branches of SLA research tend to favour different kinds of data. The descriptive works on language-use data gave grounds for claims about "order" and "sequence" of acquisition. Studies of individual learner differences mainly make use of different types of verbal reports. Classroom interaction is studied by the group of research methods which allows investigators to observe and describe the interactional

events taking place in a classroom. These data contribute to understanding how learning opportunities are created and how different kinds of classroom interaction lead to learning. Nunan makes a distinction between **"classroom research"** and **"classroom-oriented research"** [Nunan 1991]. **Classroom research** means investigating learners inside real classroom environment, while **classroom-oriented research** consists of studies carried out outside the classroom in a "laboratory" setting. According to Ellis [Ellis 2008: 777] SLA classroom research follows two general approaches: **descriptive** and **confirmatory**. In its turn, descriptive studies can be **qualitative** or **quantitative**.

Zuengler and Mori describe descriptive research as ones focusing on "the form and functions of classroom interaction, how these interactions are shaped and become meaningful, and what the implications may be for students' learning" [Zuengler and Mori 2002: 283]. Within **descriptive research** the following tools are used:
- interaction analysis;
- discourse analysis;
- conversational analysis;
- ethnography of communication.

3. Observation

A number of ways to study classroom learning and teaching have been developed by researchers. **Observation schemes** in researchers anticipate the occurrence of particular events and behaviours and make note of them within preplanned frameworks or checklists. One example of such schemes is Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Observations schemes described by Spada and Fröhlich. COLT is divided into two parts. Part A describes teaching practices in terms of content, focus, and organization of activity types. Using it the observer can record, for example, whether the pedagogical activities are teacher- or learner-centred, whether the focus is on the language form or meaning, and whether the students can choose the topics for discussion. Part B describes specific aspects of the language produced by teachers and students, for example, how much (how little) language students produce, whether their language production is restricted in any way, the kinds of questions teachers ask, and whether and how teachers respond to learners' errors.

4. Ethnography

Another type of descriptive research is **ethnography**. In SLA research ethnographies do not focus only on learning or teaching but also on social, cultural, and political realities and their impact on learner' cognitive, linguistic, and social development. The observer tries to understand a group of community from within its

own perspective. This type of research needs extensive periods of observation as well as consultations with group member to validate the observer's descriptions [Lightbrown and Spada 2011].

Confirmatory research differs from the descriptive research in that it is typically theory-driven, aiming to compare different instructional approaches, to test specific hypotheses, or to identify relationships between pre-determined variables. Ellis notes that "well-designed experimental studies have the following features: participants randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups, a pre-test, both an immediate and a delayed post-test to establish if any learning has taken place and is durable" [Ellis 2008: 781] **Think-aloud protocols** (TAP) is a data-gathering method which is used in different research areas. In this method a person or a group of people are asked to verbalise their thought processes as they do a specific task which are then recorded on paper, audio or video for further analysis. Think-aloud protocols involve the verbalization of thinking during reading, problem solving, or other cognitive tasks (Oster, 2001; Schunk, 2004) Participants might verbalize commentary, questions, generate hypotheses, or draw conclusions while solving some tasks. Thus, think-aloud protocols may serve as a research tool, a means of instruction as well as a method of assessment [Sahebkheir 2014].

5. Case Studies

One of the approaches to investigate SLA has involved the detailed study of individual second language learner. These are **case studies** that cover an extended period of time and involve both naturalistic and instructed language learners. Case studies provide data about the general course of SLA as well as individual differences among learners [Koutsompou 2014]. It should be mentioned that a distinction is usually drawn between **"formal research"** and **"practitioner research"**. Formal research is conducted by an external researcher drawing on the established research traditions and is designed to contribute to theoretical understanding and developing SLA issues. Practitioner research is carried out by teachers in their own classrooms and aims to solve practical problem. Practitioners and researchers are encouraged to replicate the conducted studies to prove or argue against the findings gained by others [Ellis 2008:948]. A **replication study** is a good way to start researching. This is a study to see whether the findings of the original study might be applied to other situation with other participants and if the original study possesses reliability and validity. But nevertheless in any situation a research must be well designed to be able to achieve its goal.

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Technologies of teaching vocabulary

1. Teaching English vocabulary
The questions to be discussed:

1.1. The role of vocabulary in FLT.

1.2. What is vocabulary and what should be taught?

1.3. Different approaches to recognition of lexical (vocabulary) complexity.

1.4. Selection of vocabulary minimum.

1.5. Stages and ways of teaching vocabulary.

Key terms: vocabulary, word, lexicon, formal, functional, semantic, style, active (productive) minimum, passive (receptive) minimum, combinative, stylistic, frequency, word-building, polysemantic words, synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, context, definition, interpretation, static stage, dynamic stage, criteria of selection, pre-activity, while-activity, post-activity.

1.1. The role of vocabulary in FLT

The term «curriculum» includes the totality of the knowledge that is expected to be imparted to the learner in a school, lyceum or college. It provides a comprehensive plan on which the entire system of learning and teaching can be based. Hence, the curriculum should plan the use of receptive and productive skills, mastery of vocabulary, and acquaintance with the culture and literature of the people who use English as their first language[82].

words are appropriate and relevant for students age and stage. What words can form the 'productive' or 'active' vocabulary? The teacher also should decide which words she/he wishes her/his students merely to recognize. In other words, what words are considered as the 'receptive' or 'passive' vocabulary. The production of words (while speaking or writing) in the target language takes much greater efforts from the learner. Of course, in productive vocabulary, the learner has an advantage to choose the word he wishes to use: whereas in receptive vocabulary (as in listening or reading) he has to handle with the language level of the speaker or writer.

1.2. What is vocabulary and what should be taught?

Vocabulary can be defined, roughly, as the words we have to teach in a foreign language class. However, a new item of the vocabulary may occur not in the form of a single word: for example, *pen-holder* and *merry-go-round*, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea. There are also multi-word idioms such as *take the bull by the horns*, where the meaning of the phrase cannot be deduced from the analysis of the component words. A useful convention would be to cover all such cases as vocabulary «items» rather than «words». It is also called mental lexicon that is «vocabulary in mind»[83]. It consists of the smallest independent meaningful units of speech. These units of speech are called words. The words have the word forms and meanings assigned to them. Words in the mental lexicon create lexical networks. Once activated, a lexical item stimulates the spreading of other associated lexical items, which in its turn causes the activation of a bigger network. Mental lexicon is stored in our memory and it is the process of mapping the meanings in the mind and putting these memory traces into some word groups. Mental lexicon performs the functions of word storage, retrieval, comprehension and use. The storage of words in the mental lexicon is the result of a person's cognitive processes in real-world situations. As a result of cognitive processes, the words make up the situation sets (associated with

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[83] Ur P. A Course in Language Teaching. Practice and theory. -Cambridge: CUP, 2003. -Pp. 82-90.

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1.5. Stages and ways of teaching vocabulary

The process of development of vocabulary subskills in the English classrooms proposes three stages.

Stage I is related to the presentation of a new vocabulary. The aim is to introduce a new word and disclose the meaning of each word. Ways and techniques to convey the meaning of a word are:

Direct way

- dictionaries – used in conveying the meaning of a word;
- synonyms– items that mean the same, or nearly the same; for example, *clever, smart* may serve as synonyms of *intelligent;*
- antonyms– items that mean the opposite; *rich* is an antonym of *poor;*
- hyponyms – items that serve as specific examples of a general concept; *dog. lion, mouse* are hyponyms of *animal;*
- morphological analysis (word building) – *You may wish to teach the common* prefixes *and suffixes: for example, it learners know the meaning of sub-, un- and -able,* this will help them guess the meanings of words like *substandard, ungrateful* and *untranslatable.* They should, however, be warned that in many common words the affixes no longer have any obvious connection with their root meaning (for example. *subject, comfortable).* New combinations of prefixes are not unusual, and the learner is expected to gather the meaning from understanding of the components *(ultra-modern, super-hero).* Another way to learn the vocabulary structure is combining two words (two nouns, or a gerund and a noun, or a noun and a verb) to make one item: compound word, or two separate, sometimes hyphenated words *(bookcase, follow-up, swimming pool).*

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- contextual guessing – understanding the meaning through the context, or previous experience;
- definitions – explanation of meaning in English with the words familiar for learners;
- examples – situational and interesting information which can motivate learners;
- interpretation – if there is no equivalent in the native language;
- matching – synonyms, antonyms;
- analysis of the structure – familiar components of the word;
- making list of family words – finding the meaning of the general word via familiar words;
- familiar or famous (international) words.

Visual
- demonstration of school paraphernalia or drawings on the black board (realia);
- illustration material-pictures / objects;
- models;
- demonstration of movements, mime, body language;
- pictograms, pictures, schemes.

Translation
- giving an equivalent;
- translation-interpretation;
- comparing a foreign word to the native language word.

The choice of a successful way of semantization depends on the following factors:

1) whether the word belongs to the active (productive) or passive (receptive) vocabulary minimum;

2) on the stage of learning: at the junior level – visual techniques, speech-patterns, translation; at the intermediate level – synonyms, antonyms, word-building analysis; at the senior level - context, definitions;

3) on the level of the language performance of the learners in a certain stage of education;

4) on the qualitative characteristics of a word.

While introducing new vocabulary can be used direct and indirect ways for semantization. The more effective way is direct as definition, context, etc.

CASE STUDIES

Case Study 1: Neatter and Boreder
How to deal with unexpected problems and the need for teachers.
by Richard Watson Todd

Teaching was turning out much better than Jeremy had expected. Having finished university with a reasonable degree but not feeling like joining the rat race, he had decided to postpone making decisions about his long-term future by taking a year 'off' to teach English in Greece. He had taken a one-week TEFL introductory course at a price that seemed exorbitant given the amount he had learnt from it, and answered some of the classified ads in The Guardian. He was now reasonably close to his idea of paradise - living fairly lazily on a Greek island.

The teaching part of his life had initially worried him, but now with three weeks' teaching under his belt, he found he quite enjoyed it and was gaining confidence all the time. Lying on the beach, a bit bored with the novel he was reading, his mind turned to Monday's lessons. He was a bit surprised at how conscientious he was turning out to be. Even though he didn't start teaching on Monday till after lunch, he had already prepared his lessons. Nearly all the courses at the private school Jeremy worked at followed a coursebook, but the Director of Studies encouraged the teachers to adapt and supplement the materials. Last week, she had given Jeremy a couple of tips on how to add a bit of spice to his lessons, and he planned to try them out on Monday.

His first lesson on Monday was a group of schoolkids. He liked them for their enthusiasm and determination to have fun, and he had found that, if he played along with them a little bit, he enjoyed himself too. Monday's lesson concerned comparatives. The coursebook started with a rather dry conversation comparing city life and life in the country. The Director of Studies had suggested that he use a couple of the outspoken boys in his class, get them to come out in front of the class, and ask the class questions like "Who is taller?" and "Who is older?" Jeremy thought that this would be fun, both for his outgoing students and for him.

On the Monday, the students seemed even chirpier than usual. Jeremy chose two of the fashionable, assertive boys to come to the front. He started asking questions to the class about the two boys, and the class eagerly shouted back answers. Soon, a couple of the two boys' friends at the back started shouting out "Who is stupider?' and "Who is uglier?" Jeremy was actually quite happy with this. He knew the two boys at the front wouldn't mind too much and he was pleased that his students were producing sentences using the target language without prompting.

After a couple of minutes of near uproar, Jeremy quietened the class down so that he could explain the language. On the board he wrote:

Nikolas is taller than Dmitri.

Dmitri is older than Nikolas.

He explained that two people or two things could be compared by adding -er to an adjective followed by than, and highlighted the relevant parts of the sentences on the board. Jeremy didn't particularly like giving explanations, especially with these lively teenagers, since they interrupted the fun in the lesson. He wanted to move on quickly to getting the students into groups to write up silly comparisons, but he was stopped by Adriana, one of the more serious girls, who asked:"The book have City life is more expensive than country life. Why not expensiver than?" Jeremy had to think quickly. He remembered there was something about this in the teacher's book, but he found the teacher's book boring and hadn't paid any attention to it.

"OK", he said, "some adjectives use -er and some use more", hoping he could now get on with the groupwork.

Adriana, however, was persistent. "Why? How you know?"

Jeremy was forced to think on his feet. "Well, long adjectives use more. Short adjectives use -er."

Sensing that Jeremy was unsure of his ground, the students set up a barrage of questions.

"What about narrow?"

"Um, narrower."

"What about friendly?"

"Friendlier."

"What about unfriendly?"

"Unfriendlier."

"But unfriendly is long word."

"What about quiet?"

"Quieter."

"What about clever?"

"More clever."

"What about stupid?"

"Um, more stupid."

"Why hotter have two Ts?"

"Er, because the T is after a vowel."

"What about neat?"

"N-E-A-T-T-E-R." Jeremy felt this was wrong, but wanted to be consistent.

"What about bored?"

"Er, more bored."

"But bored is short word."

"OK, boreder then." As soon as he said this, Jeremy prayed that his students would forget it.

"What about easy?"

"Easier."

Adriana, who had started the whole thing off, now brought it to a close. "What is the rule?", she asked.

Jeremy didn't know what to say. He couldn't think of a rule for comparatives. "Well, it's very difficult. It's easier if you learn word by word." He carried on with a few illustrations on the board, and thankfully after a couple of minutes he was able to move on to the long-awaited groupwork.

In his break after the lesson, Jeremy thought back over what he had told the students. He was sure some of it was wrong. He checked in the teacher's book, found the rules, but even they didn't explain all of the students' questions. What should he do in the next lesson? Should he humbly admit his mistakes? But he didn't want to lose face and worried about the students' respect for him. Should he forget it and hope that the students would also forget what he had taught them? But what if they didn't? It might come back to haunt him later. Should he just tell the students the rules from the teacher's book? But he felt that these rules weren't enough, and some comparative adjectives he was certain about broke the rules. Should he try to formulate his own rules? But he wasn't confident enough about his own knowledge, and what if the rules he gave the students were wrong? That would be worse than giving a few incorrect examples. Jeremy was at a loss for what to do, and went into his next lesson less than his usual cheerful self.

QUESTIONS

1. One possible reason for Jeremy's problems is that his planning for the lessons was inadequate. Although he may have prepared sufficiently concerning his teaching techniques, he clearly did not consider the content of the lesson adequately. In addition to teaching techniques and content, are there any other areas that a teacher should prepare for while planning? How much time do you think a teacher should spend on planning? How important are plans to the success of a lesson?

2. If Jeremy were to prepare for the lesson again, one hopes that he would prepare himself in terms of the content. Where can teachers find information about grammar points such as comparatives? If you have access to several sources of information,

which provides the most helpful information? Why do you think this source is the most helpful?

3. One of our responsibilities as teachers is to be knowledgeable about the content of our teaching, in our case, knowledge about language. This is termed language awareness. When you were reading the case study, could you formulate the rules for using -er and more in comparatives? What about the spelling rules? Do your rules explain all of the words which the learners asked Jeremy about? Are there any areas of English grammar which you find confusing and nearly impossible to explain? How can you develop your language awareness in these areas?

4. The case study states that Jeremy finds the teacher's manual boring. Do you share his feelings or do you find teacher's books helpful and interesting? If you were writing a coursebook, what information would you include in the teacher's manual? How would you present this information?

5. Jeremy's self-image as a teacher and his relationships with the learners affect how he tries to overcome his lack of knowledge. When Adriana asks him for a rule, Jeremy avoids the question. Why doesn't he answer "I don't know"? Do you think teachers should admit when they don't know the answer? How will this affect teacher-learner relationships?

6. Similarly, Jeremy considers admitting his mistakes, but is worried about losing face. How do learners react to a teacher who admits his/her mistakes? Is there a danger of losing learners' respect? Can you think of any ways that you might admit your mistakes and build relationships with the learners at the same time?

7. What do you think Jeremy should do between now and his next lesson with the same class? What should he do in that lesson? Why do you think this is the best approach available to him?

Further reading

Introductions to lesson planning can be found in Cross (1991), Purgason (1991) and Watson Todd (1997). Tips on how to prepare yourself while planning are given by Medgyes (1994), and Bailey (1996) contrasts planning and dealing with the unexpected. Planning is also the concern of Case Study 1. Many grammar books provide information about language useful for both teachers and learners. Books designed for learners but of use to teachers include Murphy (1985) and Willis (1991). Of the grammar books for teachers, among the most accessible are Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983) and Swan (1995), while Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) and Quirk et al. (1985) are massively comprehensive, if a little technical. Language awareness is clearly explained in Sharwood Smith (1994), and Thornbury (1997) is an interesting collection of tasks and activities aiming to raise teachers' langauge

awareness. Teacher's books are considered in Cunningsworth (1995), Nunan and Lamb (1996) and Werner et al. (1995). Lastly, teacher-learner relationships are discussed in Head and Taylor (1997) and in Wright (1987) from the perspective of roles, and Bailey et al. (1996) examine how learners perceive teachers.

TECHNOLOGIES OF TEACHING GRAMMAR

2. Teaching English grammar
The questions to be discussed:

2.1. Cognitive aspect of acquiring grammar.
2.2. Selection of the grammar material.
2.3. The factors and ways of developing grammar subskills.
2.4. Principles of teaching grammar.

Key terms: grammar, grammar acts, grammar mechanisms, grammar phenomenon, factors, active and passive grammar minimum, productive and reproductive speech, speech patterns, grammar unit/item, criteria of selection, grammar subskills, grammar exercises.

2.1. Cognitive aspect of acquiring grammar

There are a number of reasons why there occur different concepts about «grammar» when one comes across this term. While it is perceived as a part of Linguistics in the course of mother tongue at the secondary school, in teaching/learning foreign language it is considered to be the grammatical side of the speech. According to various scientific sources the word «grammar» could be limited in two notions: 1) the grammatical side of the speech − structural organization of ideas in speaking, listening, reading and writing (e.g., using articles; speech patterns; verb forms of the person adequately to the context) and 2) grammar phenomenon and abstractions (e.g., the first place of the subject in the sentence; the plural form of the noun).

There is a wealth of literature on methodology where one can see such terms as acquiring «grammar mechanisms» as developing grammar subskills and others. The term «mechanism» is used to describe the events in action. It is more decent to use in short «grammar mechanisms» (V.S.Setlin) than «using grammar elements in speech activity».

V.S. Setlin has divided the process of acquisition of the grammar mechanisms into three parts: 1) acquiring grammar actions; 2)

Grammar phenomena are taught for developing grammar subskills with the aim to communicate. The process of developing students' grammar subskills is organized within three stages:

1. Presentation stage, in which we introduce the grammar structure, either inductively or deductively. There are a variety of techniques and resources that can be used during this stage. Selection of them should be made according to teacher strengths, student preferences, and the nature of the grammar phenomenon.

2. Focused practice stage, in which the learner manipulates the structure in question while all other variables are held constantly.

The goal of this stage is to allow the learner to gain control of the form without pressure and distraction trying to use the proper form of communication.

3. Communicative practice stage, in which the learner is engaged in communicative activities to practice the structures being learned.

It is necessary to pay attention also to teachers' feedback and error correction which can take place throughout the aforementioned two stages, in particular, on the 2-d stage when correction should be predominantly straightforward and immediate; on the 3-d stage communication should not be interrupted, but the teacher should take notes of the errors and deal with them after the communicative exercises.

Moreover grammar facts presented in the speech patterns are introduced orally to learners at the lower and middle stages of education, and in written form at the middle and higher stages. Grammar phenomenon is presented via speech pattern or a rule, or via lexical approach. There are two kinds of rules: rule-instruction and rule-generalization.

The rule-instruction is a mental activity aimed at using or reading/listening comprehension of structures, in psycholinguistics the rule is studied in speech issues, this program is called algorithm. Introducing the rule is the advance guiding base directed to providing speech act. In other words, a rule can be defined as a base of speech practice.

The rule-generalization is a simple theoretical information related to grammar material that was learned in the process of speech acquisition. The rule should be laconic, clear and accurately formulated directed to using or recognizing grammar phenomenon.

The rule and model are methodological notions with the same essence. The usage of the model provides capturing of the structural form in person's mind. Verbal abstraction is expressed by words occurred discursively. The speech patterns play the role of samples for composing sentences. Discursiveness must be limited as much as possible.

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1. Analyze the ways of presentation of the active and passive grammar in the EL coursebooks of school, lyceum and college.
2. Work out the grammar exercises related to one theme.

Independent work:

1. Analyze the grammar exercises presented in the EL coursebooks for school, lyceum and college in accordance with the given questions.
- Is practice for grammar subskills included?
- Do the presentation and practice activities include the integration of other language subskills and skills?
- Does the subskills-work-progress in terms of complexity and difficulty, in line with the grammatical progression of the course?
- Is the reading/listening text used for introducing new grammar items?

Case Study 2: Over Their Heads

Designing and adapting materials and teaching English for specific purposes.
by Richard Watson Todd

Kim had been working at a private language school in a small town in Spain for nearly 18 months now, and planned to continue for another six months before she went back to the UK to look for something more permanent. The school, like the town, was small, and nearly all the courses were for adolescents. Although Kim still enjoyed the classes full of vibrant teenagers, recently she had been growing a bit bored with the lack of variety and was on the lookout for a new challenge to revitalise her teaching. When David came to talk to her about a small hi-tech company which had contacted the school about in-company classes, she felt that this might be the challenge she needed.

David was the Director of Studies at the school and a long-term resident in the town. He was central to the management of the school and the owner relied on him a lot. He had set up all the courses, produced the materials and even written out

suggested plans for all the lessons. Since his suggestions generally worked well, this made life easy for the teachers at the school.

David explained to Kim that the company wanted its white-collar staff to be able to use English in their work, and that this would involve teaching such skills as reading instruction manuals, understanding and writing business correspondence, and speaking on the telephone. Kim realised that content like this would be the refreshing change she was looking for, but was worried that she wouldn't be capable of preparing lessons on these topics. She was reassured when David went on to explain that, although he would be back in the UK when the course started, he would talk to the company about the course, design the syllabus and prepare the materials for her to use before he went. Kim readily accepted the responsibility of teaching the course.

Over the next three weeks, David was busy preparing the course which was to cover forty hours in two lessons a week over ten weeks. Occasionally, he would call Kim to his office and explain to her how the course and the materials would work, so that by the Saturday he left for his holiday, Kim felt well-prepared and confident about the course.

The next Tuesday was the first day of the course and the company sent a van to pick Kim up. Arriving at the factory, she was treated well and taken to a well-appointed room that was to be her classroom. The staff taking the course all trooped into the room in the next five minutes which suggested that the company was taking the course seriously. There were twelve learners in the class, evenly split into men and women, and all aged in their late twenties and early thirties. Kim felt happy and thought the situation looked promising.

For the first lesson, David had suggested an easy-going getting-to-know-you introductory lesson with no overt business focus to help Kim establish relationships with the learners before the 'real work' began. He had suggested an adaptation of the warm-up lesson for upper-intermediate learners at the school, which Kim was familiar with. This started with a small New Name activity which the learners at the school usually found easy and interesting. They would try to translate their name into English and find the nearest English equivalent to their name. Following this, there was a "Find a person who ..." questionnaire (with questions such as "Find a person whose favourite childhood toy was a teddy bear") which learners usually found amusing.

The lesson didn't go as well as Kim had expected. The learners showed little interest in the task, but instead dourly went through the procedure of asking their classmates for information. In addition, they had some surprisingly large gaps in their vocabulary and some of them had difficulty formulating questions to ask their classmates. Two of the men, Manuel and Juan, in particular, seemed to be having big problems coping with even the simplest English; one of the women, Sophia, resolutely refused to have anything to do with the task; and the rest of the learners appeared reluctant and unsure of what they were doing. Kim hoped that these were just teething problems for the course, perhaps because the company staff had not been in the role of learners for several years. She felt that the second lesson with more technical, business-oriented language probably familiar to the learners would be more of a success.

The lesson on the next Friday, however, was a disaster. Focusing on instruction manuals, the prepared lesson aimed to help the learners understand the organisation of instruction manuals and analyse the language used. From the beginning of the lesson, Kim found herself doing all the talking while the learners watched her with blank faces. When, after ten minutes of the lesson, Juan put his hand up and asked "What mean 'manual'?", Kim realised that she had been talking completely over their heads. The rest of the lesson was a nightmare. Kim vainly tried to follow the lesson plan that David had prepared, but it was all way beyond the learners' level. The lesson had changed from the joint exploration of the language of instruction manuals that David had intended into a desperate succession of teacher explanations of unknown vocabulary by Kim.

When the two hours were up, Kim felt released. The lesson had been her worst ever teaching experience. In the van home, however, it struck her that she would have to teach the learners again the next Tuesday. The materials she had available were obviously completely inappropriate. This weekend she would have to come up with something different. David wouldn't be back from his holiday for another two weeks, and the other teachers at the school had no experience of preparing materials or of business English. She was on her own. How on earth could she come up with any useful, appropriate, business-oriented materials by next Tuesday?

Questions

1. Kim's immediate preoccupation is that the materials are too difficult for the students. In a situation like this, there are three choices facing the teacher: to discard the existing materials and design new materials from scratch, to adapt the existing

materials to make them more appropriate for the learners, and to find other ready-made materials as a replacement. Which of these choices do you think would be the most suitable for Kim? Why?

2. If Kim decides to design new materials, how should she do this? What are the stages in materials design? Do you think that these stages represent an idealised design process or can they be followed in practice?

3. If Kim decides to adapt the existing materials, on what bases should she decide what aspects of the materials to retain and what aspects to discard? Is there anything she should be particularly wary about when she adapts the materials?

4. If Kim decides to replace the existing materials, how can she find other ready-made materials? If she finds several possible alternative sets of materials, how can she decide between them? What criteria can guide her decision?

5. Another aspect of the case study that we can consider is why Kim sees the problems with the materials as so serious. This can be viewed as a longer-term problem of staff development. David, although presumably usually efficient, does not see staff development as part of his duties as Director of Studies. Rather than helping the teachers at the school become competent and independent at non-classroom aspects of teaching, such as materials design, David takes the whole of this work himself. How could David help the staff at the school develop?

6. The materials described in the case study are specifically aimed at business, focusing on the language used in business communication and revolving around business topics. David, in designing such materials, would presumably argue that business learners need English for business and that the best way to prepare such learners is to provide them with English used in business situations. An alternative viewpoint is that, by providing the learners with business English only, they are being limited to a specific area of English rather than being exposed to English in all its wide uses and so are missing out on a broad English education. Are there any other viable viewpoints? Which do you agree with? Why?

7. The case study talks about materials "way beyond the learners' level". As teachers we often use the word level as a term of convenience to descibe learners' competence. Although convenient, the term level has many problems. First, it is difficult to define. Does it refer to the students' ability in grammar, the size of their vocabulary, their fluency, some other aspect of language, or a combination of these? Second,

comparing the levels of two learners is problematic, since all learners' interlanguage is idiosyncratic. Third, it is very difficult to describe a given level, so that we are usually at a loss if a colleague asks us, "What level is your class?" Do you think that the convenience of level outweighs these problems? If you believe that the term level is useful, how can you define it and how would you describe the level of one of your classes?

Further reading

In deciding whether to design, adapt or replace, Block (1991) argues the case for materials design, Nunan (1991) argues against adaptation, and Robinson (1991) looks at the pros and cons of design and replacement. Nunan (1991) also includes an 8-stage model for designing materials, which it is interesting to compare with the checklist in Dubin and Olshtain (1986) and the process of materials design given by Jolly and Bolitho (1998). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggest a different approach particularly applicable to ESP materials design such as the business English materials in the case study. Brown (1995) and Maley (1998) describe the process of materials adaptation with detailed examples. For evaluating materials as possible replacements, a whole book (Cunningsworth, 1995) is devoted to the subject, and Brown (1994), Ellis (1997) and Jordan (1997) also provide useful guidelines. Impey and Underhill (1994) and White et al. (1993) look at the responsibilities of people in management positions in ELT, such as David, including their responsibilities for staff development. The arguments for and against using materials for specific purposes are humorously presented in Widdowson (1984). Lastly, the problems in defining students' communicative competence are accessibly examined in Omaggio (1986).

CHAPTER 2. Teaching communicative skills in English

1. Teaching listening in English
The questions to be discussed:

1.1. Cognitive process of listening as a type of speech activity.
1.2. Difficulties in teaching listening comprehension.
1.3. Ways and stages of developing listening skills.

Key terms: listening comprehension, bottom-up and top-down models of processing, cognitive mechanism, kind of memory, schemata, frame, script, scenario, linguistic/language skills, acoustic perception, teaching listening, pronunciation subskills, listening practice, sounds discrimination, multiple skills, audio text,

1.1. Cognitive process of listening as a type of speech activity

The ability to hear is a natural process that develops in all normal infants. Indeed, most of us begin to hear sounds before we are even born. The physical components of listening process combine with the cognitive development in a child, resulting in sophisticated listening skills. The ability to discriminate sounds at a very early age appears to be evident not only in the mother tongue but in other language, too. The natural ability to hear, however, is often mistaken for fully developed skills that needs no further fine turning. It is necessary to understand that L1 listeners (the mother tongue) often need training in how to listen just as much as FL listeners do.

1.2. Difficulties in teaching listening comprehension

According to some scholars listening is influenced by the following factors:
- Inner factors (interest, level of attention and concentration, conviction of significance of the information, degree of development of phonemic memory, individual peculiarities of pupils' quick-wittedness, reaction and quick transfer from one intellectual operation to another, etc) which are strictly personal;
- Outer factors (the linguistic structure of an audio-text, its content, some situational factors).

Some training specialists specify some other difficulties of listening –extra-linguistic and linguistic ones.

I. To the extra-linguistic difficulties we refer:
- the volume of the auditory memory;
- a kind of speech to be listened to;
- tempo of speech. From the very beginning period of teaching tempo of speech must be normal (200-250 syllables/min);
- the number of presentation and the volume of an utterance. The volume and character of a text for LC in junior classes – descriptive texts consisting of 3-6 sentences (1-2 min.), at the intermediate stage – 10-15 sentences (2-3 min.), in senior stage – 20-25 sentences (3 min.);
- peculiarities of the speaker's timbre
- props and reference – points of perception:

a) semantic (intonation, rhythm, pauses, logical stress, parenthetical phrases);

b) formal props (pictures, title);

c) visual verbal props (voc. notes).

II. The linguistic difficulties are:

a) phonetic (phonemic oppositions, or contrast sounds: short-long, voiced-voiceless, different intonation patterns and their meaning), tempo, indistinct (defective) pronunciation;

b) lexical (antonyms, lexical constructions, interruptions, etc. are difficult to comprehend); homonyms, paronyms;

c) grammatical (tense forms, elliptical words and sentences, analytical forms);

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1.3. Ways and stages of developing listening skills

In the secondary schools listening process is a part of the active learning process to help students to acquire a certain level of listening skills.

Thus listening is a complex skill which deserves special attention. The teacher should realize what key task can be most important for students, in particular:

- prediction skills;
- scanning abilities for extracting specific information;
- skimming abilities for getting the general idea;
- abilities for extracting detailed information;
- the ability to recognize function and discourse pattern;

The teacher needs instructional model that accounts not only for the core factors of how listeners process information (bottom-up, top-down, integration process) but also all the dimensions that may affect the way messages are perceived and processed.

Listening comprehension is developed by doing the necessary tasks shaped as a system or complex. From the first lesson of FLT in schools is paid attention to the development of listening skills.

It is necessary to point out that the grammatical and lexical material that is assimilated by learners in speaking and reading is also regarded to teaching listening. Teacher's speech is important for students listening skills development because it is a sample of the English language. Teacher should organize English classrooms in English.

Listening comprehension (LC) exercises are leading during the lesson. The goal of practical lesson is to get information in English. Content of speaking and listening/ reading materials is assimilated by listening.

LC as a means of teaching is used as 1) a way of introduction of the language material in oral form (in a talk, in speech patterns); 2) a means of developing well-set acoustic images of language phenomena (words) together with their meanings, which is ensured by multiple perception of the same material by the ear; 3) a means of acquiring pronunciation subskills because giving only instruction won't help learners to pronounce a sound other than their mother

tongue if they don't hear how it is pronounced by a teacher or by the speaker; 4) a means of mastering can be technique of reading aloud.

LC as the means of teaching allows multiple listening of one and the same speech material while LC as a communicative activity constitutes a skill of speech comprehension by ear at single (presented but once) perception (presentation).

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 received text.

Listening to the spoken language involves hearing the sounds, recognizing words, understanding different accents, understanding intonation, coping with «noise» (external interference and indistinct pronunciation), recognizing sentences, predicting the meaning, understanding a whole discourse.

There are different ways of teaching LC in practice. One of them is teaching language materials firstly then language skills. Via this method all student should must study words and word phrases, sentences then students' attention is paid to content of the learned material. This method is considered as inefficient because it take much time.

The second way is developing integrative skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing. This method is more effective in teaching LC, because students have opportunity to practice LC during writing, reading and speaking on the basis of the concrete language material (language units and texts). As resources for teaching listening technical tools such as radio, tape recorders, language laboratories, internet resources – audio, video can be used.

Perception and comprehension are difficult for learners because they should discriminate speech sounds quickly, retain them while

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Questions:

1. What are difficulties in teaching listening skills?
2. Tell about mechanism of listening process?
3. Does practice listening in the language lab help you to develop English skill?
4. How does it promote your learning?
5. Do watching movies or using videos help to develop listening comprehension? Prove your statements.
6. How does interaction with students and teacher help you to improve listening skills?
7. What kind of exercises are used for forming listening skills?

Tasks:

1. Listen to the dialogue which is recorded by non-native speakers. Do you understand their speech? Analyze differences in voice, intonation and think about specificity of the lingua franca.
2. Think about special ways or remedy exercises for teaching listening comprehension to young learners.
3. The listening exercises are given below as samples. Choose the text and make up exercises to the pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening stages.
- listening and filling in the gaps;
- listening and ticking lexical items and grammar structures used in the text;
- listening and answering questions;
- listening and ticking the true or false statements;
- listening and completing the chart
- listening and commenting on the content of the text;

Case Study 3: You've Gotta Give it a Go
How teachers can simplify their language to make it understandable.
by Richard Watson Todd

"All right, you lot. Now, what we're going to do today is we're gonna work on your listening, you know, how to get what people are talking about, how to spot what's important, that sort of stuff. So, just check you got that, what're we gonna do?"

The class of 30 second-year economics undergraduates, who had been noisy and lively when he came in, were now silent. Most were looking at the work on their desks, studiously avoiding Peter's eyes. Peter decided he would wait until someone volunteered an answer. After nearly a minute of uncomfortable silence, he gave up.

"Come on, you lot. The other teachers tell me you're an alright group. I know we're only just getting to know each other - start of term and all that, but I think you're a good bunch. If you wanna learn English though, you've gotta give it a go. You've gotta have a stab at answering questions, you've gotta put yourself forward and speak out. So let's give it another try. What're we gonna do today?"

Rina gingerly put her hand up.

"Yeah, you over there, what d'you reckon?"

"Listening?", said Rina uncertainly.

"Spot on. Good stuff. At least one person here's got the guts to have a shot at it. Why don't the rest of you?"

Peter started to explain two listening strategies, listening for gist and identifying key points. Throughout his explanation, the students looked restless and, unlike the normal behaviour of Indonesian students, continuously whispered to each other. Their behaviour changed, however, when Peter handed out the worksheets. All the students suddenly became studious, read through the worksheets carefully, and concentrated while listening to the passages from the tape recorder.

After the lesson, Peter took the students' completed worksheets to his office to mark. He had worked through about half when Cherie, who shared the office with him, came in.

"I just don't get it", said Peter. "These second-year economics students are a strange lot. I'm marking their listening exercises now. They're excellent. The lowest is seventeen out of twenty."

"Oh, them", interrupted Cherie. "Yes, they're a really good group of students. There aren't any weak students in that class. I took them for Foundation English last year. They're great."

Peter looked a bit annoyed at being interrupted. "Yeah, their listening marks are great, but that's not the problem. In class, they don't look at me, they don't answer questions, they just sit there like lumps of clay. It's as if nothing I'm saying's going into their heads."

Cherie was surprised. "Oh, I found them most cooperative. It's probably just start-of-term blues. Give them a couple of weeks to get used to you and they'll be fine."

"I hope so. If they don't change soon, I'm not going to enjoy this class."

Later in the day, Cherie was wandering over to the library when she met Rina, one of the economics students.

"Hello, Rina. Do you enjoy being a sophomore?"

"Yes. We're learning about international economics now. I enjoy."

"That's good."

"Yes, but English. I don't know. I don't understand what Peter say. He speak and speak, but I don't know what he say."

"Why not?"

"I don't know. He uses easy words, but I don't understand. It very difficult to explain. When you teach me, I understand everything easy, but now I don't understand. I want to understand because Peter look nice, but I don't know what to do. Can you help?"

Cherie had a soft spot for Rina, who had been an exemplary student the previous year. She reluctantly agreed to talk to Peter on Rina's behalf.

In the library, Cherie tried to concentrate on the book she needed to read, but her mind kept turning to Rina's request and how to bring the matter up with Peter. Although they shared the same office, Cherie's relationship with Peter was not close. She knew that he was a responsible teacher and a helpful colleague. But she also found him touchy and quick to take offence. While he was easy-going when the conversation was on general topics, he shut himself up and became easily irritated if the conversation became personal.

Cherie tried to imagine how a conversation with Peter about Rina's problem would go.

"Peter, one of your students asked me to talk to you about the problems she's having."

"Which student?"

"Uh, I'd rather not say."

"Why not? If they want to complain, they'd better complain to my face, not behind my back."

No, that wouldn't do. Perhaps she should start in a different way.

"Peter, can I talk to you about how you use English in the classroom?"

"Yes." Peter would reply suspiciously.

"Well, do you try to keep your language simple for your students?"

"Of course I do. If I didn't, I wouldn't be a very good teacher, would I?"

"Um, yes, of course. How do you keep your language simple."

"Speak slowly. Avoid difficult words. Why do you want to know?"

"Just wondering."

"Come on. What are you getting at? Have my students been complaining to you?"

Cherie couldn't think of a way of broaching the topic of Rina's problem without seeming to criticise Peter, and she now regretted agreeing to help Rina. It looked like helping out a student would make life much more difficult with a colleague. Cherie felt trapped between the proverbial rock and the hard place.

Questions

1. Rina's problem is that she has trouble understanding what Peter says. She says, "He uses easy words, but I don't understand." Looking through Peter's teacher talk (i.e. the language he uses in the classroom), he does use very few low-frequency (i.e. uncommon) words. So why is it difficult for the students to understand Peter?

2. Can you rewrite Peter's teacher talk so that it will be easier for the students to understand while retaining the same meaning? How do you decide what to change? On what basis do you make your changes?

3. Teacher talk is a vital aspect of classroom-based language learning, since it is one of the main sources of language input for the learners and facilitates classroom interaction and management. Teacher talk involves modifications in the language that the teacher uses, usually with the aim of making the teacher's language easier. These modifications can occur at several levels, one of which is vocabulary. Other levels which are frequently modified in teacher talk include speech rate, frequency of pauses, enunciation, length of sentences, and repetition or rephrasing of sentences. To further simplify Peter's teacher talk, can you make any modifications in these other levels? For example, should Peter pause anywhere? Are any of Peter's sentences too long? Would any sentences be usefully repeated?

4. Difficulties in listening comprehension don't depend solely on the aspects of language considered with regard to teacher talk. Other factors include the familiarity of the topic and environmental factors such as background noise. Can you think of any more factors which can affect difficulty in listening? Can the teacher control any of these factors, and if so, how?

5. Cherie wants to help Rina by talking to Peter about his teacher talk. She's worried, however, about Peter's defensiveness. What makes people defensive? How should Cherie approach Peter without making him defensive?

6. If Cherie is able to bring up the topic of teacher talk with Peter, how can she give him feedback without appearing to criticise him?

Further reading

The purposes of simplifying teacher talk and other kinds of language input are discussed by Scarcella and Oxford (1992), while Chaudron (1988), Lynch (1996) and Tsui (1995) give details of the different levels at which modifications can be made, and Campbell and Kryszewska (1995) contains activities for how to simplify teacher talk. Anderson and Lynch (1988), Brown (1994) and Nunan (1991) examine the factors which make listening difficult. Defensive behaviour and ways of overcoming defensiveness are covered in most books on interpersonal communication, such as Adler et al. (1989), Gamble and Gamble (1993) and Johnson (1986), and specifically for ELT teachers in Head and Taylor (1997). Gebhard (1990), Wallace (1991) and Woodward (1992) suggest various ways of giving feedback.

2. Teaching speaking in English
The questions to be discussed:

2.1. Speaking as a speech activity and a skill.
2.2. Approaches to learning and teaching speaking.
2.3. Teaching speaking within a communicative competence framework.
2.4. Teaching dialogue and monologue.
2.5. Ways and stages of teaching speaking English.

Key terms: speaking, a speech activity, oral/verbal communication, expressing idea, utterance, statement, monologue, dialogue, associative relation, paradigmatic and syntagmatic relation, interference, reproduction, arrangement of the material, discourse, genres of oral conversation, stimulus and reaction, appropriacy, reinforcement, bottom-up and top-down approaches, group speech, constructive models, exercises, activity.

2.1. Speaking as a speech activity and a skill

Speaking as a skill of oral communication is considered one of the speech activities. Psychological content of speaking is expressing ideas. In a simpler way speaking as a methodological concept envelops: 1) the process of expressing idea; 2) utterance; 3) oral speech; 4) statement. Answering a question or even a whole monologue can be the expression of idea. So speaking is an integral part of oral conversation. Speaking is the use of a certain lexical, grammatical or phonetic phenomena in the aim of expressing the idea. The proverb «First think then speak» proves this idea. So verbalization of ideas is speaking skill.

Teaching speaking in English is considered as a medium practical goal, i.e. at the beginning stage of the education students learn speaking and listening but reading and writing used as a means of teaching. At the higher level, when reading and writing becomes a goal, speaking turns into a means of teaching. Speaking has three functions: a means of communication, a means of teaching and practical aim of teaching.

Teaching speaking in Englishis conducted as a three-phase speech activity. First of all the learner has to be motivated. In this part the intention of speaking appears. In the expressing part of the idea speaker begins to analysing process began to work. Speaker needs to stick in memory (associative relation) for performing this process. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relation is also observed, in paradigmatic relation inner connections is compared based on different features of the word. It can be seen in the words with the same pronunciation but different spelling (write – right, son–sun); close in meaning (little–small); opposite in meaning (come–leave,

meanings: to use the language material and predict the maintenance), and the last one is discourse mechanism. The last mechanism is based on logical thought, when learner uses it, consciously he/she estimates the speech situation and understands the speech partners ideas and gets it nonverbal manner, response properly, he uses main point and situation of speaking knowledge.

According to ideas of some foreign language psychologists, speaking is not either a communication process or utterance but it is a means of statement or expression of the idea[91]. There are certain genres of oral conversation. They are description (telling the details to an active listener), narration (telling the development of events), reasoning (telling one's train of thought to an active listener), identification (talking about one's likes and dislikes), language-in-action (people doing things and talking), comment (opinions and points of view), service encounters (buying and selling 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 a decision)[92]. The ability to perform these genres is a proof of the skill level.

2.2. Approaches to learning and teaching speaking

Speaking in the English language has been considered the most challenging of the four skills given the fact that it involves a complex process of constructing meaning. This process requires speakers to make decisions about why, how and when to communicate depending on the cultural and social context in which the speaking act occurs. Additionally, it involves a dynamic interrelation between speakers and hearers that results in their simultaneous interaction of producing and processing spoken discourse under time constraints. Given all these defining aspects of the complex and intricate nature of spoken discourse, increasing research conducted over the last few decades has recognized

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[91] Зимняя И.А. Психологические аспекты обучения говорению на иностранном языке. – М. Просвещение, 1978. – С. 58.
[92] See: Millrood R.P. English Teaching Methodology -M.: Drofa, 2007. –P. 111.

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speaking as an interactive, social and contextualized communicative event. Therefore, the key role of the speaking skill in developing learners' communicative competence has also become evident, since this skill requires learners to be in possession of knowledge about how to produce not only linguistically correct but also pragmatically appropriate utterances. Drawing on these considerations, this subtheme first outlines the advances that have been made in learning the skill of speaking over the last decades. It then considers how this knowledge becomes the basis for teaching speaking from a communicative perspective. Finally, it presents the importance of integrating this skill within a communicative competence framework so that learners can acquire their English language communicative competence through speaking[93].

Up to the end of the 1960s, the field of language learning was influenced by environmentalist ideas that paid attention to the learning process as being conditioned by the external environment rather than by human internal mental processes. Moreover, mastering a series of structures in a linear way was paramount. Within such an approach, the primacy of speaking was obvious since it was assumed that language was primarily an oral phenomenon. Thus, learning to speak a language, in a similar way to any other type of learning, followed a stimulus-response-reinforcement pattern which involved constant practice and the formation of good habits. In this pattern, speakers were first exposed to linguistic input as a type of external *stimulus* and their *response* consisted of imitating and repeating such input. If this was done correctly, they received a positive *reinforcement* by other language users within their same environment. The continuous practice of this speech-pattern until good habits were formed resulted in learning how to speak. Consequently, it was assumed that speaking a language involved just repeating, imitating and memorizing the input that speakers were exposed to. These assumptions deriving from the environmentalist view of learning to speak gave rise to the

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[93] Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills. Edited by Esther Uso-Juan, Alicia Martinez-Flor. – Berlin, 2006. –P. 140

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close a conversation), cohesion and coherence, as well as formal schemata (e.g., knowledge of how different discourse types, or genres, are organized).

Figure 4. Components of the speaking competence
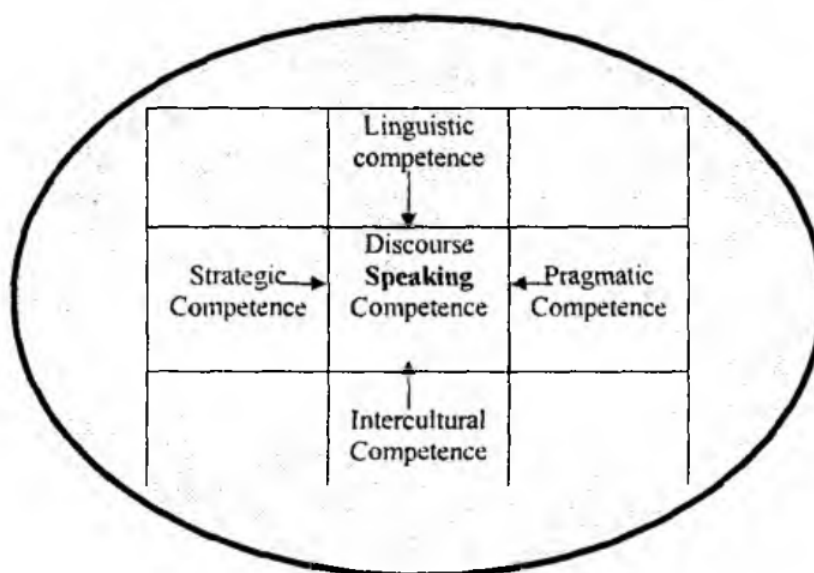
Making effective use of all these features during the process of producing a cohesive and coherent spoken text at the discourse level requires a highly active role on the part of speakers. They have to be concerned with the form (i.e., how to produce linguistically correct utterances) and with the appropriacy (i.e., how to make pragmatically appropriate utterances given particular sociocultural norms).

Additionally, they need to be strategically competent so that they can make adjustments during the ongoing process of speaking in cases where the intended purpose fails to be delivered properly[97]. Consequently, an activation of speakers' knowledge from the other components proposed in the framework displayed in Figure 4 (that is, linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural and strategic) is necessary to develop an overall communicative ability when producing a piece of

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[97] See: Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills. Edited by Esther Uso-Juan, Alicia Martinez-Flor. – Berlin, 2006. –P. 147-150. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain 2000.

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2.5. Ways and stages of teaching speaking English

There are two approaches in teaching speaking bottom-up (induction) and top-down (deduction) approach.

Top-down approach is used for developing dialogue and monologue speech on the based of teaching text thanks which it is possible to use ready information or situation. In turn within bottom-up approach the teachers present linguistic units then students extend speech using them. At the beginning stage bottom-up approach is more used. It presupposes stimulus and reaction.

Some aims, criteria, and principles are specific to particular disciplines, while others are more general. Scientists typically speak differently than literary critics, philosophers differently than sociologists. In some fields, presentations typically include visual presentations of data or other material, using PowerPoint, overheads, slides, or posters.

In other disciplines, the unaccompanied spoken word is more customary. Language styles range from relatively unadorned scientific discourse to more poetic or expressive first-person speech. Genres vary as well. Discussions about a common research project within a scientific laboratory differ from discussions about the meaning of a poem or an oration. Arguments about politics take different shape than arguments about scientific experiments.

To teach field-specific elements of speaking, instructors should consider two questions: (1) *what kinds or genres of speaking do learners in my field need to master?* (2) *what characterizes effective speech in each of these different genres?*

While some criteria and genres are discipline-specific, there are also overarching principles of good speaking that are worth teaching learners. One very useful schema is audience, purpose, and occasion. Good speakers should always consider relevant traits of the audience they are addressing—e.g. their knowledge of the topic, level of understanding, interest, expectations, beliefs, and their perceptions of the speaker.

Considering these traits will help a speaker to determine what sorts of background material they need to provide, how technical or complex they can be, what arguments are most likely to be

Questions:

1. What is the psychological content of speaking?
2. How is the proverb «First think then speak» connected with speaking?
3. Is speaking considered as an aim or a means?
4. How do explain speaking as a three part speech activity?
5. What is paradigmatic and syntagmatic relation?
6. What kind of genres of oral conversation do you know?
7. What approaches to learning and teaching speaking can you tell?
8. What consists of discourse competence?
9. What is the role of teaching dialogue and monologue in speaking?
10. What strategies of teaching speaking do know?

Independent work:

1. Study the scale of oral testing criteria. Try to work out analog criteria for interview testing.

Accuracy		Fluency	
Little or no language produced	1	Little or no communication	1
Poor vocabulary, mistakes in basic grammar, may have very strong foreign accent	2	Very hesitant and brief utterances, sometimes difficult to understand	2
Adequate but not rich vocabulary, makes obvious grammar mistakes, slight foreign accent	3	Gets ideas across, but hesitantly and briefly	3
Good range of vocabulary, occasional grammar slips, slight foreign accent	4	Effective communication in short turns	4
Wide vocabulary appropriately used, virtually no grammar mistakes, native-like or slight foreign accent	5	Easy and effective communication, uses long turns	5
TOTAL SCORE OUT OF 10:			

2. Look through these sites for further information. Write down your own notes on the topic.

onestopenglish.com›skills/**speaking/teaching**-ideas/

3. Teaching reading in English.
The questions to be discussed:

3.1. Reading as goal and means of ELT.
3.2. Reading as a process.
3.3. Selection of texts for reading.
3.4. Stages and exercises for development of reading skills.

Key words: reading goal, reading as a means of teaching, communicative approach, reading skills, mechanics of reading, authentic texts, resources for reading, reading strategies, reading

aloud, anticipation and prediction, eliciting, reading activities, difficulties of reading, stages for reading.

3.1. Reading as a goal and means of ELT

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.

The communicative approach to language teaching has given instructors a different understanding of the role of reading in the language classroom and the types of texts that can be used in instruction. When the goal of instruction is communicative competence, everyday materials such as train schedules, newspaper articles, and travel and tourism Web sites become appropriate classroom materials, because reading them is one way communicative competence development. Instruction in reading and reading practice thus become essential parts of language teaching at every level.

Reading is type of speech activity and the goal of teaching at all stages. A person may read in order to gain information or verify existing knowledge, or in order to critique a writer's ideas or writing style. A person may also read for enjoyment, or to enhance knowledge of the language being read. The goal(s) for reading guide the reader's selection of texts.

The purpose for reading also determines the appropriate approach to reading comprehension. A person who needs to know whether she can afford to eat at a particular restaurant needs to comprehend the pricing information provided on the menu, but does not need to recognize the name of every appetizer listed. A person

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reading poetry for enjoyment needs to recognize the words the poet uses and the ways they are put together, but does not need to identify main idea and supporting details. However, a person using a scientific article to support an opinion needs to know the vocabulary that is used, understand the facts and cause-effect sequences that are presented, and recognize ideas that are presented as hypotheses and givens.

In methodology of FLT the qualities of a good readers are described as follows:

1. Read extensively

2. Integrate information in the text with existing knowledge

3. Have a flexible reading style, depending on what they are reading

4. Are motivated

5. Rely on different skills interacting: perceptual processing, phonemic processing, recall

6. Read for a purpose; reading serves a function

Reading is an essential part of the EL instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways.

1. Reading to learn the language: Reading material is language input. By giving students a variety of materials to read, instructors provide multiple opportunities for students to absorb vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and discourse structure as they occur in authentic contexts. Students thus gain a more complete picture of the ways in which the elements of the language work together to convey meaning.

2. Reading for content information: Students' purpose for reading in their native language is often to obtain information about a subject they are studying, and this purpose can be useful in the language learning classroom as well. Reading for content information in the language classroom gives students both authentic reading material and an authentic purpose for reading.

3. Reading for cultural knowledge and awareness: Reading everyday materials that are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldviews of the people whose language they are studying. When students have access to newspapers, magazines, and Web sites, they are exposed to culture

3.3. Selection of texts for reading

For students to develop communicative competence in reading, classroom and homework reading activities must resemble real-life reading tasks that involve meaningful communication. They must therefore be authentic in three ways.

1. The reading material must be authentic: It must be the kind of material that students will need and want to be able to read when traveling, studying abroad, or using the language in other contexts outside the classroom.

When selecting texts for student assignments, remember that the difficulty of a reading text is less a function of the language, and more a function of the conceptual difficulty and the task(s) that students are expected to complete. Simplifying a text by changing the language often removes natural redundancy and makes the organization somewhat difficult for students to predict. This actually makes a text more difficult to read than if the original were used.

Rather than simplifying a text by changing its language, make it more approachable by eliciting students' existing knowledge in pre-reading discussion, reviewing new vocabulary before reading, and asking students to perform tasks that are within their competence, such as skimming to get the main idea or scanning for specific information, before they begin intensive reading.

2. The reading purpose must be authentic: Students must be reading for reasons that make sense and have relevance to them.

To identify relevant reading purposes, ask students how they plan to use the language they are learning and what topics they are interested in reading and learning about. Give them opportunities to choose their reading assignments, and encourage them to use the library, the Internet, and foreign language newsstands and bookstores to find other things they would like to read.

3. The reading approach must be authentic: Students should read the text in a way that matches the reading purpose, the type of text, and the way people normally read. This means that reading aloud will take place only in situations where it would take place outside the classroom, such as reading for pleasure. The majority of students' reading should be done silently.

Many language textbooks emphasize product (answers to comprehension questions) over process (using reading skills and strategies to understand the text), providing little or no contextual information about the reading selections or their authors, and few if any pre-reading activities. Newer textbooks may provide pre-reading activities and reading strategy guidance, but their one-size-fits-all approach may or may not be appropriate for your students.

The teacher can use the guidelines for developing reading activities given here as starting points for evaluating and adapting textbook reading activities. Use existing, or add your own, pre-reading activities and reading strategy practice as appropriate for your students. Don't make students do exercises simply because they are in the book; this destroys motivation.

Another problem with textbook reading selections is that they have been adapted to a predetermined reading level through adjustment of vocabulary, grammar, and sentence length. This makes them more immediately approachable, but it also means that they are less authentic and do not encourage students to apply the reading strategies they will need to use outside of class. When this is the case, use the textbook reading selection as a starting point to introduce a writer or topic, and then give students choices of more challenging authentic texts to read as a follow up.

3.4. Stages and exercises for development of reading skills

At the primary stage reading is considered as the goal and means of teaching, because student must be able to recognize the English script, they must be familiar with combination of letters in the spelling of words, and be able to recognize words. For this purpose reading and writing mechanics are developed together. By *mechanics* we usually refer to letter and sound recognition,

Questions:

1. Why reading is considered as speech activity. With what other types of speech activity it is interrelated?
2. What are goals and techniques for teaching reading?
3. Is reading a means of teaching?
4. Why is it important to use authentic material for reading?
5. Which strategies are used in order to stimulate students to read more quickly and effectively?
6. What is material is necessary for developing reading skills of the students of schools and college?

Tasks:

1. Tell about pre-, while- and post-reading activities. Give examples.
2. Analyse the EL textbook for school, lyceum, college to reveal the following items:
   - genre of reading;
   - authenticity of the texts;
   - effectivity of the system of exercises;
   - sequence of developing reading skills.
3. Think about the difficulties of reading. Choose the text and make up exercises to this text taking into consideration remedy work..

4. Teaching writing in English
Questions to be discussed:

4.1. Writing as the goal and means of EL teaching and learning.
4.2. Content of teaching writing in the EL at school, lyceum and college.
4.3. Developing writing competence at school, lyceum and college.
4.4. Approaches to teaching writing in the EL.

Key terms: writing as a means of teaching, writing is a goal of teaching, encode, graphics, handwriting, spelling, text format, genre, layout, paragraph writing, text-sample, writing activities, stages of writing, three-phase framework, pattern power, meaning, mastery, dictionary skills, word building, writing activities, proofreading activities, challenge word, text-based approach, process approach, genre approach, communicative approach, spelling, writing

4.1. Writing as a goal and means of EL teaching and learning

Writing is a complex communicative activity. It helps to communicate in the written form with the help of graphical symbols. Writing is a type of speech activity as «a communicative skill to encode, store and send messages with the help of written symbols».[102] The product of this type of speech activity is a text for reading.

Writing is characterized by the tree-phase structure: 1) inducement-motivation, 2) analytical-syntactical and 2) operation. Under the first phase the motive appears as an intention to communicate. The author's message has an intention to inform somebody.

In the second phase an utterance is formed and pronounced: the necessary words for producing the utterance are selected, within a set of sentences, subjective area of indicators is distributed, the predicate or a key part of the idea organization between sentences is defined.

The third phase of writing is decoding of the idea/message with the help of graphical symbols.

In the ELT the writing is the goal and means of teaching and learning. The goal of teaching writing is to teach production of written texts which students can write in the mother tongue. To produce the written text students should master mechanics of writing. That's why, in domestic methodology the two types of writing are distinguished: 1) mechanics of writing (handwriting, spelling, punctuation); 2) process of expressing ideas in a graphical form.

Writing is meant as acquiring graphical and orthographical systems of EL by students for fixation speech and language material to remember it and support acquiring oral speech. Modern approaches to teaching writing recognize its dual purpose: as **a means** (a support skill) and as **an end** (communicative skill).

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[102] Millrood R.P. English Teaching Methodology. -M.: Drofa, 2007. -P.182

Writing refers to several subskills: putting words on paper, making sentences and linking them in paragraphs, developing essays and many others. So, writing is also a support skill.

At the elementary and intermediate levels it helps to think and to learn. Writing new words and structures help students remember new words; written practice helps students focus their attention on what they are learning. It is important for developing all skills. Writing serves as learning and controlling means.

Table 12.Writing as a means and purpose in ELT

Writing to learn	Learning to write
A means of engaging students with other language skills: 1) as a means of getting students to practice a particular language point; 2) as a method of testing it.	A purpose for developing a writing skill. Practice written forms at the level of a word, sentence, structure and content organization.
Activities: note down new vocabulary, copy out grammar rules; write answers to reading and listening comprehension questions, to written tests.	Activities: writing a letter, report, narrative story, describing the picture, combining writing with other speech activities - writing a response to reading an article, writing an annotation to the text, etc.

It needs some forms of instruction and imposes an appropriate use of the language. That's why the operation and activities are divided into groups: 1) those designed to develop the writing skills and 2) which provided opportunity of practicing English. «A task which provides little or no practice for students to extend their knowledge of appropriate content or context or to raise their awareness about writing process is not really a writing task but general learning task using writing.»[103]

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[103] Balan R., Cehan A. & et.al. . In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. - Romania: Polirom, 2003. - P. 185.

To understand dual purpose of writing as a subskill and communicative skill in ELT we should examine the content of the Table 12 which summarizes the above-mentioned information.

4.2. Content of teaching writing in the EL at school, lyceum and college

At the beginning level (2-4 classes) we teach graphics in EL (handwriting), i.e. teaching to write letters (alphabet) which interrelates with teaching reading as graphic-phonemic correspondence. Pupils must acquire print hand letters. At the same time we form elementary writing skills for conducting communicative-cognitive objectives in the written form. On the material of sentences and not complicated texts pupils must write:

a) holiday and birthday congratulations in cards;

b) personal data: name and surname, dates, address;

c) short messages and personal letters:

d) a plan, questions to short texts;

e) description of pictures.

The second stage (5-9 classes) at school must provide more intensive development of writing skills in different situations of communication. Topics and capacity of writing messages is broaden; the quality of produced text in the written form is improved. The content of writing teaching within this stage differs in its informativeness and is built on the authentic material. The samples of an epistolary type as letters, cards, articles from newspapers and magazines are used for developing teenagers' writing skills:

f) to give the information about him/herself, family, school, city/town, interests and hobby;

g) to write a short commentary/letter in newspaper or journal with the norms and conventions of native speakers;

h) to write personal data in questionnaire and registration document;

i) to do note-taking (plan, copy out the key words, speech patterns) to use it for production of the text.

At an academic lyceum and vocational college the level of the language proficiency in writing must provide more effective using it as a means of teaching, self-learning and academic study. It demands involving the variety of official and unofficial situations, complicity of the produced texts, and high degree of autonomous activity.

The lyceum and college students must obtain the following skills:

j) to describe events or facts;

k) to send and ask an information in the extended form;

l) to express an opinion, arguments;

m) to comment events and facts using argumentative statements and emotional-estimation means;

n) to write a plan and notes for an oral message;

o) to fix a factual information during reception of oral and printed text;

p) to write a summary, synopsis, annotation.

q) to write a composition and essay.

4.3. Developing writing competence at school, lyceum and college

The success of writing as a communicative skill is a long-term process which is difficult and demands a lot of efforts from the teacher and students.

Subskills of EL teaching to write for the beginning stage: handwriting and spelling. There are difficulties related to: 1) inter-language interference: similar letters of the Uzbek/Russian/English languages so the native can get confused. E.g.: Tт-Tt; Pp -Rr: 2) intra-language interference: the letters which are similar in the EL are difficult. E.g.: b-d, p-q, t-f-l.

It is a very difficult process developing spelling skills in the EL. The process of developing writing subskills (handwriting and

spelling) and skills (communicative) at the beginning stage includes a set of activities[104]:

• **Pattern power**: Write the spelling words in which [a] is spelled these ways

a_____; ey_____
ea _____ ay_____
ai_____ a-e_____

• **Meaning mastery:** Write the spelling of words that complete these sentences.

• **Dictionary skills:** 1) Write the given spelling of words in alphabetical order; b) In the dictionary entry parts of speech are shown by using the following abbreviation: n – noun; vb – verb; adj – adjective, adv – adverb. Classify the given words according to the parts of speech.

• **Word building**: A) If you change the underlined vowel in the word, you can make a new word: bl<u>e</u>nd +o = blond; B) The same sounds are often spelled in different ways. Write the spelling of words that rhymes with these words. See sample. Made – aid.

• **Handwriting activity**: Practice writing of the given spelling of words that have at least one-two consonant blend in the word. Write each word three times, making sure you join the letters correctly: draft, stuck, blend, cliff,…

• **Challenge words:** Write the correct challenge words to complete the micro-text.

• **Proofreading practice**: Find the words that John spelled incorrectly, and write the words correctly at the end of each sentence.

The girl had a dream about becoming a great athlete. _____

• **Writing activities.** A) Complete this sentence to surprise your readers by writing a short story with an unexpected ending; B) Brainstorming is a good way to get ideas for a short story. Choose a spelling word, and write what it makes you think of. Write as many

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[104] The name of these activities were taken from the Coursebook: Cook G.E., Esposito M., Gabrielson T., Turner G.R. Spelling for Word Mastery. -Toronto, London, Sydney: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co, 1984.

Table 13. Knowledge for forming subskills in teaching writing

Knowledge
Knowledge of the genre. Students should be able to recognize a genre, in which they are writing, grammatical and lexical choices they need to make in order to match the text to the writing purpose. This includes knowledge of: 1. *content:* the concepts involved in the subject area; 2. *context:* the context in which the text will be read, including reader's expectations.
Knowledge of the language system. Students need to have knowledge of those aspects of the EL system necessary for the completion of the task. They should also be able to organize texts appropriately.
Knowledge of the writing process. Students need to know how to prepare a writing task: how to plan, draft, review, edit, etc.

Table 14. Phases and their content

Phases	Content
Pre-writing	Schemata activation, motivation for writing, preparation for the language, familiarization with the format of the target text.
While-writing	Thesis development, writing from notes, ending up with a given phrase, proceeding from a given beginning phrase, following a plan, following a format and register, solving-problem.
Post-writing	Reflection on the spelling and reasoning errors, sharing the writing with the classmates, redrafting, peer editing.

There are various tasks, techniques and activities for developing writing as a communicative skill at the first and second stages of schools.

For organization of the work on writing an invitation we can use the letter-sample and instruction-rules[106]:

Look at this invitation.

14 Ten avenue Prairie View, Missouri 64193 March 8, 2014	Heading
Dear Alex, We are having a pizza party on Sunday, March 2014, at 14 Ten Avenue from 3:30 –7.00 p.m. Please come and enjoy the pizza. Bring your discs if you like.	Opening salutation Body
Your friend, Mark.	Closing salutation Signature

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[106] See activities in the book: Cook G.E., Esposito M., Gabrielson T., Turner G.R. Spelling for Word Mastery. -Toronto, London, Sydney: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co, 1984.

Table 16. Stages and activities in process writing

Prewriting	Composition/ drafting	Revising	Editing	Publishing/ presentation
For generating, focusing and structuring: brainstorming, mind-map, speedwriting,	Writing drafting: writing plan, writing the first draft.	Seeing the first draft and developing ideas, structure and	Editing the language errors (spelling, punctuation, vocabulary, grammar)	Presentation the product to the audience (to the teacher, or to classmates).

Tasks:

1. Read and remember the following types of writing:

Imitative writing – at the beginning level of learning to write, students will simply «write down» English letters, and possibly sentences in order to learn the conventions of the orthographic code. Some forms of dictation fall into this category although dictations can serve to teach and test higher order processing as well.

Intensive (controlled) writing – usually arrears in controlled written grammar exercises. Some written tasks as essays, compositions, summary are also included into intensive writing.

Self- writing - this type means writing with only the self in mind as an audience. The most vivid example of this type of writing is note-taking where students take notes during a lecture for the purpose of later recall.

Display writing – short answer exercises, essay examinations, research reports are display writing examples, when students have to display their knowledge of language and academic skills.

Real writing – this type is done not for marks or checking by teachers. Its aim is genuine communication. Writing diaries, letters, post cards, notes, personal messages or other informal writing can take place.

The feedback could be provided by students, it could even be practiced by the students themselves and thus encourage their self-assessment. What is the outcome of this process? It is a picture of students' progress and a better understanding of whether the content of the course achieves its goal. In light of what we learn about students' performance during the learning cycle (Figure 5), some changes may need to be incorporated to the content of the course.

5.2. Types, forms and techniques of assessment in ELT

In the teaching process the summative and formative types are distinguished. **Summative assessment** often takes place at the end of a unit, module, or the whole course. The focus tends to be on the mark and the idea is to evaluate how well a student has learned what has been presented. **Formative assessment** takes place during a course, module or unit. The focus is more on gathering data about students' progress and using this data to help them improve language and fill in communicative gaps. In the teaching process the summative assessment is supported by the formative assessment data. We assess students at different stages and provide feedback that they can use to improve, re-draft or change what they are currently working on, but also to help them in their future learning (often referred to as feed-forward).

There are four stages in organizing classroom assessments: 1) planning assessment; 2) collecting data on students' learning through the assessment; 3) making judgments about students' performance, or evaluation; 4) providing appropriate feedback.

Within assessment *correction* and organizing *feedback* are differentiated. Where the lesson makes use of accurate reproduction and drilling techniques, it needs to be carefully organized, during this stage, students' errors and mistakes will be corrected almost instantly.

Organizing feedback occurs when learners have already finished a task. The teacher gives feedback to let the learners know how well they have performed in the course of activity (during the activity the teacher has picked up some of the students' mistakes

and has put them on the blackboard; now he is asking the students opinion about correctness).

There is a distinction between two different kinds of feedback. *Content feedback* concerns an assessment of how well students have performed the activity as an activity is more important than a language exercise; e.g. when students have completed a role-play the teacher first discusses with students the reasons for their decision in the simulation. *Form feedback* tells the students how well they have performed linguistically, how accurate they have been.

During the teaching process assessment eventually leads to **evaluation.** Evaluation is used as a final judgment about students' level of performance which has been measured by using different tools. Evaluation refers to the extent to which the teaching/learning objectives, stated at the beginning of a school year, term or lesson have been achieved. This judgment is formally expressed in numbers and per cent or marks, grades or informally in scores or points, which eventually can be converted into marks.

In Uzbekistan evaluation at schools, lyceum and college is organized in the frame of five-score (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) marking. Assessment conducts within: 1) current control, 2) intermediate, or interval) control, 3) final control. But it is necessary to indicate here also preliminary control, because its role is important for organizing the ELT process.

The process of assessing students' performance is done by using variety of ways, techniques and forms. There are many techniques or activities of language performance in ELT. Dictation exercises, strip stories, tests and written assignments are all examples of different types of techniques and activities suitable for English language learners. Simple dictation exercises require students to write down a passage read aloud by the teacher. These exercises offer an assessment of students' listening and writing skills. Strip stories require students to organize a short passage into the proper order after it has been taken apart and reorganized. Strip stories test reading comprehension and narrative awareness.

Testing is the most widely spread technique used for assessing students in the classroom. There are different tests: multiple choice,

matching, true-false, fill-in-the-blanks tests, cloze and dictation procedures; assay exams; oral interview – but also tests differing in scope and structure from these well-known options. Technological development has led to a number of new language testing formats, including computer-based and computer-adaptive tests, audiotape-based oral proficiency interviews, and web-based testing.

A communicative test approximates to real language use in the real world. For example, dictation and cloze tests are considered as non-communicative types, while role-play, letter and essay writing, following instruction, problem-solving, oral interview are communicative tests. But, for example, cloze tests provide a good way of gauging a student's written, reading, grammar and vocabulary performances.

Multiple choice tests and written assignments are good ways of assessing vocabulary, reading comprehension and writing skills.

Thus, language tests are simply instruments or procedures for gathering particular kinds of information, typically information having to do with students' language abilities. Tests have a variety of formats, length, item types, scoring criteria, and media.

The above mentioned information is presented in Table 18 as generalization and visualization.

Table 18. Types, forms, tasks, techniques of the assessment

Types of assessment	Forms of assessment	Objectives of assessment	Techniques
Preliminary control	-oral; - written; - individual; - group.	- to define the level of language proficiency, the level of cognitive and learning abilities, and motivation to EL; - to make acquainted with new requirements and teaching conditions.	- interview and tests; - oral or written tasks.

Current control	-individual, frontal, pair and group work in oral and written forms. - homework tasks; - project forms of work; - implicit control using different questions or plays; - self-control; - mutual control.	- to make diagnostic of shortcomings in language performance; - to correct errors, mistakes; - to assess the level of language performance in the frame of the gained material; - to provide revising and rotation the acquired material as an addition to the new one; - to develop reflexive skills and self-evaluation; - monitoring the process of teaching and bringing up.	- oral and written assignments for forming and developing all subskills and skills in the form of topics and situations of communication;
Intermediate control	- individual, frontal, pair, group forms; -self-control and mutual control.	- to define a dynamic of language proficiency of each student and whole class; - to make diagnostic of students' gaps and shortcomings in output; - to define the level of learning subskills.	- tests; - oral or written tests and assignments; - creative assignments.
Final control	- individual	- to reveal the level of language proficiency in accordance with the syllabus requirements.	- tests; - oral or written assignments.

2. Extracurricular activities in English
The questions to be discussed:

2.1. Characteristics of extracurricular activities.
2.2. The principles of extracurricular activities organization.

2.3. Work strategies in extracurricular activities.

2.4. The content and process of organization of **extra-curricular** work at school, lyceum and college.

Key words: extracurricular activities, contemporary strategies, active learning, leaders, extracurricular activities.

2.1. Characteristics of extracurricular activities at school, lyceum, college

The issue of the successfulness of the educational process is not an issue that pertains solely to the 21st century. The reforms and directives have contributed towards scholarly pluralism and offered new learning forms, methods and contents, thus contributing to the specific structure of education, and particularly its practical characteristics. An optimal organization of lessons and a selection of successful methods influence the activity of students, while the contemporariness of teaching materials and methods leads to easier, faster, clearer and more rational, economic and productive learning and teaching. It is precisely the skill of successfully preparing and leading, and of utilizing appropriate procedures, methods, forms of interaction, media and technology that distinguish a modern and open institutional education. Such an education leads towards a quality school and a society of knowledge, empowers both the individual and the group and leads to the formation of professional and innovative, humane and socially oriented community members. Through various activities and materials, the use of modern media and teaching strategies that correspond with global cultural and civilization development, the creativity of pupils is also stimulated. For the reasons stated, we can conclude that a quality school merges a contemporary approach to lessons with learning topics adapted to contemporary knowledge and revelations, thus allowing participants in education a holistic development and continuous personal improvement.

The contemporary school has continued with the tendencies and the intentions of reformative orientations in pedagogy that

stimulated the opening of schools to the needs of youth and the expansion of its educational values to the extracurricular, leisure time of young people, as well. Thus, students gather according to various activities: sport, music, science, research etc. This means that the school has offered its students the option to spend their free time in the quality and learning environment of extracurricular activities, with the aim of individual educational development.

The successfulness of a contemporary school is reflected precisely in the manner in which it establishes connections between its students, its teachers and its educational content; this influences the students' progress, enriches their knowledge and develops their skills – therefore, preparing them for life.

We maintain that the right means for the targeted development of learners are none other than extracurricular activities, as they optimally organize the free time that students have after regular classes. Let us also mention that students independently select how to spend their leisure time and which activities to join, actively participating in the work and impelling themselves to innovativeness and creativity. In this manner, they develop their personalities, acquire knowledge and develop their skills while experiencing, perceiving and evaluating mankind's cultural, scientific, technical and sports achievements. They become familiar with the quality and aesthetically valuable attainments of our civilization, which influences their general knowledge. In addition, they acquire the culture of using their leisure time well.

Extracurricular activities are efficient site upon which contemporary educational goals can be realized, and a site upon which teaching strategies that facilitate learning are successfully implemented. Through variously themed activities, students have the opportunity to use strategies of spotting differences and similarities, of summarization and notation, of increasing effort and giving recognition, of practicing, reviewing, cooperative learning, giving feedback, creating and testing hypotheses and of forming questions. Therefore, it is important to raise consciousness on the role and value of extracurricular activities and the possibilities they offer, and to stimulate their organization and implementation. The value of the successful implementation of

2.2. The principles of extracurricular activities organization

Extracurricular activities represent planned educational endeavors that are executed within the framework of the school, outside regular lessons, and which provide an area of interest and, in addition, an all-round affirmation of a student's personality. To the teacher, they provide an expanded educational influence on the school audience.

We can view extracurricular activities from two perspectives: a narrower and a broader one. From a narrower point of view, extracurricular activities are part of the "school package" occurring after regular lessons, while a broader perspective relates to the possibility of opening the school towards the wider community. A narrower understanding of extracurricular activities, one oriented towards the school, can be found in Pedagogical Encyclopedia I (1989, 299), where it is stated that "extracurricular work encompasses the various activities of pupils within the school and organized by the school, but outside the curriculum and the programme of regular lessons". It is evident that the educational work of the school is continued through them, only during the pupils' free time and, which is exceptionally important, with the implementation of special work strategies. On the other hand, thanks to the enthusiasm of education workers – the bearers of these activities – and an interested group of students, the school opens its doors to everything that surrounds it: other schools, students, teachers, professionals and professional associations.

Considering the equal importance of both education and upbringing in the shaping of a contemporary individual, let us also mention that educational work in extracurricular activities, in addition, offers the opportunity of continuously applying child rearing principles in work. Although activity leaders have to invest maximum effort, knowledge, patience and will for a change to occur in the pupil, a lot also depends on the pupil

himself. The success of educational work is the fruit of a mutual, cooperative relationship. In this sense, the efficacy of education and rearing is manifested in the use of the principles of uniqueness in work, in a respect for differences between students, the recognition and satisfaction of basic needs and the use of varied work methods and tools, while activating pupils through work and a cooperation that aims towards the self-rearing of the child. All of these principles are equally important and useful. There is no hierarchical relationship between them. Differences may occur only in relation to the situation at hand. It is wrong to think that a principle can perform the job of educating all by itself, without concrete activities planned by the teachers and students.

Let us stress that a teacher's enthusiasm is not sufficient for good educational work and management of extracurricular activities, as teachers also need to be qualified for this work – professional knowledge and methodical preparation are necessary. The students' creative productivity largely depends on the teacher's professional competences, actions, work methods and his relationship with his students. The teacher's knowledge, abilities and experience are brought forward in his work on informing, orienting, planning, organizing and conducting extracurricular activities with students. The pedagogical role of a teacher involved in extracurricular activities is manifested in assisting, inciting, coordinating, counseling, teaching and directing learners towards a correct, cultured and rational usage of leisure time.

In everyday life and, in particular, in the area of education, the importance of giving significance to lifelong learning and development is incessantly stressed. Professional development is based on the constructivist learning theory model. It is a continuous, long-term process tuned to the needs of everyday lessons and learning. This process presupposes continuous support from the system and the self-evaluation of teachers who explore their own practice and deliberate upon it.

A professional teacher, an interested group of students, a classroom equipped with adequate means and aids, investing effort into an activity, and also the support and understanding of

2. Mass events

Examples of these extracurricular activities **are song or** poetry' recital contests in the EL; theme parties or **evenings,** theatre performances in the EL or performances of companies staging dramas in foreign languages, holding conferences in foreign languages, having debates and meetings in English.

3. Individual work

This type of extracurricular activities can include: preparing for conference presentations, preparing for reports in class, and writing articles for school newspapers or magazines.

4. Another type of extracurricular activities is correspondence with students from other countries – it can be classified as both individual work (when a student has a pen-friend) and mass work when students keep correspondence between their circle and a group of students in another country with similar interests.

5. Language clubs – yet another form of extracurricular activities in schools - basically combined various above listed language-oriented extracurricular organized in all educational stages.

Nowadays most schools, lyceums and colleges have changed their attitudes to extracurricular activities, and started encouraging their faculty and students to organize different kinds of extracurricular activities. The teaching materials and methods are being modernized and updated according to the present day academic needs and technical opportunities.

Questions:

1. What is the extracurricular work?

2. What is the role of extracurricular work in ELT?

3. How does extracurricular work stimulate students' desire to learn English?

4. Give the examples of interrelations of the extracurricular and EL classwork.

5. Do you agree with that extracurricular work permits the teacher to get to know his students more intimately thereby creating

1.5. Independent learning

Nowadays the role of an independent work (learning) at all stages of education is increasing. One of the organizational forms of teaching is independent work (self-study) run out of direct contact with a teacher (homework, laboratory work) or run under control of the teacher and run through teaching material and monitoring by the teacher (distance learning). Independent work is the important part in ELT, because 30 % of teaching and learning time is given to the independent work. The teacher must 1) understand the goal of independent work and the final result of ELT at a certain level; 2) know the procedure of independent work. Independent work can be conducted in the classroom and out-of-classroom in the written and oral form. Independent work can be organized as an individual work, or pair and group work.

It is known that independent work activates students' cognitive activity making learning process more successful and developing self-learning abilities of learners.

J. Rubin investigated what 'good language learners' did to facilitate their learning and identified some of their learning strategies, 'the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge'[126]. The teacher's job is not only to teach EL, but to teach learning, because students need training in learning strategies.

The aim of the teacher is 1) to select the content of ELT, 2) to provide rational organization of students' self-learning, 3) to develop students' self-learning strategies. Each student uses the source of information depending on his/her needs and capabilities, he/she works in own tempo to come to some result. That's why an independent work shapes flexible form of organization and

contributes increasing responsibility of each student for the results of education.

Independent work correlates with learners' autonomy as ability to take charge of one's own learning. Autonomous learners understand the purpose and process of learning and are able to choose from available tools and resources to create a productive learning environment. We should promote learner autonomy for the purpose of transforming dependent and passive learners. For this aim teachers should encourage students to be more self-motivated and continue learning outside the classroom so they can be personally responsible for acquiring English. The teacher promotes autonomous behavior by suggesting curricular and extracurricular activities, focusing first on those that students are already engaged in. For example, the teacher may ask students to try such English activities as writing a letter to pen pals, reading newspapers, magazines;   listening to the radio; watching movies, surfing the Internet; talking with foreigners, practicing conversation   with friends, studying in groups, attendance of English clubs.

It is necessary for development students' independent learning:
- to become aware of the purpose of activity and all tasks;
- to know the procedure of tasks doing;
- to be able to use different aids for tasks doing;
- to be able to see the visual and verbal supporters in the material of the task to overcome the difficulties;
- to provide the appropriate conditions for task doing.

Teachers can train students to take charge of every stage of their independent learning, which includes:
- setting goals;
- identifying and developing strategies to achieve such goals;
- developing study plans;
- reflecting on learning (which includes identifying problem areas and the means of addressing these problems);
- identifying and selecting relevant resources and support;
- assessing one's own progress (which includes a certain criteria for evaluating performance and learning).

Independent work can be organized as individual work, in pair work, small group and with whole class. These organizational forms

Case Study 4: Working Together

Giving instructions and observing other teachers to help their development.
by Richard Watson Todd

Twenty years in the same secondary school had turned Paolo into an automaton. For most of the time he had stuck to the tried and trusted methods of drilling, long grammar explanations and rote learning of word lists.

Six months ago, however, a new teacher, Sophia, had arrived at the school with bright innovative ideas that were a breath of fresh air to Paolo. Sophia talked about students discovering language for themselves, interacting in groups, and becoming confident with using English.

Hearing these ideas, Paolo had realised that he had been treating his classes like a production line, something he had sworn he would never do when he had started teaching twenty years earlier. Quickly becoming friends, Sophia and Paolo had decided to work together to help each other develop as teachers. They decided that they would talk English outside the classroom to improve their language, they would subscribe to a couple of journals for teachers, and they would encourage each other to innovate and try out new ideas in the classroom.

They had worked together like this for over four months now. Paolo felt that his interest in teaching had been rekindled, and that his students enjoyed themselves more and seemed to look forward to learning English with him. Most of Paolo's

lessons worked well, and now he sometimes found himself trying to persuade other colleagues to try out new techniques.

Today's lesson, however, had severely shaken his confidence. In his plan, the lesson had appeared straightforward and effective, but in the classroom it had ended in shambles. The focus of the lesson was reading, and Paolo had decided to do something different from the old 'Read the passage and answer the questions' approach.

In one of the journals he and Sophia were subscribing to he had found a technique called Jigsaw Reading. Cutting a long passage into pieces, he would give each of the pieces to a different group of students. The groups would read and try to understand their section of the passage. Then new groups consisting of one student from each of the previous groups would be formed. The new groups would try to reconstruct the whole passage. Paolo thought that the students would pay a lot more attention to the reading if he used a Jigsaw Reading technique. In addition, the technique would generate a lot of beneficial student-student interaction.

Paolo had been looking forward to trying out Jigsaw Reading with his fourth-year students. In the classroom, however, the new technique had been fraught with problems. The seemingly simple procedures of Jigsaw Reading turned out to be almost impossible to convey to the students, even when Paolo resorted to Italian. In giving the instructions before the activity, he found himself using longer and longer sentences with all sorts of convoluted phrasing to explain whether he was talking about the original grouping of students or the regrouping halfway through the activity.

Because they had been unclear about the purpose and organisation of the activity, the students had been uncertain of what to do while reading. Regrouping the students had taken a full ten minutes of class time, and once they had been regrouped, the students just sat there not knowing what to do next. Paolo had had to explain all the stages of the activity over and over again, until he was relieved to hear the bell ring at the end of the class.

Exhausted and dispirited after the lesson, Paolo sought out Sophia. He explained all that had gone wrong while Sophia listened attentively and made sympathetic noises. When he finished, they discussed the possible causes of the problem. They decided that everything came down to the clarity of his instructions. The next problem, then, was how Paolo could improve his instructions. Paolo, still discouraged by the lesson, did not feel capable of improving his instructions by himself. He wanted Sophia to help him.

Together, Paolo and Sophia brainstormed ways of helping Paolo overcome his problems with instructions. Obviously, he could pay more attention to his instructions during the planning stage, and Sophia could help him here by working through the plan with him. But Paolo was more concerned about what would happen once he was in the actual classroom. He knew that Sophia was free when he taught his third-year class and he wanted her to come into his classroom and watch him give instructions. While Sophia felt flattered that Paolo trusted her so much, she was worried about observing his teaching. First, what would the students think? Paolo was a far more senior colleague, so it would look strange if Sophia went into his classroom and took notes on his teaching.

What's more, Sophia wasn't sure about how much help she could be to Paolo by observing him. She didn't know what sort of things she should look for when Paolo gave instructions, and she didn't think she would be able to identify what his problems were. Another thing that worried her was what she should say to Paolo after the lesson. Although they had built up a close relationship, Sophia knew she wouldn't feel comfortable criticising Paolo's teaching and wasn't sure what his reactions would be. With these misgivings in her mind, Sophia was undecided about whether to accept Paolo's invitation to observe his teaching.

Questions

1. Paolo's instructions for the Jigsaw Reading activity are at the root of his problems. It is suggested that he could pay more attention to his instructions during the planning stage. One of the skills of planning is predicting what problems will arise during teaching and pre-empting these problems.

How do you think Paolo can improve his problem-predicting skills while planning?

2. Instructions are vital to the success of an activity. What content should be included in instructions? Should instructions be explained or demonstrated, or both? How can a teacher tell how effective any set of instructions is?

3. The regrouping of the students in the Jigsaw reading activity causes most of Paolo's problems.

Should all of the instructions be given at the start of the activity or should the instructions be broken down into two sets, one given at the start of the activity and one given in the middle before regrouping the students?

If you were going to use a Jigsaw reading activity in your teaching, what instructions would you give? Can you predict any problems which might arise from your instructions?

4. Regrouping the students creates a transition in the middle of the Jigsaw reading activity. Transitions, if not well-organised, may waste valuable time and possible lead

to chaos. How can transitions be managed to reduce the chances of time-wasting and chaos occurring?

5. Paolo and Sophia decide that Sophia should help Paolo while planning. How should Sophia help Paolo?

Should she be actively involved all through the planning process or should she only comment on the final plan that Paolo produces?

6. Paolo also wants Sophia to observe his teaching and give him feedback. Sophia, however, is unsure of what to look for and how to observe.

If Sophia observes Paolo, do you think she should just write down any comments she thinks might be useful as she observes? Alternatively, Sophia could use an observation sheet, in the form of, say, a table which would help her to categorise certain aspects of Paolo's teaching.

If she chooses to use an observation sheet, what aspects of Paolo's teaching should Sophia include on the sheet? What form should the observation sheet take?

If you were going to observe a colleague focusing on his/her instructions, how would you record your observations? If you decided to use an observation sheet, what would it look like?

7. Sophia is worried about giving feedback to Paolo on his teaching. Feedback can often seem critical to the person receiving it, leading to defensiveness and relationship problems. If Sophia needs to give Paolo feedback, how can she give feedback so that such problems do not occur?

Further reading

A full description of Jigsaw Reading, including a detailed rationale, can be found in de Berkeley-Wykes (1983). Teacher instructions are considered in depth in Watson Todd (1997), while Ur (1996) gives some basic guidelines for giving instructions and Campbell and Kryszewska (1995) contains training activities for improving teachers' instructions. Froyen (1993) gives examples and guidelines for managing transitions effectively. Regarding working with colleagues, Knezevic and Scholl (1996) is a case study of collaborative planning; Day (1990) provides an excellent background to observation; Richards and Lockhart (1994) give guidelines for observing colleagues; Wajnryb (1992) is a comprehensive collection of useful observation sheets, including one for instructions; and Wallace (1998) discusses different ways in which data can be collected through observation. Finally, Gebhard (1990), Wallace (1991) and Woodward (1992) contain a variety of ways of giving feedback with the probable effects of each feedback technique.

Case Study 5: Horseshoes and Action Zones

Seating arrangements, getting learners to participate, and how to teach vocabulary.

by Richard Watson Todd

Gill liked horseshoes. With up to 15 learners, Gill could feel close to the learners by arranging them in a semi-circular horseshoe. She felt far better with this arrangement than with either rows and columns or leaving the learners to arrange the seating by themselves, which normally resulted in a clustered mess.

Recently, however, for financial reasons, the private language school on the south coast of England where Gill worked had increased the class size. The new classes of 25 learners made a very elongated horseshoe which barely fit into the room, so Gill had arranged the students in a double horseshoe where she could stand in the middle and still feel close to the learners. Happy that she had solved the seating problems, Gill started the lesson.

The first hour concerned vocabulary building. There was a reading passage with a few difficult words in it, and these words were the focus of the lesson. Gill started by asking the learners to read the passage and highlight any words they didn't know or were unsure of. She then elicited these words from the learners.

"Yes, Raul. What's your first word?"

"Extolled."

"Extolled. OK, everyone see extolled? Madeleine, can you find it?"

Madeleine nodded her head and pointed at the word in the text.

Gill continued. "Right, I'll look at what the words mean in a minute. Any other words first? Yes, Ingrid?"

"Unify."

"OK, everyone. Unify. Any more, Leif?"

"Coerce."

"Yes, coerce is a difficult word. OK, more?"

"Ranting."

"Ranting, thank you, Pablo. Everyone see ranting? Right, Ingrid?"

"Dissuade."

"Good, dissuade. More, anyone?"

The learners were quiet.

"OK. Now, how are we going to find the meaning of these words? Yes, Maria."

"Use a dictionary."

"OK, we can use a dictionary. But finding words in a dictionary is very slow. If we must know the meaning of a word, a dictionary is useful. But sometimes we can guess. For example, Ingrid said unify. What does this mean?"

There was no response.

"OK, look at the word unify. Madeleine, this word here." Gill pointed to unify on Madeleine's handout. "OK, what does uni- mean? Leif?"

"One."

"Good. Uni- mean one. What about -ify? Ingrid?"

"Make. It's a verb."

"Yes, so unify?"

"Make one." Ingrid replied confidently.

"Yes. Unify means make one. Let's look at the passage. The need to unify the nation. Does this make sense now?" Heads nodded, and a few learners made notes. "Right, let's try another one. Dissuade. Can you find it? OK, dissuade has the root suade. Do you know any other words with the root suade? Madeleine?"

Madeleine shook her head.

"Anyone else? Yes, Pablo."

"Suade shoes."

Gill smiled. "No, that's suede. S-U-E-D-E. Raul?"

"Persuade."

"Good. What does persuade mean?"

"To make to agree."

"Yes, Ingrid. Now, what about dis-? Leif?"

"Not."

"So can you guess dissuade? Anyone?"

Marco, sitting at one end of the inner horseshoe, put his hand up, but because Gill was standing very near the centre of the horseshoe, she didn't see him. "No-one? OK, Ingrid?"

"To make to not agree."

"Yes, dissuade means to persuade someone not to do something. Good, good. Right, looking at parts of words is one way to find the meaning, but it normally works well only with long words. For short words, we can't do this. For example, look at ranting. The verb is rant, R-A-N-T. There are no parts of the word to help you find the meaning. So what can you do?"

Again, Marco put his hand up but was ignored. Gill continued, "Well, you can guess from the context. What does context mean?"

This time, Stella who was sitting next to Marco tried to answer, but Leif got in first. "The words around."

"Yes, yes, you can look at the words around rant. In the passage, we have a ranting madman. What do madmen do?"

At this point, the class erupted with the learners making strange faces, rolling their eyes and doing their best to act like madmen. Pablo even got out of his seat and

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started shambling around the room like a cross between Quasimodo and Caliban. Gill laughed and clapped her hands to get the learners' attention. "OK, OK, you're all good at being mad. What do madmen do?"

The answers came thick and fast from all the learners.

"Shout."

"Cry."

"Kill people."

"Talk to themselves."

"Act like Napoleon."

"Scream."

"Yes, OK, someone said, 'Shout'. Who said 'Shout'?" Three learners put their hands up, but Gill only spotted Raul. "Yes", she said. "Rant means to shout like a madman." The lesson continued with Gill explaining how to guess the meanings of the other words and summarising ways of guessing meaning on the board. Throughout, Marco and Stella tried to answer Gill's questions but she was always looking the other way. At the end of the hour, Gill gave the learners a ten-minute break. Marco and Stella came up to her.

"Why don't you like me?", Marco asked.

"What do you mean? You're a good student, Marco. Of course I like you." Gill replied.

"Then why you always ask Ingrid? I want to talk, but you never look at me. You like Ingrid, you don't like me."

Gill was surprised. She never thought she ignored Marco. Perhaps Ingrid had answered a lot of the questions. Was that Gill's fault? Had she been paying attention to only a small part of the class? Thinking back, she realised that maybe this was true. Perhaps she did stand too near the learners in the middle so she didn't see the learners at the sides. She would have to make amends. She would have to be fairer and give all the learners an equal chance. More immediately, she would have to placate Marco.

Questions

1. In the case study, three ways of arranging seating are mentioned, the horseshoe, rows and columns, and allowing learners to arrange the seating. In your teaching situation, are all of these possible? Which one do you generally prefer and why?

2. Different seating arrangements are appropriate for different purposes. For example, rows and columns are often used for exams. Can you think of other purposes for which certain seating arrangements are the most appropriate? What about pairwork and groupwork? Do these require different seating arrangements?

3. The picture below represents Gill's classroom.

Where do you think Gill, Raul, Madeleine, Ingrid, Leif, Maria, Pablo, Marco and Stella are in the diagram? In the diagram, which learners do you think will have least chance of participating in the lesson? What should Gill do to give all learners a more equal chance of participating in the lesson?

4. Gill is clearly focusing her teaching efforts on some of the learners at the expense of others (out of 25 learners in the class, only 6 were nominated by Gill). The area of the classroom where most of the interaction occurs is called the action zone. For many teachers, the action zone is the middle and/or front part of the classroom, but some teachers have biases towards the left or the right. Do you know whether there is a distinct action zone in your classroom, and if so, in what part of the classroom is it? How can you become aware of your action zone? If you do focus more on only one area of the classroom, how can you expand your action zone to incorporate the whole classroom?

5. Having realised that Marco's complaint is valid, how should Gill respond to Marco?

6. Gill's teaching exhibits a certain pattern of interaction. Typically, Gill asks a question, a learner gives an answer, and Gill gives feedback on the learner's answer. This pattern is termed Initiation - Response - Feedback, or I-R-F for short. What do you think are the strengths and weaknesses of using I-R-F as the main interaction pattern in the classroom? Other interaction patterns include lecturing, groupwork and having the students mingle. When do you think each of these interaction patterns is most appropriate? What purposes does each serve?

7. A final point concerning this case study is the teaching of vocabulary. Vocabulary can be taught as individual (or sets of) items, or through strategies. Vocabulary strategies include using a dictionary effectively, guessing from context, and ways of remembering words. What approach to vocabulary is Gill using in this lesson and what do you think the lesson aims are? Nowadays, a lot of vocabulary teaching takes the form of strategy training. Is this strategy-based approach also possible with other aspects of language, such as pronunciation, grammar and functions? If so, what strategies can be taught and how can they be taught? If not, why is strategy training less effective for these other aspects of language?

Further reading

Seating arrangements are discussed in Gower et al. (1995), Scrivener (1994) and Wright (1987), while Richards and Lockhart (1994) and Shamim (1996) look at the action zone in the classroom. Affective aspects of language which may be important in Gill's response to Marco are considered in Head and Taylor (1997). Allwright and Bailey (1991) and van Lier (1988, 1996) examine classroom interaction, summarising research into this area and producing a theoretical foundation respectively. Ur (1996)

compares the different interaction patterns common in classrooms, and Lynch (1996) and Scrivener (1994) gives a list of suggestions for maximising learner participation. Vocabulary teaching is covered extensively and clearly in Gairns and Redman (1986), Hatch and Brown (1995) and Nation and Newton (1997), while Campbell and Kryszewska (1995) includes training activities to help teachers improve their teaching of vocabulary. Shaw (1996) focuses specifically on strategy training for vocabulary, and general models of strategy training are given by Oxford (1990) and Williams and Burden (1997).

Case Study 6: Controlled by the Plan

Planning, being flexible in the classroom, and dealing with the unexpected.
by Richard Watson Todd

Mustafa was proud of his BEd. Now in his first job as a teacher, he had great plans for helping his students learn English, and he knew that what he had learnt from his BEd would help him reach this goal. All through his years as a secondary school student, he had thought that teaching was easy, but his degree had made him realise that teaching was far more complicated when seen from the teacher's perspective than from the student's seat. The most important thing that Mustafa had learnt from his degree was the importance of planning. His tutors had constantly emphasised and re-emphasised the need to think before teaching. Planning, he had been told, was often more important for the success of a lesson than the teaching. Having been asked to teach an impromptu lesson and then compare it with a planned lesson, Mustafa firmly believed his tutors.

Mustafa had been teaching at a technical college in Cairo for two weeks now. His next lesson was on Saturday with an evening class of older students. He picked up the textbook assigned for the class and started planning. On his degree, he had been told to follow a given sequence for planning and to write his plan according to a model format. Mustafa didn't need to remind himself of the sequence or the format since he had used them so often already. Starting from the unit in the textbook, he identified the objectives to be covered in the lesson, used a grammar book to check on his knowledge of these objectives, looked through the reading passage, prepared quick explanations of unknown words, checked the answers to the comprehension questions, decided how to present the grammar points, and wrote up instructions for the pairwork activity. As a final flourish, he decided to devote three minutes at the start of the lesson to chatting to the students.

Looking over his lesson plan, Mustafa was pleased. It looked perfect. He could easily imagine his old tutor giving him an A grade for the plan. With a plan like this, he felt

sure that he could help his students understand the grammar easily and that they would enjoy learning.

At six o'clock on the Saturday, Mustafa went into the classroom to find all of his students waiting for him. He checked the register and let the students calm down.

"OK, what did you do in the last week?", he asked. "Yes, Fatima?"

"I went to the cinema."

"You went to the cinema. Very good. OK, Ahmed what did you do?"

"I went to see my uncle near from Alexandria."

"Near Alexandria. No 'from'. OK. Hafiz?"

"I got married."

Mustafa smiled. "You got married. That's interesting." The three minutes he had set aside for chatting were up. "Now turn to page 17 in your books."

Mustafa asked the students to read the passage and to identify unknown words. After the students had finished reading, he asked, "Right, what words didn't you know?"

"Trapped."

"Trapped, right." Mustafa looked at his lesson plan. "Trap means to catch. So the boy was trapped means the boy was caught. OK?"

The students were silent.

"Any other words?"

"Pick."

"OK, pick means to select."

"But I don't understand. Here the book has that pick the lock."

"Yes, lock means the thing that you open with a key."

"But I don't understand."

Mustafa wondered what was wrong with Hafiz who was usually a good student.

Maybe it was his marriage affecting him. "What do you mean?"

"Pick a lock means select a lock. I don't understand."

"Never mind. Any more words? Yes, Abdullah?"

"Freezer."

"I taught you freezer last week. You already know the word. Yes, Miriam?"

"Jog."

Mustafa looked a bit put out. He had noticed the word when he had prepared his lesson, but he had assumed that the students would know it. He knew that in the short time he had been teaching them, the students hadn't come across jog, but it was such a simple word he had thought they must know it. "Um, jog means run."

Ahmed looked up brightly. "Run. Like Said Aouita. Yeah, good runner."

Mustafa was flustered. "No, not like Said Aouita. He runs very fast, but jog is running slowly."

It was now Ahmed's turn to look puzzled. "But if you run, you want to win. Why people run slow?" He then switched to Arabic and used the slang expression for 'They must be cheats'.

Mustafa felt that he was starting to lose control. This wasn't in his lesson plan. "No. You don't jog when you run in a race. Jog is run slowly for exercise. If you want to get fit, you can run but you only need to run slowly. So people jog for exercise or to get fit."

Now it was Miriam who looked confused. "What mean exercise and fit?"

Mustafa felt himself in danger of falling into a never-ending circle of definitions. He decided that he had to avoid this at all costs. So he quickly wrote the three problem words in English on the board with their Arabic equivalents. All of the students looked satisfied and dutifully copied these down into their exercise books. Mustafa was still worried, however. First, he had broken the climate of English which he had tried so hard to establish in the classroom. Second, he realised that he was already five minutes behind his lesson plan. He would have to rush through everything to get the lesson finished on time.

The rest of the lesson consisted of a mad rush on Mustafa's part to catch up with the times written in his lesson plan. In this he was frustrated by several unexpected questions and incorrect answers from the students which he felt duty-bound to deal with. The lesson turned into a race between Mustafa and the clock. He didn't give the students enough time to answer the comprehension questions; his grammar explanation was so rushed that he then had to spend a lot of time dealing with students' misunderstandings; he skimmed through the pairwork instructions at such a rate that the students had little idea of what they were supposed to do; and by the time the bell rang at the end of the lesson none of the pairs were anywhere close to finishing the activity.

After the lesson ended, the students left the room and Mustafa collapsed at his desk. What had gone wrong? His lesson plan had been so good. He looked back over it. The only problem he could see was that he should have predicted the need to teach jog. But surely such a little mistake couldn't have made his lesson go so awry. Nevertheless, it was the only problem he could find. He resolved to be more careful in his lesson planning in future. He would need to check every word in the reading passages, and prepare explanations for most of them. Although he didn't look forward to this, he knew that good lesson plans were vital, and the more he prepared the better

his lesson plans and his teaching would be. With a sigh, he started reading the passage for the next lesson he would teach.

Questions

1. The BEd that Mustafa took placed a heavy emphasis on lesson planning. How important do you think lesson planning is to the success of lessons? How much emphasis should be given to lesson planning on teacher training programmes?

2. Mustafa had been taught to follow a certain sequence and format when planning. What do you think this sequence and format consisted of? How helpful do you think such a model is to beginning teachers? While models of planning can help give security to beginning teachers, they are also restrictive. Do you think the benefits of such models outweigh the extent to which they restrict teachers?

3. The lesson started with "chatting". What are the purposes of chatting to students? Why is it used so often as a way of beginning lessons?

4. Chatting to students can be considered an attempt to bring the characteristics of natural conversation (such as unpredictability and the need to constantly negotiate topics) into the classroom. However, the way in which Mustafa runs the chatting session does not reflect interaction in the real world. In what ways does the classroom chatting in the extract differ from interaction in the real world? How do you think Mustafa can change the way he runs the chatting session in order to make it reflect real world interaction more closely?

5. To help students understand the reading passage, Mustafa asks them to identify unknown words. Do you think unknown words should be taught before the students read or after they have finished reading? Do all unknown words need to be explained? In explaining the meaning of the unknown words to the students, Mustafa seems to regard the context in which the words appear as not being very important. What problems does this lead to and how can Mustafa overcome these problems?

6. Mustafa's main problems occur when he is required to teach something he has not planned for. Improvisation is a vital teaching skill. Do you think that improvisation is teachable? If so, how can improvisation be taught? All through the lesson Mustafa is being controlled by the plan rather than controlling it. To what extent should plans be followed? When and why should teachers deviate from their prepared plans?

7. Finally, after the lesson finishes, Mustafa reflects on what had happened in the lesson. The main conclusion of his reflection is that he should spend more time on planning. Do you think that this will help Mustafa in future lessons? Overall, planning seems to be the only area on which Mustafa concentrates. If you were Mustafa's colleague, how could you help him gain an appreciation of other aspects of teaching?

Case Study 7: That Awful Little Book

Discipline problems and dealing with cultural differences.
by Richard Watson Todd

Four weeks ago, eight instructors from the Takahashi Language Centre (TLC) in Tokyo were assigned to an intensive English programme taking place at a training centre for a large Japanese company producing radar equipment for ships. The programme was scheduled to continue for several months, and was attended by younger engineers and MBAs, all university graduates, and all being groomed for managerial positions. There were four classes in the programme, each with about a dozen learners, and men outnumbering women by about two-to-one. TLC had competed with several other consultancies and language schools for this lucrative contract, and it couldn't have come at a better moment. Recently, TLC had lost several big contracts, a result of the economic downturn, and had been desperate to find new clients.

Several days after they programme had begun, one of the instructors, Janet, noticed a book focusing on American vulgarity on the desk of one of the male learners. She picked it up and skimmed through the pages. What it contained was even worse than she had imagined. She asked the class who the book belonged to, but nobody answered. She put it aside, assuming that whoever it did belong to was too embarrassed to respond. She figured it would disappear after class, and went on with her lesson.

Fifteen minutes later, during a communicative activity, several male learners began trying out nasty words and expressions on their female classmates, who seemed to be unaware of the meaning behind the words. Somehow these learners must have got hold of the book. Janet realised that she would have to deal with this problem quickly before she lost control of the classroom. She took the book from a group of learners and told them that the language it contained was socially unacceptable at all levels of society, including that of her classroom. She warned them not to use the language in the classroom again, or anywhere in her presence for that matter.

Later on in the lesson, she thought she heard obscene language coming from the rear of the classroom. There were two women in the group of four, and she heard some Japanese being used as well. She was not entirely sure that the words she heard were obscene. The learners' voices could barely be heard, and besides, the women in the

group did not appear to be upset in the least. No, she must have been imagining things. At the end of the class, she put the offending book on her desk and told the class that she did not wish to learn the identity of its owner as long as the book never made an appearance again.

In the evening, Janet was riding home on the train with a colleague named Sheena. She intended to mention the distressing incident, but Sheena brought up the subject first. The book had made an appearance in Sheena's classroom as well. Sheena taught the same group as Janet later on in the day, so it was apparent that Janet's warning had been ignored. Janet considered what steps to take to deal with the situation. She was unsure of how to reproach adult learners over something as juvenile as obscenity, and hoped that, since the learners had the following day off and since they were adults, the entire issue would disappear.

Unfortunately it didn't. Some learners became bolder in the next lesson and began comparing some of the male and female instructors to certain American celebrities known for their sexuality. Some used the graphic language from the book that Janet had banned from her classroom. Janet noticed that the culprits were confined to two or three men, but chose to address the entire class. She told them she was serious about what she had said in the previous lesson. She warned that she would bring this matter up with the supervisors of the programme if the learners persisted in using obscenities, and asked them if they understood. A few responded yes, but Janet also heard several Japanese utterances and what she though may have been some snickering. The remainder of the class continued without incident, and Janet considered the matter resolved.

Two weeks later, however, Janet had to leave the room in tears. Sheena happened to be passing in the hallway and immediately noticed how upset Janet appeared to be. She brought Janet into the teacher's room. Once Janet was able to settle down a bit, Sheena asked what had happened. Janet responded, "Do you remember that awful little book that we spotted in the class? Well, this morning I heard one of the men using some of that foul language again, you know, Hiroshi. I was quite surprised because he wasn't one of the learners I had singled out. Actually, he hardly ever speaks at all. Anyway, I tried to make it as clear as possible how bad the language is and how much trouble he could get himself into by using those words. I realised though that he probably didn't know what he was saying. Of course, I warned him that I don't ever want to hear him using that language again.

"So anyway a bit later, I'm going around the room checking on some groupwork, and I get to his group and do you know what this guy does? He starts propositioning me, asking if I could meet him and using the same vulgar disgusting talk and the whole class starts laughing, even the women. I just couldn't believe that someone could do such a thing. I don't know what to do. I don't want to teach them anymore. I'm going to ask TLC if they can replace me with another teacher, preferably a man."

Sheena was outraged. "They're going to have to find a replacement for you and they're going to have to make this an issue. We can't put up with this kind of behaviour. You know, I know this society does not have a high regard for women to begin with, and that, no thanks to Hollywood, some men think Western women are loose, but I can't believe that someone could come out with that kind of language, those kinds of ideas, in from of everybody and think it was funny. The women were probably shy and uncomfortable, so they just laughed. But all the men went along with it. We really have to pursue this."

Janet started to be a little more hesitant. "But TLC can't afford to lose a client this big. And if we push this, we're going to be blamed by everybody."

"Yeah, but if we don't, nothing will change. These men have to know that this kind of behaviour is, well, unacceptable."

"Yeah, but what about if we lose money, even our jobs, or TLC goes bankrupt, and everybody hates us, then what do we gain? This is the first time in three years I've really dealt with anything this serious. Maybe one of the male teachers can talk with these learners. Or maybe we should just get the director to talk with the training part of the company and let them decide what to do."

Sheena was adamant, however, that Janet should not back down. "Please, think about this, and think about how much you had to suffer because of what this guy did. Was he right? Because if you don't do anything about it, this sends out the signal that he was. Maybe in his mind he didn't do anything wrong, as odd as that may seem. Well, in that case he's got to learn that what he did is, in fact, wrong, very wrong."
"Yeah, but Sheena, what's going to happen to this guy? As far as I know, they don't have any laws or regulations about that stuff here. And this guy's some kind of high-tech physicist. He'll never lose his job. It's not worth taking it any further. As long as I never have to teach them again, I don't care."

Questions

1. Janet warned the learners not to use the language from the book on American vulgarity in the classroom. How do you think Janet phrased her warning? How can warnings be phrased to have the greatest effect? Do you think she included a threat? Is she in a position to be able to follow through on any threats she makes? Aside from warnings and threats, what other options might be available to Janet?

2. Not all teachers view discipline problems in the same light. This may be especially true for teachers from different cultural backgrounds. For instance, quiet learners may be indicative of non-cooperation to one teacher, whereas to another teacher it may be a sign of deference to the teacher's status and thus reflect model behaviour. Can you think of other patterns of classroom behaviour that may be viewed differently by different teachers? What about the problem Janet is facing?

3. Sheena, at one point in her conversation with Janet, suggests that the male learner "in his mind ... didn't do anything wrong". She then goes on to say, "he's got to learn that what he did is, in fact, wrong, very wrong." If the male learner's actions within the context of his own culture are not considered to be a breech of conduct, is Sheena justified in insisting that he has to learn how to behave according to the norms that govern her own behaviour? Is this an example of imposing a culture while teaching language? Does teaching English imply that we should also teach Western cultural expectations?

4. Male-female relationships sometimes vary between cultures. Should TLC warn prospective teachers about this issue before hiring them? What other issues of cultural variance could prospective teachers be warned of? If organisations like TLC issue such warnings, do they run the risk of sounding prejudiced by caricaturing cultures? Does the onus of discovering such differences rest with the teachers themselves? How could a prospective teacher research such issues prior to travelling to the country of employment?

5. TLC is struggling to compete with other similar organisations and so doesn't want to lose its contract. However, it also needs to maintain standards and keep its teachers happy. What are some ways TLC could react to Janet's situation? Which do you think would be best under the circumstances?

Assignment 1: Reflective Account on ELT Methodologies (Deadline: 02/12/17)
Critically reflect on your own language learning:
1000 words (+/- 10% excluding list of references and appendices)
- Critically evaluate the teaching methodologies employed by current and previous language teachers in terms of your own learning, identifying methodologies which have helped you learn and those which have been less successful. Support this reflection with discussion of literature related to ELT methodologies.

To achieve a pass, you will need to meet the following criteria:
- produce an effective critical evaluation of aspects of methods and techniques and their supporting theories;

- reflect on your experiences as a learners of teaching methods and techniques;

- draw effectively on appropriate sources to support reflection, argument and conclusions;

- use standard written English that is accurate at word, sentence and text level;

- Use and cite sources correctly using Harvard referencing conventions.

Assignment 2: Reflective Account on Learning a Language within PRESETT Program (Deadline 12/01/2018)
Reflective Account on Learning a Language within PRESETT Program
1000 words (+/- 10% excluding list of references and appendices)
- Choose two modules from the program and discuss how your learning developed through

  o class activities

  o reading

  o writing

  o other activities

Critically evaluate the teaching methodologies employed by tutors on this course, identifying methodologies which have helped you learn and those which have been less successful. Support this reflection with discussion of literature related to ELT methodologies.

Assignment 3: Reflective Account on the Course Content (Deadline: 25/01/2018)
Reflective Essay on the Foreign Languages Teaching Methodology Course Content
1000 words (+/-10% excluding list of references and appendices)
- Critically reflect on the content of the Foreign Language Teaching Methodology course. In your essay evaluate the theories and practical suggestions on teaching foreign languages you have learned from the lecture classes and the practical sessions. Support this reflection with discussion of literature related to ELT methodologies.

To achieve a pass, you will need to meet the following criteria:
- produce an effective critical evaluation of aspects of methods and techniques and their supporting theories learned by you during the course;

- reflect on your learning of teaching methods and techniques;

- draw effectively on appropriate sources to support reflection, argument and conclusions;

- use standard written English that is accurate at word, sentence and text level;

- Use and cite sources correctly using Harvard referencing conventions.

Deadlines for Article Reviews:
Article 1: 16/12/2016
Article 2: 23/12/2016
Article 3: 16/12/2018
Article 4: 03/01/2018
Article 5: 13/01/2018
Article 6: 27/01/2018

Note: Besides completing all of the above assignments students' notes taken during the lecture classes and practical sessions will be considered as a must for the partial fulfilment of the course requirements.

TOPICS FOR COURSE WORKS

1. Teachers' Perception of the CEFR in Secondary and Specialized Secondary Institutions of Sirdarya Region

2. Young Learners as Individuals: Individualized Approach to Teaching English

3. Teaching Speaking Using Role Plays and Games in Upper Secondary Stage of Education

4. Teachers' Perception of Approaches, Methods and Techniques in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

5. Learners' Beliefs and Teachers Approaches to Developing Learner Autonomy in Language Learning

6. Analyzing Writing Activities Employed in Teaching English at Specialized Secondary Education Institutions

7. Motivational Strategies and Techniques Employed by English Teachers in Teaching Young Learners

8. Effective Elicitation Techniques as a Key to Successful Language Learning

9. Genre Based Approach to Teaching Writing in Specialized Secondary Education

10. Evaluating the Efficiency of Listen and Do Activities in Teaching First Graders at Primary Stage of Education

11. Evaluating the Efficiency of Authentic Materials in Teaching English Grammar

12. Rapport Building in the English as a Foreign Language Classroom

13. Teachers' Use of Humor and Students' Language Learning

14. Teachers' Elicitation Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary and Grammar

15. Teaching English through Literature: Project Works

16. Approaches to Developing Young Learners' Productive and Receptive Skills

17. Enhancing Learners' Contribution to Classroom Talk in English as a Foreign Language Classroom

18. Teachers' Sense of Self-Efficacy, Language Proficiency and Language Teaching Strategies in Secondary Schools

19. Teaching English to Young Learners: Theory vs. Local Practices

20. Anxiety and Its Impact on Foreign Language Learning

21. Use of the CEFR Self-Assessment Grid in Developing Learner Autonomy

22. Developmental Errors and Their Role in Learning a Foreign Language

23. Cooperative and Competitive Games and Their Role in the Increase of Learner Motivation

24. Language Assessment Methods Used in Teaching English at Specialized Secondary Education Institutions

25. Teacher's Use of Course books and Lesson Plans in Teaching English

26. Teaching English Speaking and Listening Skills to Young Language Learners in the Context of Uzbekistan's Continuing Education System

27. The Problem of Students' Switching to L1 in the EFL Classroom in Group Work Activities

28. Krashen's Comprehensive Input Theory and Teaching English to Young Learners

29. Integrated View on the Problems of Second Language Acquisition

30. Teachers Use of Scaffolding Techniques in Teaching Young Language Learners

31. Information Processing Theory and the Problems of L2 Learning

32. Critical Period Hypothesis in Learning English: Verifying the Validity in the Example of Schools

33. Noam Chomsky's Universal Grammar Theory and Second Language Acquisition

34. Vygotsky's Approach to the Problems of Learning and its Application in ELT

35. Use of English Literature in Organization of Language Learning Process in Specialized Secondary Education

36. Teacher Feedback in EFL Writing from Sociocultural Perspectives

37. The Effect of Focused Written Corrective Feedback on EFL Learners' Accuracy

38. Teachers' Perceptions of Oral Corrective Feedback and Their Practice in EFL Classrooms

39. The Use of Models as a Written Feedback Technique with Young EFL Learners

40. Effects of Extensive Reading and Translation Activities on Grammar Knowledge of EFL Learners

41. Practice of Using Creative Writing in Teaching English at Secondary Schools

42. Teachers' Use of the L1 in English as a Foreign Language Lessons

43. Impact of Using IT on Learners' Motivation in EFL Classroom

44. Teachers' Use of Process Writing Activities in EFL Classroom

45. Vocabulary Learning Strategies Employed by Young Language Learners at Primary Schools in Gulistan

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GLOSSARY

A short form of a word or phrase, e.g. in addresses, *Rd* is an abbreviation of Road. See **acronym**, **contraction**.

Abstract adjective

Relating to complex thoughts and ideas rather than simple, basic, concrete concepts. A text or language can be abstract, e.g. words to express thoughts, feelings or complex ideas, which cannot be seen or touched, are often abstract words. See **concrete**.

Academic adjective

Relating to schools, colleges and universities, or connected with studying and thinking.

Accuracy

The use of correct forms of grammar, vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation. In an accuracy activity, teachers and learners typically focus on using and producing language correctly. See **fluency**.

Achievement noun, **achieve** verb, **achievable** adjective

Something reached by effort; something done successfully. Something which is achievable for learners is something they can succeed in.

Achievement test: see **test**.

Acknowledge

To show that you have seen or understood something, e.g. the teacher acknowledged the learner's answer with a gesture.

Acquisition noun, **acquire** verb

To learn a language without studying it, just by hearing and/or reading and then using it. This is the way people usually learn their first language.

► Acronym

A set of letters representing the first letters of two or more words, usually of a name or title. The letters are pronounced as a word e.g. *NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation) radar* (*radio detection and ranging*). N.B.

Acronyms are different from **initialisms** such as *BBC, CD* where the letters are pronounced as letters.

Action rhyme

A classroom activity using a rhyme which learners perform with accompanying actions. See **Listen and do/make/draw**.

Activate previous knowledge

To get learners to think about and to say what they know about a topic. Teachers activate learners' previous knowledge when they are preparing learners to read or listen to a text. Research has demonstrated that when learners' previous knowledge is activated, reading and listening comprehension is increased. See **arouse**, **generate**, **stimulate interest**.

Active voice

In an active sentence, the subject of the verb usually does or causes the action, e.g. *The captain scored the winning goal*. See **passive voice**.

Activity-based learning

A way of learning by doing activities. The rules of language used in the activity are looked at either after the activity or not at all.

Activity book: see **book**.

Adapt (material)

To change a text or other material, so that it is suitable to use with a particular class**.**

Adjective

An adjective describes or gives more information about a noun or pronoun, e.g. *a cold day*.

A **comparative adjective** compares two things, e.g. *He is taller than she is*.

A **demonstrative adjective** shows whether something is near or far from the speaker, e.g. *this* (near), *that* (far).

An **-ing/-ed adjective** describes things or feelings. An **-ing adjective** describes things or people, e.g. *The book is very interesting*. An **-ed adjective** describes feelings, e.g. *I am very interested in the book*.

A **possessive adjective** shows who something belongs to, e.g. *my*, *our*.

A **superlative adjective** compares more than two things, e.g. *He is the tallest boy in the class*.

► See **gradable/ungradable**.

Adverb

An adverb describes or gives more information about how, when, where, or to what degree etc something is done,

e.g. *he worked quickly and well*.

► **Adverbial**

A word, phrase or clause acting as an adverb e.g. in the sentence *She cut the paper as carefully as she could,* the underlined part is an adverbial.

Affix verb, **affixation** noun

A meaningful group of letters added to the beginning or end of a word to make a new word, which can be a different part of speech from the original word, e.g. *interview*, *interviewer*. Affixation is the process of adding a prefix or suffix to a word. See **prefix**, **suffix**.

► **Affricate**

A sound produced by stopping the air flow then releasing it with friction e.g. / tâ / , / dΩ /.

Aids

Aids are the things that a teacher uses in a class, e.g. handouts, pictures, flashcards. When teachers plan lessons they think about what aids they will need. See **visual aid**.

A small piece of wood with straight sides: Some teachers give learners coloured blocks for use in **listen and make** activities.

Board game

A game played by two or more players on a board using **dice**. Players throw the dice and move around squares on the board. By writing different instructions in the squares, teachers can use board games for controlled language practice or oral fluency, e.g. when a learner lands on a square, they say a daily routine using the present simple.

Book

An **activity book** or **workbook** contains extra practice activities and is often used for homework. It usually accompanies a **coursebook**.

A **coursebook** or **textbook** is used regularly by learners in the class. It generally contains grammar, vocabulary and skills work and follows a syllabus. A **coursebook unit** is a chapter of a coursebook.

A **teacher's book** accompanies the coursebook, and contains teaching ideas, **audio scripts** and answers to coursebook activities.

Brainstorm noun + verb

To think of ideas (usually quickly) about a topic (often noting these down). This is often done as preparation before a writing or speaking activity

Brochure: see **leaflet**, **realia**.

Build rapport: see **rapport**.

'Can-do' statements

Sentences that describe language learners' language use or an aspect of it on a scale of proficiency, e.g. *This learner CAN express simple opinions or requirements in a familiar context.*

Capital letter

A letter of the form and size used at the beginning of a sentence or a name, e.g. *They went to Spain last year.*

See **punctuation**.

► Cataphoric reference

Reference to something that occurs later in the text; often achieved through use of pronouns or lexical chains e.g. in the sentence *That's what it is – a nuisance*, *That* refers forward to *nuisance*.

See **anaphoric, exophoric**.

Categorisation noun, **categorise** verb, **category** noun To put things into the group (category) to which they belong. For example, learners might categorise a list of different

foods into groups (categories) such as fruit and vegetables.

► Causative passive

A use of the passive to express the idea of making something happen e.g. S*he got her car washed; They had their house painted;* the causative is commonly expressed with the verb 'get' or 'have'.

See **passive voice**.

Chant noun + verb

To repeat a phrase, sentence, rhyme, verse, poem or song, usually with others, in a regular rhythm.

Chart noun

Information in the form of diagrams, lists or drawings often placed on the classroom wall for learners to refer to.

Common examples are lists of irregular verb forms or drawings illustrating the meanings of prepositions.

Checking understanding: see **concept questions**, **concept checking**.

Checklist noun

A list of things that a learner or teacher needs to focus on or consider. Examples could include **assessment** checklist,

resources checklist, lesson planning checklist.

Choral drill: see **drill**.

Chunk

Any pair or group of words commonly found together or near one another, e.g. phrasal verbs, idioms, collocations, fixed expressions.

Clarify verb, **clarification** noun

1. To make clear what you mean.

2. **Clarify language**. When teachers focus on form, meaning and pronunciation to help learners understand the use and rules of target language. See **ask for clarification**.

Class dynamics: see **group dynamics**.

Class, **learner profile**

A description of the learners and information related to their learning, including their age, ability, strengths and weaknesses in language and skills.

Classroom management

The strategies used by a teacher to organise the classroom, the learning and the learners, such as seating arrangements, different types of activities, teacher roles and interaction patterns.

Part of a video or DVD that can be used in class.

Closed pairs: see **pairs**.

Closed question

A question which leads to a yes/no answer or another very short response, e.g. *Did you come to school by bus? Yes. What did you have for breakfast? Toast.* See **open question**.

Cloze test

A task-type in which learners read a text with missing words and try to work out what the missing words are. The missing words are removed regularly from the text, e.g. every seventh word. A cloze

test is used for testing reading ability or general language use. It is different from a gap-fill activity, which can focus on practising or testing a specific language point. See **gap-fill**.

Clue

A piece of information that helps someone to find the answer to a problem, e.g. a teacher could give the first letter of a word she is trying to elicit as a clue to learners to help them find the word.

Cognitive (processes)

The mental processes involved in thinking, understanding and learning.

Coherence noun, **coherent** adjective

When ideas in a spoken or written text fit together clearly and smoothly, and so are logical and make sense to the listener or reader.

Cohesion noun, **cohesive** adjective

The way spoken or written texts are joined together with logical grammar or lexis, e.g. conjunctions (*Firstly*, *secondly)*, lexical sets, referring words (*it*, *them*, *this*).

Cohesive device

A feature in a text which provides cohesion, e.g. use of topic-related vocabulary throughout a text, of sequencing words (*then*, *next*, *after that* etc.), of referencing words (pronouns – *he*, *him*, etc.), of conjunctions (*however*, *although* etc.).

Collaborate verb, **collaborative** adjective

To work together. Learners often collaborate in class when carrying out tasks, which typically involves planning, creating, discussing, evaluating etc.

Collective noun: see **noun**.

Collocation noun, **collocate** verb,

Words which are regularly used together. The relation between the words may be grammatical, for example when certain verbs/adjectives collocate with particular prepositions, e.g. *depend on, good at* or when a verb like *make* or *do* collocates with a noun, e.g. *do the shopping*, *make a plan*. Collocations may also be lexical when two content words are regularly used together, e.g. *We went the wrong way* NOT *We went the incorrect way*.

Colloquial

Language normally used in informal conversation but not in formal speech or writing, e.g. *Give Gran a ring, OK?*

Comma: see **punctuation**.

Common noun: see **noun**.

Communicative activity

A classroom activity in which learners need to talk or write to one another to complete the activity.

Communicative approaches

A way of teaching and practising language which is based on the principle that learning a language successfully involves communication rather than just memorising a series of rules. Teachers try to focus on meaningful communication, rather than focusing on accuracy and correcting mistakes. See **Grammar-Translation method**.

Comparative adjective: see **adjective**.

► Complement

Words or phrases that complete the meaning of another word or a sentence e.g. in the sentence *'He gave the man a ticket'*, *'the man a ticket'* is the complement. In *'Jane was unavailable'*, *'unavailable'* is
the complement.

Complex

Complicated, not simple.

Complex sentence

A sentence containing a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

Components (of a lesson plan)

The main parts of a lesson plan, e.g. aims, procedure, timing, aids, interaction patterns, anticipated problems, assumptions, timetable fit, personal aims.

Compound

Nouns, verbs, adjectives or prepositions that are made up of two or more words and have one unit of meaning, e.g. *assistant office manager*, *long-legged.*

Compound noun: see **noun**.

Comprehension

Understanding a spoken or written text.

Concept

Idea or meaning.

Concept questions, **concept checking**

A concept question is a question asked by the teacher to make sure that a learner has understood the meaning of new language, e.g. Teaching the new **grammatical structure** '*used to',* using the example – *He used to live in Paris*.

Concept question – *Does he live in Paris now?* Answer – *No.*

Concept checking is the technique of asking concept questions or using other techniques to check that learners have understood a new structure or item of lexis.

Concrete

Relating to real or specific ideas or concepts. Lexis can be concrete, e.g. words for real objects like clothes, food, animals that can be seen or touched, or abstract. See **abstract**.

An explanation of the meaning of a word, e.g. in a dictionary.

► Delexicalised

That has (almost) lost its denotative meaning; usually used to describe verbs that combine with nouns to form multi-word verbs e.g. *to have a shower, to take a break, to make a difference.*

Demonstrative adjective: see **adjective**.

Demonstrative pronoun: see **pronoun**.

Demotivate: see **motivation**.

► Denotation: see **meaning**.

► Dental

Involving the teeth. Dental sounds (/ ä / , / Ü /) are made with the teeth.

Dependent preposition: see **preposition**.

Detail, read for detail, listen for detail

To listen to or read a text in order to understand most of what it says or particular details. See **gist, global**

understanding.

Determiner

A determiner is used to make clear which noun is referred to, or to give information about quantity, and includes words such as *the*, *a*, *this*, *that*, *my*, *some*, e.g. *That car is mine*.

Develop skills

To help learners to improve their listening, reading, writing and speaking ability. Teachers do this in class by providing activities which focus on skills development. See **skills**.

Developmental error: see **error**.

Diagnostic test noun, **diagnose** verb: see **assessment** and **test**.

Diagnostician: see **teacher role**.

Dialogue

A conversation between two or more people.

Dice

Small blocks of plastic or wood with six sides and a different number of spots on each side. They are used in **board games**.

Dictation noun, **dictate** verb An activity which typically involves the learners in writing down what the teacher reads aloud. See **picture dictation**.

Dictionary

A **bilingual dictionary** uses translation from one language into another language for definitions and examples.

A **monolingual dictionary** uses only the target language for headwords, definitions, examples etc.

A **thesaurus** is a type of dictionary in which words with similar meanings are grouped together.

Differentiation noun, **differentiate** verb

To make or see a difference between people and things. In teaching, this can have a special meaning relating to dealing with mixed ability learners in one class, e.g. the teacher can provide different tasks, activities, texts or materials for different learners in the class according to their ability.

Diphthong

A vowel combination which is pronounced by moving from one vowel to another, e.g. / aˆ / as in *my* is pronounced by moving from / æ /to / ˆ /. See **consonant** and **vowel**.

Having the intended or desired result.

Elicit verb

When a teacher thinks that some learners will know a piece of language or other information, s/he asks targeted questions or gives clues to get, or **prompt** learners to give the target language or information rather than simply providing it to the class her/himself.

► **Elision**

When a sound is left out in connected speech because it is followed by a similar sound e.g. in 'he gave up politics' the /p/ in 'up' is likely to be elided /higeˆv√pÅlˆtˆks/

► **Ellipsis**

When a word, phrase or clause is left out in discourse because it is unnecessary for conveying meaning e.g. in the sentence ' *They made a big effort and ended up winning the prize,' 'they'* is left out before *'ended up'* because it is clear what the subject of this verb is.

Emphasis noun, **emphasise** verb, **emphatic** adjective When special force or attention is given to a word or information because it is important, e.g. *I want to start the lesson at SIX o'clock not seven o'clock.*

Enable verb

To help someone be able to do something. To make something possible. For example, using a correction code on learners' writing enables learners to improve their own work.

Encouragement noun, **encourage** verb When a teacher helps learners to succeed by giving them confidence, e.g. *'Of course you can do it! You're doing very well '*. See **confidence**.

Energy levels

If learners are interested and working hard, then the energy levels are high; if learners are bored or tired, then the
energy levels are low.

English-medium school

A school in a non-English speaking country, in which all subjects are taught using English.

Enquire

To ask for information, e.g. *What time does the train leave?*

Entry

An item, for example a piece of information that is written or printed in a dictionary about a word, e.g. *easy* / iÄzˆ / *adj,*
adv. 1. not difficult, and not needing much physical and mental effort: an easy job.

Error

A mistake that a learner makes when trying to say something above their level of language or language processing.

A **developmental error** is an error made by a second language learner which could also be made by a young person learning their mother tongue as part of their normal development, e.g. *I goed there last week* (I went there last week).

A **fossilised error** is an error that has become a permanent feature of a learner's language, the error has become a habit. Fossilised errors cannot easily be corrected.

When a learner makes a **slip** they make a language mistake but they are able to correct themselves.

Establish, verb

To discover or get proof of something. Assessing learners can establish the progress they have made.

Evaluation noun, **evaluate** verb

To assess or judge the quality, importance or effectiveness of something. Teachers may evaluate learners' progress or strengths and weaknesses.

Exchange verb + noun

1. To give something to another person and receive something in return.

2. An exchange can also be used to refer to the part of spoken interaction in which one person speaks and another responds to what they said.

Exclamation mark: see **punctuation**.

► Exophoric reference

Reference to something that is outside the text; often achieved through pronouns or demonstrative adjectives, e.g. in the sentence *'Pass me that piece of paper, will you?' 'that'* is exophoric, referring to something in the speaker's surroundings. See **anaphoric, cataphoric.**

Expectation

A belief about the way something will happen. Learners often have expectations about what and how they should learn.

Exploit (material)

To use material for a particular purpose.

Exponent

An example of a grammar point, function or lexical set.

Exposure noun, **expose** verb

When learners listen to or read language without being consciously aware of it.

Express

To show or make known a feeling or an opinion in words, e.g.

Express ability, e.g. *I can swim.*

Express intention, e.g. *I'm planning to visit him next year.*

Express necessity, e.g. *He needs to get a new passport.*

Express obligation, e.g. *You must wear a seatbelt.*

Express permission, e.g. *You can have a look at my book.*

Express preference, e.g. *I'd rather have coffee than tea.*

Express probability, e.g. *He should be in later.*

Express prohibition, e.g. *You mustn't use your mobile phone while driving.*

Extension task, **extend** verb, **extended** adjective

An activity which gives learners further or extended practice of the target language or the topic of the lesson or additional skills work.

Extensive listening/reading

Listening to or reading long pieces of text, such as stories or newspapers. See **intensive listening/reading**.

Extract

Part of a text which is removed from an original, longer text.

Facial expression

A person can show how they feel through their face, e.g. smiling, showing surprise.

An activity in which learners fill in spaces or gaps in sentences or texts. This is often used for restricted practice or for
focusing on a specific language point. This is different from a cloze test which can focus on reading ability or general
language use. See **cloze test**.

Generate interest: see **arouse interest**.

Gerund, *-ing* form

A form of a verb functioning as a noun, which ends in *-ing*, e.g. *I hate shopping*.

Gesture noun + verb

A movement with part of the body, e.g. hand, head, which is used to **convey meaning**.

Get learners' attention

To make learners listen to the teacher after they have been doing group or pairwork or at the start of the lesson.

Gist, **global understanding, listening/reading for gist, listening/reading for global understanding**

To read or listen to a text and understand the general meaning of it, without paying attention to specific details. See
detail, read for detail, listen for detail.

Give feedback: see **feedback**.

► Glottal (stop)

A plosive sound produced at the back of the mouth and represented by the phonemic symbol / ÷ /. In English it
sometimes replaces other sounds, especially / t /, e.g. / wÅ÷ / (what), / lˆ÷l / (little).

Glue noun + verb

Glue is used to fix or join things together. For example, children cut out pictures from a magazine and then glue them
onto a poster they are making in class.

Goal, **target**

An aim that a learner or teacher may have.

► Gradable/ungradable

A gradable adjective or adverb can be measured in degrees. Non-gradable adjectives or adverbs cannot be.
Examples of gradable adjectives are '*exciting, solid, interesting'*. They can be qualified by words such as *more,*
rather, quite which show degree. Examples of ungradable adjectives are '*perfect, alive, salaried'*.

Grade (language)

To use language that is at the correct level for the learners and is not too easy or difficult. See **graded reader**.

Graded reader

A book where the language has been made easier for learners. These are often books with stories or novels where
the language has been simplified.

Grammar-Translation method

A way of teaching in which learners study grammar and translate words and texts into their own language or the
target language. They do not practise communication and there is little focus on speaking. A teacher presents a
grammar rule and vocabulary lists and then learners translate a written text from their own language into the second
language or vice versa. See **communicative approaches**.

Grammatical structure
A grammatical structure is a grammatical language pattern, e.g. present perfect simple. See **form**.
Graph
A drawing that uses a line or lines to show how two or more set of numbers are related to each other, e.g. A question form.
Intonation
The way the level of a speaker's voice changes to show meaning such as how they feel about something, e.g. if they are angry or pleased, or to make speech sound polite in English. Intonation can be rising or falling or both.
Intransitive
Is a term used to describe a verb which does not take a direct object, e.g. *She never cried.* See **transitive**.
Introductory activity
An activity which takes place at the beginning of a lesson. Introductory activities often include warmers and lead-ins.
► Intrusion/intrusive
Used to describe a feature of connected speech in which an extra sound (/ w / , / j / or / r / in English) is added at a word boundary to make for smoother linking between separate words, e.g. the / w / in / juwåç/ (you are).
Involvement
Taking part in an activity actively, being involved in it.
Irregular verb: see **verb**.
IT: see **ICT**.
Item
1. A piece of language, e.g. a vocabulary or a grammar item.
2. The questions (items) in a test to which a learner has to respond.
Jigsaw listening/reading
A text is divided into two or more different parts. Learners listen to or read their part only, then share their information with other learners so that in the end everyone knows all the information. In this way, the text is made into an **information-gap activity**.
Jumbled letters, **paragraphs**, **pictures**, **sentences**, **words**
A word in which the letters are not in the correct order, a sentence in which the words are not in the correct order, a text in which the paragraphs or sentences are not in the correct order, or a series of pictures that are not in the correct order. The learners put the letters, words, text or pictures into the correct order.
Key word, language
A word or aspect of language in a piece of discourse or text, which is important for understanding the text.
Kinaesthetic learner: see **learning style**.
L1/L2
L1 is the learner's mother tongue or first language; L2 is the learner's second language. See **mother tongue, target language**.
Label noun + verb
To match the name of an object to the object.
► Labio-dental
A sound produced on the lips and teeth e.g. / f / , / v /.
Language awareness
A learner's understanding of the rules of how language works and his/her ability to notice language.' A room in a school where learners can practise language by listening to tapes or CDs and by recording themselves speaking.

Language resource: see **teacher role**.

Layout

The way in which a text is organised and presented on a page. Certain texts have special layouts, e.g. letters and

newspaper articles.

Lead-in noun, **lead in** verb

The activity or activities used to prepare learners to work on a text, topic or main task. A lead-in often includes

an introduction to the topic of the text or main task and possibly study of some new key language required for the text

or main task.

Leaflet, **brochure**

A piece of printed paper that gives information or advertises something, e.g. a leaflet with information about local

places of interest. This is one example of **realia**.

Learn by heart

To learn something so that you can remember it perfectly. See **memorise**.

Learner autonomy noun, **autonomous** adjective, **learner independence**

When a learner can set his/her own aims and organise his/her own study, they are autonomous and independent.

Many activities in coursebooks help learners to be more independent by developing **learning strategies** and focusing

on **learner training**.

Learner-centred

When the learners are at the centre of the activities and have the chance to work together, make choices and think for

themselves in a lesson. See **teacher-centred**.

Learner characteristics

The typical things about a learner or learners that influence their learning, e.g. age, L1, past learning experience,

learning style.

Learner independence: see **learner autonomy**.

Learner profile: see **class, learner profile**.

Learner training

The use of activities to help learners understand how they learn and help them to become autonomous, independent

learners.

Learning centre: see **self-access centre**. Something that you wear to cover your face. Children may wear different masks when they are acting as different

characters in a class activity. See **prop.**

Matching task

A task-type in which learners are asked to pair related things together, e.g. match two halves of a sentence, or a word

with a picture.

Maturity noun, **mature** adjective

Fully grown or developed. If a learner is mature in attitude, they behave in an adult way. A learner's maturity

(physical, emotional and mental) influences a teacher's approaches and/or decisions.

► Meaning

What a word expresses; there are several kinds of meaning.

Denotation

The dictionary definition of a word e.g. *a chair is a piece of furniture with legs and we use it to sit on.*

Figurative

An imaginative meaning of a word e.g. *he put all his heart into his new job.*

Literal

The original or basic meaning of a word.

Pragmatic

The meaning given to an utterance by the situation in which it occurs e.g. *'would you mind keeping quiet'* said by a teacher to a student is likely to have the pragmatic meaning of a command rather than an enquiry about willingness.

Semantic

The meanings of words or how they relate to one another e.g. as *synonyms, antonyms.*

Meaningful

1. something which shows the meaning of language.
2. an activity can be meaningful if it is useful for learners in the real world outside the classroom or is relevant to them.

Memorise verb, **memorable** adjective

To learn something so that you can remember it later; something which is easy to remember. See **learn by heart**.

Needs

The language, language skills or learning strategies a learner still has to learn in order to reach their goals, or the conditions they need to help them learn.

Negotiate

To discuss with someone to reach an agreement, e.g. *If you help me now, I'll help you next week.*

Neutral

A style of speaking or writing that is neither formal nor informal, but in between. It is appropriate for most situations.

See **formal language**, **informal language**.

Nominate

To choose and name one learner to speak or do a particular task.

► Non-finite verb

A part of the verb which does not show time or person, e.g. the infinitive *(He needed to have a holiday)*, the present participle *(Not understanding the question, he gave the wrong answer)*. See **finite verb**.

Note-taking noun, **take notes** verb

To take notes means to listen and write down ideas from the text in short form.

Notice language

When a learner becomes aware of the language the speaker or writer uses to express a particular concept or meaning.

Noun

A person, place or thing, e.g. *elephant*, *girl*, *grass*, *school*.

A **collective noun** is a noun that refers to a group of people or things, e.g. *the police*, *the government.*

A **common noun** is a noun that is not the name of a particular person, place or thing, e.g. *table, book.*

A **compound noun** is a combination of two or more words, which are used as a single word, e.g. *a flower shop*, *a headache.*

A **countable noun** has a singular and plural form, e.g. *book□ books.*

A **plural noun** is more than one person, place or thing and can be regular or irregular, e.g. *boys*, *women*.

A **proper noun** is the name of a person or place, e.g. *Robert*, *London*. An **uncountable noun** does not have a plural form, e.g. *information*.

Object pronoun: see **pronoun**.

Objective

Lesson objectives are specific learning targets that help achieve a lesson's aims, e.g. *Learners will be able to understand the gist of the text.*

Objective test: see **test**.

Observed lesson

A lesson that is watched by a teacher trainer or a colleague.

Observer: see **teacher role**.

Off task

When learners are **distracted** or not completing an activity in the way the teacher wants them to do it then they are off task. See **on task**.

On task

When learners are doing an activity in the way the teacher intended that it should be done then learners are on task.

See **off task**.

One-to-one

A teaching situation which involves only one teacher and one learner.

Open class, **whole class**

When the teacher leads the class and each learner is focusing on the teacher, rather than working alone or in groups. When learners respond, they do so in front of everyone in the class.

Open pairs: see **pairs**.

Open question

A question which can lead to a long response, e.g. *How did you spend last weekend? Why do you think many people prefer to drive rather than use public transport?*

Open comprehension questions are a task-type in which learners read or listen to a text and answer questions (using their own words).

Open-ended (task, **questions)**

A task or question that does not have a right or wrong answer, but which allows learners to offer their own opinions and ideas or to respond creatively, e.g. *Why do you think the writer likes living in Paris?*

Oral fluency: see **fluency**.

Oral test

A test of speaking ability.

Origami

The art of making objects for decoration by folding sheets of paper into shapes.

Outcome

Result. This is what the teacher hopes will be the result in terms of learning at the end of the lesson.

Over-application of the rule, **over generalisation**

When a learner uses a grammatical rule s/he has learned, but uses it in situations when it is not needed or appropriate, e.g. a learner says, *There were three girls* (correct plural form used for most nouns) *and two mans.* (incorrect plural form – not appropriate for *man*). **Pairs**

Closed pairs – When learners in the class do pairwork with the person sitting next to them but not in front of the class.

Open pairs – In open pairs, one pair does a pairwork activity in front of the class. This technique is useful for showing how to do an activity and/or for focusing on accuracy.

► **Palate – palatal**

The palate is the roof of the mouth. Sounds can be produced on the hard palate or the soft palate (velum).

Paragraph noun + verb A paragraph is a section in a longer piece of writing such as an essay. It starts on a new line and usually contains a single new idea. When a writer is paragraphing, s/he is creating paragraphs. See **topic sentence**.

► Parallelism

The repetition of grammatical structures within a text, e.g. *'Enjoy the ride; Have a great time'* (imperative + object).

Paraphrase noun + verb

To say or write something that has been read or heard using different words. Paraphrase can also be used to describe what a learner does if s/he is not sure of the exact language they need to use, i.e. explain their meaning using different language.

Part of speech

A way of categorising words according to their grammatical function and meaning, e.g. noun, verb, adjective, pronoun, adverb, preposition, conjunction.

Participation noun, **participate** verb To take part in something, e.g. a lesson or classroom activity.

Participle (past and present)

–ed and *–ing* forms of the verb, they are often used to make tenses or adjectives, e.g. *I'm going home.* (present participle); *I haven't seen him today.* (past participle)

Particle

A small grammatical word, often an adverb or preposition which does not change its form when used in a sentence, e.g. *after* is a particle in the phrasal verb *look after*.

Passive role

When learners want to be taught and to acquire language without making their own decisions about their needs and learning, they are taking a passive role. See **active role**.

Passive voice

In a passive sentence, something is done to or happens to the subject of the sentence, e.g. They were taken to the airport by taxi. See **active voice**.

► See Causative passive.

Past perfect simple, continuous, **progressive:** see **ten** To mention something or someone. Also, similar in meaning to comment. Learners can refer to someone or to **reference materials** (e.g. a dictionary) to get advice or information.

Reference materials

The materials which teachers and learners can use to find or check information, e.g. grammar books, dictionaries or CD-Roms.

Reflect on teaching, **learning**

To think about a lesson after teaching it or to think about learning in order to decide what worked, what did not work and how to improve teaching/learning in the future.

Reflective (teachers)

Teachers who look back on the lessons they have taught and think about what worked and what did not work in order to improve their teaching.

Reflector: see **teacher role**.

Reflexive pronoun: see **pronoun**.

Reformulation noun, **reformulate** verb

When a teacher corrects what a learner has said by repeating the sentence correctly, but without drawing the learners' attention to their mistake. This is usually the way parents 'correct' their young children's language mistakes. Compare with **Recast**.

Refuse an invitation: see **decline an invitation**.

Register

The formality or informality of the language used in a particular situation. Formal register or language is that used in serious or important situations, e.g. in a job application. Informal register or language is that used in relaxed or friendly situations, e.g. with family or friends. Register may also refer to language which is specific to a particular group, e.g. technical register, scientific register.

Regular verb: see **verb**.

Reinforce: see **consolidate**.

Relative clause: see **clause**.

Relative pronoun: see **pronoun**.

Relevance noun, **relevant** adjective

The degree to which something is related to or useful in a situation.

► Repair strategy

An utterance which corrects or modifies what has just been said.

Repetition noun, **repeat** verb

To say something again, often for practice. This is often done in **drills**.

Report back verb

When a learner tells the whole class what was discussed in groupwork or pairwork.

Reported speech, **statement**, **question**

When someone's words are reported by another person, e.g. *She said she was sorry*. See **direct speech, question**

and **indirect question**.

Reporting verb: see **verb**.

Request, **make a (polite) request**

To ask someone politely to do something, e.g. *Please could you open the window?*

Resources: see **aids**, **reference materials**, **learning resources**. **Storybook**

A book with stories for children.

Story corner

A permanent space in the classroom where learners can tell each other stories or sit quietly and read stories.

Stress

Contrastive stress is used to express an unusual or emphatic meaning in a sentence. It involves stressing the important word according to the different meanings, e.g. *It was my AUNT who bought the car (not my uncle)* or *My aunt bought the CAKE (not the biscuits)!*

Primary, main stress

The main stress on a word, e.g. DIFFicult, indiVIDual. The primary stress on a word is marked in the dictionary as follows '*difficult*.

Secondary stress is stress on a syllable or word in a sentence that is less strong than the primary (main) stress, e.g. / »kÅntrW«váÄâWl / which has the primary or main stress on / váÄ / and the secondary stress on / kÅn / **Sentence stress** refers to the way some words in a sentence are **stressed**. In English these are usually the information-carrying words. In the sentence *It was a lovely evening*, *and the temperature was perfect*, the main stress, when spoken, is probably on the word *perfect*. Stress can therefore be used to show meaning, to emphasise a particular point or feeling.

Word stress is the pronunciation of a syllable with more force or emphasis than the surrounding syllables which are said to be **unstressed**, e.g. *umbrella / √m«brelW /*.

Strong form

In connected speech many words are not pronounced fully. For example, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, pronouns and conjunctions are usually not pronounced fully and are not stressed. When these words (weak forms) are pronounced fully and are stressed to emphasise a point they become strong forms, e.g. *I don't speak Italian but I can* /kæn/ *speak a little Spanish in an emergency*. See **weak form** A way of teaching in which the teacher gives learners meaningful tasks to do. After this the

teacher may ask learners to think about the language they used while doing the tasks, but the main focus for learners is on the task itself. Project work is often task-based.

Task-type

A set of questions that are all of one kind, e.g. multiple choice, gap-fill, matching.

Teacher-centred

When the teacher is seen as the source of all knowledge in the learning process and acts as the provider of knowledge rather than making use of the knowledge and experience of the students to guide the learning process. See **learner-centred**.

Teacher role

Teacher role refers to the different functions a teacher can have in a class and the different ways a teacher can manage the classroom and the learners, e.g. a teacher can choose to take a controlling role, giving directions or instructions at the front of the class or to take a less controlling role, monitoring learners as they work.'

Version

A particular form of something in which some details are different from an earlier or later form of it, e.g. a written text may have different versions.

Video clip: see **clip**.

Visual aid

A picture, a diagram or anything else the learners can look at which can help teachers illustrate form or meaning. See **aids, realia**.

Visual learner: see **learning style**.

Visualisation noun, **visualise** verb

To form a mental picture of something. Visualisation can help learners to remember new words or can be used for creative story-telling. A classroom activity where learners close their eyes and create mental images.

Vocabulary: see **lexis**.

Voiced sound

To produce a voiced sound, the voice is used, e.g. /b/ in bad, /d/ in dentist. Movement or vibration can be felt in the throat. Vowels in English are voiced. See **unvoiced sound**. **Volunteer** noun + verb

A learner who offers to help the teacher in class, for example by answering a question, handing out books or cleaning the board.

Vowel

A sound in which the air is not blocked by the tongue, lips, teeth etc. Movement or vibration is felt in the throat because the voice is used. The letters *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u* and sometimes *y* are used to represent these sounds.

See **consonant** and **diphthong**.

Wait time

The time that teachers wait in order to give learners time to respond to questions rather than expecting an immediate response.

Warmer noun, **warm up** verb

An activity that a teacher uses at the beginning of a lesson to give the class more energy. See **energy levels**.

Weak form

If a word is unstressed, the weak form of vowels may be used, e.g. *I can* (/ kWn /) *speak Italian, French, English and Spanish*. The sound / W / is called **schwa**. See **strong form**.

Wh- question

Wh- questions start with a wh- word. Wh- questions expect information in reply; not just yes or no, e.g. *Where do you live? I live in France.*

Wh- word

Wh- words introduce wh- questions and indirect questions. Wh- words include *who*, *whom, what*, *which, whose*, *how, why, where, when*.

Whole class: see **open class**.

Word bank

A list of key words required for learning subject concepts which can be used to pre-teach, to support input and to help learners remember key subject vocabulary.

Word boundary

Where one word ends and the next one begins, especially in connected speech.

Word class

One of the

APPENDICES

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ
ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ

"ТАСДИҚЛАЙМАН"

Ректор   Г.Рахимов

2019 йил "22" 05

"КЕЛИШИЛДИ"
Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлиги

2019 йил "20" 07
Рўйхатга олиниш № _БД-5111400-3.06_
2019 йил "20" 07

TИЛЛАР ЎҚИТИШ МЕТОДИКАСИ
ВА ТАЪЛИМ ТЕХНОЛОГИЯЛАРИ

ФАН ДАСТУРИ

Билим соҳаси:	100000	–	Гуманитар
Таълим соҳалари:	110000	–	Педагогика
	120000	–	Гуманитар
Таълим йўналишлари:	5111400	–	Хорижий тил ва адабиёти (тиллар бўйича)
	5120100	–	Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (роман-герман филологияси)

Тошкент – 2019

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Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлигининг 2019 йил "20" июлдаги 654 -сонли буйруғининг 2-иловаси билан фан дастури рўйхати тасдиқланган.

Фан дастури Олий ва ўрта махсус, касб-ҳунар таълими йўналишлари бўйича Ўқув-услубий бирлашмалар фаолиятини Мувофиқлаштирувчи Кенгашнинг 2019 йил "5" июлдаги 3-сонли баённомаси билан маъқулланган.

Фан дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университетида ишлаб чиқилди.

Тузувчилар:

К.Д.Тўхтаева — ЎзДЖТУ, "Инглиз тилини ўқитиш методикаси №2" кафедраси мудири, ф.ф.н., доцент.

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Тақризчилар:

М.Назарова — ТАТУ доценти, педагогика фанлари бўйича фалсафа доктори (PhD).

Б.Кулматов — ЎзДЖТУ, "Инглиз тили назарий аспектлари №3" кафедраси доценти, педагогика фанлари бўйича фалсафа доктори (PhD).

Фан дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университети Кенгашида кўриб чиқилган ва тавсия қилинган (2019 йил "22" майдаги "5"-сонли баённома).

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I. Ўқув фанининг долзарблиги ва олий касбий таълимдаги ўрни

Тиллар ўқитиш методикаси ва таълим технологиялари фани ихтисослик фани саналиб, у талабаларни ҳам назарий, ҳам амалий жиҳатдан олий ва ўрта таълим муассасалари ўқитувчисини касбий фаолиятга тайёрлайди. Фаннинг долзарблиги ўқитувчи фаолияти учун бирламчи ҳисобланган педагогик кўникма ва маҳоратнинг шаклланиш зарурияти билан белгиланади.

Ўқув фанининг асосий мазмуни "Таълим тўғрисида"ги Қонун, Ўзбекистон Республикасининг кадрлар тайёрлаш Миллий дастури, давлат таълим стандарти талаблари, 2017 йил 7 февралдаги "Ўзбекистон Республикасини янада ривожлантириш бўйича Ҳаракатлар стратегияси тўғрисида"ги ПФ-4947-сонли Фармонлари, шунингдек 2017 йил 20 апрелдаги "Олий таълим тизимини янада ривожлантириш чора-тадбирлари тўғрисида"ги ПҚ–2909-сонли қарорида белгиланган устувор вазифалар мазмунидан келиб чиққан ҳолда тузилган бўлиб, у замонавий талаблар бўлғуси педагог кадрларнинг касбий компетентлигини мунтазам ошириб боришни мақсад қилади.

II. Ўқув фанининг мақсади ва вазифалари

Фанни ўқитишдан мақсад – талабани чет тил ўқитувчиси касбий фаолиятига назарий ҳамда амалий жиҳатдан тайёрлашдан иборат. Замонавий методиканинг асосий муаммолари билан таништириш "Тиллар ўқитиш методикаси ва таълим технологиялари" фанининг асосий вазифаси саналади. Ушбу фан талабаларни ўзлари ишлаётган таълим муассасаларида олиб бориладиган дарсларда дуч келиши мумкин бўлган аниқ вазифаларни моҳирона ҳал этишга йўналтиради. Бунда асосий эътибор талабаларнинг амалий кўникмаларини ишлаб чиқиш, асосий касбий малакасининг шаклланиши; дарснинг онгли, тарбиявий ва таълимий мақсадларини шакллантириш; мавзу асосида ўқув материалини режалаштириш; дарснинг режаси ва конспектини тузиш; савол ва топшириқлар тузиш, сўровлар ўтказиш ҳамда билимни далилий баҳолаш; ўқувчиларнинг мустақил ишини ташкил этиш; ҳамкасблари ва ўз дарсларини таҳлил қилишга қаратилади.

Фан бўйича талабаларнинг билим, кўникма ва малакаларига қуйидаги **талаблар** қўйилади:

"Тиллар ўқитиш методикаси ва таълим технологиялари" фанини ўзлаштириш жараёнида бакалавр **талабаси:**

- педагогик моҳиятнинг манбаи, педагогика тарихининг асосий босқичлари, ушбу соҳадаги янги илмий ютуқлар борасида **тасаввурга эга бўлиши**;
- ёшга доир психологиянинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари ва унинг гуманитар фанларни ўқитиш методикаси билан алоқаси борасида **тасаввурга эга бўлиши**;
- гуманитар фанлар соҳасидаги анъанавий ва янги педагогик технологияларни **билиши ва улардан фойдалана олиши;**
- таълим жараёнида ижтимоий ва педагогик фанлар интеграциясининг асосий қонуниятларини билиши ва **амалда қўллай олиши**;
- чет тил дарсини анъанавий ва янги педагогик технологиялардан тўлақонли фойдаланган ҳолда олиб бориши;
- дарс бериш жараёнида таълимнинг замонавий техник воситалари билан ишлай олиши;
- янги илмий адабиётлар, дарсликларнинг электрон кўринишлари ва АРМ каталогларидан фойдалана олиш **кўникмасига эга бўлиши зарур.**

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III.   Асосий назарий қисм (маъруза машғулотлари)

1-мавзу. Узлуксиз таълим тизимида (умумтаълим мактаблари, академик лицей ва касб-ҳунар коллежлари) чет тил ўқитишнинг лингводидактик масалалари

Тилларни эгаллаш Умумевропа компетенциялари. Чет тил ўқув предмети сифатида. Чет тилларни ўргатиш мақсадлари, мазмуни ва тамойиллари.

2-мавзу. Чет тилларни ўқитиш методикасининг қисқача тарихи ва унинг ривожланиш босқичлари

Жаҳон миқёсида чет тилларни ўқитиш. Ўзбекистонда чет тилларни ўқитиш. Чет тил ўқитиш методикаси фанининг тарихи.

3-мавзу. Чет тилларни ўқитиш методикасининг қисқача тарихи ва унинг ривожланиш босқичлари

Чет тил ўқитишнинг педагогик, дидактик, психологик, лингвистик ва методик тамойиллари. Ёндашув тушунчаси. Коммуникатив, шахсга йўналтирилган, интеграллашган ва компетентлик ёндашувлари.

4-мавзу.Чет тилларни ўқитиш технологиялари

Технология тушунчаси. Модулли технология. Ўйин технологиялари. Танқидий фикрлашни ривожлантириш технологияси. Ахборот коммуникацион технологияларига асосланган таълим. Ҳамкорликдаги таълим. Чет тил таълимининг гуруҳли технологиялари.

5-мавзу.Чет тилларни ўқитиш методлари

Метод тушунчаси. Чет тил таълимининг анъанавий ва замонавий методлари. Лойиҳалаш методи. Кейс методи. Эвристик метод. ТРИЗ методи.

6-мавзу. Узлуксиз таълим тизимида чет тилларни ўқитиш воситалари ва машқлар тизими

Таълим воситалари таснифи. Машқ - чет тилларни ўқитишнинг ягона бирлиги. ЎУМ - умумтаълим муассасаларида чет тил таълими сифатини оширишнинг самарали воситаси сифатида. Замонавий дарслик: дарслик тузилиши ва тамойиллари.

7-мавзу. Узлуксиз таълим тизимида чет тил ўқитувчиси касбий компетенциясини шакллантириш

Касбга йўналтирилган таълимнинг мақсади ва мазмуни. Чет тил ўқитувчисининг касбий компетенцияси. Чет тил ўқитувчиси касбий

компетенциясининг компонентлари. Чет тил ўқитувчиси касбий компетенциясини шакллантириш методлари.

8-мавзу. Замонавий чет тил ўқув жараёнини ташкил этиш технологиялари, метод ва усуллари

Чет тил ўқув жараёнини режалаштириш. Чет тил дарси тавсифи ва технологияси: дарсда тил муҳитини яратиш, дарснинг тарбиявий имкониятлари, дарс мақсадининг хусусияти, чет тил дарсининг мазмуни. Дарснинг мақсад, вазифаларини белгилаш ва тилга оид нутқий материални танлаш ва тайёрлаш.

9-мавзу. Чет тил дарси тузилиши ва уни ташкиллаштириш

Чет тил дарсида ўқитувчи ва ўқувчиларнинг ўзаро ҳамкорлиги шакллари. Мавзуий режа. Бир соатлик дарсни режалаштириш, дарсни кузатиш. Портфолио турлари ва тузилиши.

10-мавзу. Чет тил дарсларини ташкил этиш шакллари

Дарснинг мақсади, вазифалари, шакллари, дарсга қўйиладиган талаблар, календарь –тематик режани тузиш технологияси.

(1-4 синфлар)
Ўқувчиларга чет тил талаффузини ўргатиш. Талаффузни ўргатишда инновацион таълим технологиялари.Талаффузни баҳолашга қўйилган CEFR талаблари.

12-мавзу. Талаффузни ўргатиш технологиялари
(5-9 синфлар)

Ўқувчиларга чет тил талаффузини ўргатиш. Талаффузни ўргатишда инновацион таълим технологиялари. Талаффузни баҳолашга қўйилган CEFR талаблари.

13-мавзу. Талаффузни ўргатиш технологиялари
(10-11 синфлар, АЛ ва КҲК ўқувчилари)

Ўқувчиларга чет тил талаффузини ўргатиш. Талаффузни ўргатишда инновацион таълим технологиялари. Талаффузни баҳолашга қўйилган CEFR талаблари.

14-мавзу. Лексикани ўргатиш технологиялари (1-4 синфлар)
Ўқувчиларга лексикани ўргатиш муаммолари. Лексик материални ўргатишда инновацион таълим технологиялари. Лексикани баҳолашга қўйилган CEFR талаблари.

15-мавзу. Лексикани ўргатиш технологиялари
(5-9 синфлар)

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Ўқувчиларга лексикани ўргатиш. Лексик материални ўргатишда инновацион таълим технологиялари. Лексикани баҳолашга қўйилган CEFR талаблари.

16-мавзу. Лексикани ўргатиш (10-11 синфлар. АЛ ва КҲК ўқувчилари)

Ўқувчиларга лексикани ўргатиш. Лексик материални ўргатишда инновацион таълим технологиялари. Лексикани баҳолашга қўйилган CEFR талаблари.

17-мавзу. Грамматикани ўргатиш технологиялари
(1-4 синфлар)

Ўқувчиларга чет тил грамматикасини ўргатиш. Грамматик материалини ўргатишда инновацион таълим технологиялари. Грамматикани баҳолашга қўйилган CEFR талаблари.

18-мавзу. Грамматикани ўргатиш технологиялари (5-9 синфлар)

Ўқувчиларга чет тил грамматикасини ўргатиш. Грамматик материалини ўргатишда инновацион таълим технологиялари. Грамматикани баҳолашга қўйилган CEFR талаблари.

19-мавзу. Грамматикани ўргатиш технологиялари
(10-11 синфлар, Ал ва КҲК ўқувчилари)

Ўқувчиларга чет тил грамматикасини ўргатиш. Грамматик материалини ўргатишда инновацион таълим технологиялари. Грамматикани баҳолашга қўйилган CEFR талаблари.

20-мавзу. Тинглаб тушунишни ўргатиш технологиялари (1-4 синфлар)

Чет тилни амалий жиҳатдан эгаллашда тинглаб тушунишнинг аҳамияти. Ўқувчиларга тинглаб тушуниш ўргатишнинг мақсади ва вазифалари. Тинглаб тушунишнинг асосий механизмлари ва уларни шакллантириш. Тинглаб тушунишни ўргатиш қийинчиликлари. Ўқувчиларга тинглаб тушунишни ўргатишга қўйилган CEFR талаблари ва баҳолаш.

21-мавзу. Тинглаб тушунишни ўргатиш технологиялари (5-9 синфлар)

Ўқувчиларга тинглаб тушунишни ўргатишнинг аҳамияти. Тинглаб тушунишни ўргатишнинг асосий механизмлари ва уларни ривожлантириш. Тинглаб тушунишни ўргатишда учрайдиган қийинчиликлар. Ўқувчиларга тушунишни ўргатишга қўйилган CEFR талаблари ва баҳолаш.

22-мавзу. Тинглаб тушунишни ўргатиш технологиялари (10-11 синфлар, АЛ ва КҲК ўқувчилари)

Ўқувчиларга тинглаб тушунишни ўргатишнинг аҳамияти. Тинглаб тушунишни ўргатишнинг асосий механизмлари ва уларни ривожлантириш. Тинглаб тушунишни ўргатишда учрайдиган қийинчиликлар. Юқори синф ўқувчиларига тинглаб тушунишни ўргатишнинг "Top down" ва "Bottom up"

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усуллари. АКТ ёрдамида тинглаб тушунишни ўргатиш. Ўқувчиларга тушунишни ўргатишга қўйилган CEFR талаблари ва баҳолаш.

23-мавзу. Гапиришни ўргатиш технологиялари (1-4 синфлар)

Гапириш – таълимнинг мақсади ва воситаси сифатида. Гапиришнинг турлари, асосий механизмлари, уларни шакллантириш ҳамда ривожлантириш усуллари. Ўқувчиларнинг гапиришни ўргатишнинг қийинчиликлари. Гапиришни шакллантиришда машқлар тизими. Гапришни ўргатишда ўйин технологияларини қўллаш. Ўқувчиларга гапиришни ўргатишга қўйилган CEFR талаблари ва баҳолаш.

24- мавзу. Гапиришни ўргатиш технологиялари (5-9 синфлар)

Гапириш – таълимнинг мақсади ва воситаси сифатида. Гапиришнинг турлари, асосий механизмлари, уларни шакллантириш ҳамда ривожлантириш усуллари. Ўқувчиларнинг гапиришни ўргатишнинг қийинчиликлари. Гапиришни шакллантиришда машқлар тизими. Гапиришни ўргатишда интерфаол технологиялардан фойдаланиш. Ўқувчиларга гапиришни ўргатишга қўйилган CEFR талаблари ва баҳолаш.

25-мавзу. Гапиришни ўргатиш технологиялари (10-11 синфлар, АЛ ва КҲК ўқувчилари)

Гапиришнинг турлари, асосий механизмлари, уларни шакллантириш ҳамда ривожлантириш усуллари. Ўқувчиларга гапиришни ўргатишнинг қийинчиликлари. Гапиришни шакллантиришда машқлар тизими. Танқидий фикрлашни ривожлантириш технологияси. Ўқувчиларга гапиришни ўргатишга қўйилган CEFR талаблари ва баҳолаш.

26- мавзу. Ўқишни ўргатиш технологиялари (1-4 синфлар)

Ўқиш - чет тил ўқитишнинг мақсад ва воситаси сифатида. Ўқишни ўргатиш босқичлари. Ўқиш турлари ва уларни шакллантиришга мўлжалланган машқлар тизими. Назорати турлари ва шакллари. Ўқитишни ўргатишда график органайзерларнинг аҳамияти. Ўқувчиларнинг ўқиш малакасига қўйилган CEFR талаблари ва баҳолаш.

27- мавзу. Ўқишни ўргатиш технологиялари (5-9 синфлар)

Ўқиш - чет тил ўқитишнинг мақсад ва воситаси сифатида. Ўқишни ўргатиш босқичлари. Ўқиш турлари ва уларни шакллантиришга мўлжалланган машқлар тизими. Назорати турлари ва шакллари. Ўқитишни ўргатишда график органайзерларнинг аҳамияти. Ўқувчиларнинг ўқиш малакасига қўйилган CEFR талаблари ва баҳолаш.

28- мавзу. Ўқишни ўргатиш технологиялари (10-11 синфлар, АЛ ва КҲК ўқувчилари)

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Ўқиш - чет тил ўқитишнинг мақсад ва воситаси сифатида. Ўқишни ўргатиш босқичлари. Ўқиш турлари ва уларни ривожлантиришга мўлжалланган машқлар тизими. Назорати турлари ва шакллари. Ўқитишни ўргатишда график органайзерларнинг аҳамияти. Ўқувчиларнинг ўқиш малакасига қўйилган CEFR талаблари ва баҳолаш.

29-мавзу. Ёзувни ўргатиш технологиялари (1-4 синфлар)

Ёзувни ўргатишнинг мақсад ва вазифалари. Ёзма нутқни ўргатиш технологияси. Таълимнинг турли босқичларида ёзув, орфография (тўғри ёзиш) кўникмаларига ва ёзма нутқ малакасига эга бўлишга қўйилган CEFR талаблари ва баҳолаш.

30-мавзу. Ёзувни ўргатиш технологиялари (5-9 синфлар)

Ёзувни ўргатишнинг мақсад ва вазифалари. Ёзма нутқни ўргатиш технологияси. Ўқувчиларга ёзувни ўргатиш. Ёзув, орфография (тўғри ёзиш), пунктуация (тиниш белгилар) кўникмаларини ривожлантириш. Ёзув малкасига қўйилган CEFR талаблари ва баҳолаш.

31-мавзу. Ёзишни ўргатиш технологиялари (10-11 синфлар, АЛ ва КҲК ўқувчилари)

Ёзувни ўргатишнинг мақсад ва вазифалари. Ёзма нутқни ўргатиш технологияси. (Press – формуласи. Brainstorming. Spider-man. Net work Tree, Fishbone). Таълимнинг турли босқичларида ёзув, орфография (тўғри ёзиш), пунктуация (тиниш белгилар) кўникмаларига ва ёзма нутқ малакасига эга бўлишга қўйилган CEFR талаблари ва баҳолаш.

32-мавзу. Чет тилни ўргатишда назорат ва тест турлари

Чет тил билим, кўникма ва малакаларни назорат қилишда CEFR талаблари. Чет тил бўйича билим, кўникма ва малакаларни назорат қилиш турлари, шакллари. Тест турлари.

33-мавзу. Чет тил бўйича дарсдан ташқари ишлар

Чет тил бўйича дарсдан ташқари ишнинг аҳамияти. Чет тил бўйича дарсдан ташқари ишларнинг турлари ва шакллари. Чет тил дарси бўйича дарсдан ташқари ишларни ташкиллаштириш ва режалаштириш тамойиллари. Таълимнинг турли босқичларида чет тил бўйича дарсдан ташқари ишларни тайёрлаш ва ўтказиш технологиялари. Ўқув жараёнида мустақил таълимни ташкил этиш.

IV.   Семинар машғулотлари бўйича кўрсатма ва тавсиялар

Семинар машғулотлари учун қуйидаги мавзулар тавсия этилади:
1. Узлуксиз таълим тизимида (умумтаълим мактаблари, академик лицей ва касб-ҳунар коллежлари) чет тил ўқитишнинг лингводидактик масалалари.

2. Чет тилларни ўқитиш методикасининг қисқача тарихи ва унинг ривожланиш босқичлари.
3. Чет тилларни ўқитиш методикасининг қисқача тарихи ва унинг ривожланиш босқичлари.
4. Чет тилларни ўқитиш технологиялари
5. Чет тилларни ўқитиш методлари
6. Узлуксиз таълим тизимида чет тилларни ўқитиш воситалари ва машқлар тизими.
7. Узлуксиз таълим тизимида чет тил ўқитувчиси касбий компетенциясини шакллантириш.
8. Замонавий чет тил ўқув жараёнини ташкил этиш технологиялари, метод ва усуллари.
9. Чет тил дарси тузилиши ва уни ташкиллаштириш.
10. Чет тил дарсларини ташкил этиш шакллари.
11. Талаффузни ўргатиш технологиялари.(1-4 синфлар)
12. Талаффузни ўргатиш технологиялари. (5-9 синфлар).
13. Талаффузни   ўргатиш технологиялари. (10-11 синфлар, АЛ ва КҲК ўқувчилари).
14. Лексикани ўргатиш технологиялари. (1-4 синфлар).
15. Лексикани ўргатиш технологиялари. (5-9 синфлар).
16. Лексикани ўргатиш технологиялари. (10-11 синфлар. АЛ ва КҲК ўқувчилари).
17. Грамматикани ўргатиш технологиялари. (1-4 синфлар).
18. Грамматикани ўргатиш технологиялари. (5-9 синфлар).
19. Грамматикани ўргатиш технологиялари. (10-11 синфлар, Ал ва КҲК ўқувчилари).
20. Тинглаб тушунишни ўргатиш технологиялари (1-4 синфлар).
21. Тинглаб тушунишни ўргатиш технологиялари (5-9 синфлар).
22. Тинглаб тушунишни ўргатиш технологиялари (10-11 синфлар, АЛ ва КҲК ўқувчилари).
23. Гапиришни ўргатиш технологиялари (1-4 синфлар).
24. Гапиришни ўргатиш технологиялари (5-9 синфлар).
25. Гапиришни ўргатиш технологиялари (10-11 синфлар, АЛ ва КҲК ўқувчилари).
26. Ўқишни ўргатиш технологиялари (1-4 синфлар).
27. Ўқишни ўргатиш технологиялари (5-9 синфлар).
28. Ўқишни ўргатиш технологиялари (10-11 синфлар, АЛ ва КҲК ўқувчилари).
29. Ёзувни ўргатиш технологиялари (1-4 синфлар).
30. Ёзувни ўргатиш технологиялари (5-9 синфлар).
31. Ёзувни ўргатиш технологиялари (10-11 синфлар, АЛ ва КҲК ўқувчилари).
32. Замонавий педагогик технологиялардан фойдаланиб дарсни ташкиллашитириш мактаб ўқувчиларига
33. Замонавий педагогик технологиялардан фойдаланиб дарсни ташкиллашитириш академик лицей ўқувчиларига
34. Замонавий педагогик технологиялардан фойдаланиб дарсни ташкиллашитириш касб-ҳунар коллеж ўқувчиларига
35. Чет тилни ўргатишда назорат ва тест турлари.
36. Чет тил бўйича дарсдан ташқари ишлар.
37. Чет тил ўқитишнинг аудиториядан ва синфдан ташқари технологиялари.

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38. Чет тил жараёнида мустақил таълимни ташкил этиш.
39. Чет тил жараёни учун тарқатма материаллар яратиш.
40. Компьютер ва он-лайн технологияларни қўллаш.
41. Талабалар билимини назорат қилувчи тестлар ва уларнинг турлари.
42. Ўқитувчи портфолиоси ва унинг тузилиши.
43. Чет тил ўқитувчисининг касбий компетенцияси.

V. Фан бўйича курс иши

Курс иши фан мавзуларига тааллуқли масалалар юзасидан талабаларга якка тартибда тегишли топшириқ шаклида берилади. Курс ишининг ҳажми, расмийлаштириш шакли, баҳолаш мезонлари кафедра томонидан тузилган ишчи ўқув дастурида белгиланади. Курс ишини бажариш талабаларда фанга оид билим, кўникма ва малакаларни шакллантиришга хизмат қилади.

Курс иши учун таҳминий мавзулар:
1. Академик лицей ўқувчиларига диалогик нутқни ўргатишда таълим технологияларидан фойдаланиш (Б1даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
2. Касб-ҳунар коллежлари ўқувчиларига диалогик нутқни ўргатишда таълим технологияларидан фойдаланиш (Б1 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
3. Умумтаълим мактаб ўқувчиларига гапиришни ўргатишда учрайдиган қийинчиликлар (А2 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
4. А1 даражадаги ўқувчиларнинг луғат бойлигини оширишда жисмоний ҳаракатлардан фойдланиш (А1 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
5. А1 даражадаги ўқувчиларнинг луғат бойлигини оширишда жисмоний ҳаракатлардан фойдланиш (А 1даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
6. Ўқувчиларнинг дискурс компетенцияларини ривожлантиришда ролли ўйин технологиясидан фойдаланиш. (A I level learners – 9 синф ўқувчилари)
7. Ўқувчиларнинг коммуникатив қобилиятини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларидан фойдаланиш.
8. Ўқувчиларнинг ижтимоий–маданий компетенцияларини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти.
9. Ўқувчиларнинг коммуникатив компетенциясини шакллантиришда интерфаол технологиялардан фойдаланиш. (А2 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
10. Ўқувчиларнинг стратегик компетенцияларини ривожлантиришда интерфаол технологиялардан фойдаланиш. (А1 ўқувчилар мисолида)
11. Ўқувчиларнинг дискурс компетенциясини ривожлантиришда интерфаол таълим технологияларидан фойдаланиш. (Б1 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
12. Ўқувчиларнинг дискурс компетенциясини ривожлантиришда интерфаол таълим технологияларидан фойдаланиш. (Б1 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
13. Касб-ҳунар коллежлари ўқувчилари диалогик нутқини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти. ((Б1 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
14. Касб-ҳунар коллежлари ўқувчилари дискурс компетенцияларини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти.
15. Касб-ҳунар коллежлари ўқувчилари коммуникатив компетенцияларини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти.

16. Касб-ҳунар коллежлари ўқувчилари оғзаки нутқини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти.
17. Академик лицей ўқувчилари диалогик нутқини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти.
18. Касб-ҳунар коллежлари ўқувчиларининг ижтимоий маданий компетенциясини ривожлантиришда ўйин технологияларининг аҳамияти.
19. Академик лицей ўқувчиларининг коммуникатив компетенциясини ривожлантиришда Case Study технологиясининг ўрни.
20. Умумтаълим мактаби ўқувчиларининг диалогик нутқини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти. (А1 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
21. Умумтаълим мактаби ўқувчиларининг оғзаки нутқини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти. (А1 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
22. Умумтаълим мактаби ўқувчиларининг диалогик нутқини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти. (А2 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
23. Умумтаълим мактаби ўқувчиларининг диалогик нутқини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти. (А2 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
24. Умумтаълим мактаби ўқувчиларининг дискурс компетенциясини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти. (А1 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
25. Умумтаълим мактаби ўқувчиларининг дискурс компетенциясини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти. (А2 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
26. Умумтаълим мактаби ўқувчиларининг ижтимоий –маданий компетенциясини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти. (А1 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
27. Умумтаълим мактаби ўқувчиларининг коммуникатив компетенциясини ривожлантиришда таълим технологияларининг аҳамияти. (А1 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
28. Умумтаълим мактаби ўқувчиларининг диалогик нутқини ривожлантиришда Case Study технологияларининг аҳамияти. (А1 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
29. Умумтаълим мактаби ўқувчиларининг диалогик нутқини ривожлантиришда Case технологияларининг аҳамияти. (А1 даражадаги ўқувчилар мисолида)
30. Ўқитувчининг касбий компетенциясини ривожлантиришда оммавий очиқ онлайн курсларининг аҳамияти.

VI. Мустақил таълим ва мустақил ишлар

Талаба мустақил ишининг асосий мақсади – ўқитувчининг раҳбарлиги ва назорати остида муайян ўқув ишларини мустақил равишда бажариши учун унинг билим ва кўникмаларини шакллантириш ва ривожлантиришдан иборат. Талабанинг мустақил ишини ташкил этишда қуйидаги шакллардан фойдаланилади:
1. Айрим назарий мавзуларни ўқув адабиёти ёрдамида мустақил ўзлаштириш.
2. Берилган мавзулар бўйича реферат тайёрлаш.
3. Назарий билимларини амалиётда қўллаш.
4. Кундалик дарс режасини тузиш.
5. Илмий анжуманларга илмий мақола, маъруза тайёрлаш.
6. Берилган мавзулар бўйича презентациялар тайёрлаш.
7. Компьютер ва он-лайн технологияларни қўллаш.

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8. Ўқитувчи портфолиосини тайёрлаш.

9. Мустакил ҳолда дарс жараёнини кузатиш ва таҳлил қилиш.

Семинар машғулотлари ва талабалар мустақил ишини ташкил этиш бўйича кафедра профессор-ўқитувчилари томонидан услубий кўрсатма ва тавсиялар ишлаб чиқилади.

Тавсия этилаётган мустақил ишларнинг мавзулари:

1. Узлуксиз таълим тизимида чет тил ўқитишнинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари.
2. Таълимнинг турли босқичларида ўқув жараёнида замонавий таълим технологияларидан фойдаланиш (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-ҳунар коллежлари мисолида)
3. Таълимнинг турли босқичларида чет тили бўйича аудитория ва синфдан ташқари ҳамда мустақил ишларни ташкил этиш (ёндашув, метод ва усуллар)
4. Таълимнинг турли босқичлари учун ўқитишнинг интерфаол методлари (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-ҳунар коллежлари мисолида)
5. Турли босқичларда лойиҳа технологиялари асосида ўқитиш (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-ҳунар коллежлари мисолида)
6. Ўқитувчи касбий портфолиосини тайёрлаш ва ҳимоя қилиш
7. Чет тил ўқитувчиси касбий компетенциясининг турли босқичлардаги хусусиятлари.
8. Узлуксиз таълим тизими ўқув адабиётларининг аҳамияти (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-ҳунар коллежлари мисолида)
9. Назорат иши ва унинг вазифалари намуналари.
10. Мустақил таълимнинг турли босқичдаги хусусиятлари (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-ҳунар коллежлари мисолида)
11. Чет тил таълимининг турли босқичларида дарсни режалаштириш (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-ҳунар коллежлари мисолида)
12. Чет тил дарсини АКТ асосида режалаштириш (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-ҳунар коллежлари мисолида)
13. Чет тили бўйича ЎУМ таҳлили.
14. Чет тил бўйича коммуникатив компетенцияни шакллантириш ва ривожлантиришга қаратилган машқлар тизими (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-ҳунар коллежлари мисолида)
15. Турли таълим босқичларида тил ва нутқ материалини яратишнинг дидактик асослари (бошланғич, умумий ўрта таълим, академик лицей ва касб-ҳунар коллежлари мисолида).

VII.   Асосий ва қўшимча ўқув адабиётлар ҳамда ахборот манбалари[1]

Асосий адабиётлар

Инглиз тили

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[1] Адабиётлар рўйхатига ҳар бир тил хусусияти ва ОТМ ахборот-ресурс марказлари имкониятларини инобатга олган ҳолда қўшимчалар киритилиши мумкин. Киритилган қўшимчалар ишчи дастурларда ўз аксини топади

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

GULISTON DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

INGLIZ TILI VA ADABIYOTI KAFEDRASI

« TILLAR O'QITISH METODIKASI VA TA'LIM TEXNOLOGIYALARI»

fani bo'yicha

ISHCHI O'QUV DASTURI

100000 – Gumanitar soha
110000 – Pedagogika
5111400 – Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (Ingliz tili)

Umumiy o'quv soati	- 248
Shu jumladan:	
Ma'ruza mashg'ulotlari	- 58
Amaliyot mashg'ulotlari	- 78
Mustaqil ta'lim soati	- 112

GULISTON – 2020 y.

Fanning ishchi o'quv dasturi namunaviy o'quv dasturi va o'quv rejasiga muvofiq ishlab chiqildi.

Tuzuvchi: **Hamdamov E.** – GulDU "Ingliz tili va adabiyoti"

           kafedrasi katta o'qituvchisi   _____ (imzo)

Taqrizchi: **Tojiev X.** – GulDU f.f.n., "Ingliz tili va adabiyoti"

           kafedrasi dotsenti _____ (imzo)

      Fanning ishchi o'quv dasturi "Ingliz tili va adabiyoti" kafedrasining 2020 yil "___" _____ dagi ___ - sonli majlisida ko'rib chiqilib, fakultet Ilmiy-uslubiy Kengashida ko'rib chiqish uchun tavsiya qilindi.

        Kafedra mudiri: **B.Sultonov**

      Fanning ishchi o'quv dasturi Filologiya fakulteti Ilmiy-uslubiy Kengashining 2020 yil "___" _____ dagi "____" - sonli majlisida tasdiqlandi.

       Fakultet Ilmiy-uslubiy

         Kengashi raisi: **M.Mamatkulov**

I. O'quv fanining dolzarbligi va oliy kasbiy ta'limdagi o'rni

Tillar o'qitish metodikasi va ta'lim texnologiyalari fani ixtisoslik fani sanalib, u talabalarni ham nazariy, ham amaliy jihatdan oliy va o'rta ta'lim muassasalari o'qituvchisini kasbiy faoliyatga tayyorlaydi. Fanning dolzarbligi o'qituvchi faoliyati uchun birlamchi hisoblangan pedagogik ko'nikma va mahoratning shakllanish zaruriyati bilan belgilanadi.

O'quv fanining asosiy mazmuni "Ta'lim to'g'risida"gi Qonun, O'zbekiston Respublikasining kadrlar tayyorlash Milliy dasturi, davlat ta'lim standarti talablari, 2017 yil 7 fevraldagi "O'zbekiston Respublikasini yanada rivojlantirish bo'yicha Harakatlar strategiyasi to'g'risida"gi PF-4947-sonli Farmonlari, shuningdek 2017 yil 20 apreldagi "Oliy ta'lim tizimini yanada rivojlantirish chora-tadbirlari to'g'risida"gi PQ–2909-sonli qarorida belgilangan ustuvor vazifalar mazmunidan kelib chiqqan holda tuzilgan bo'lib, u zamonaviy talablar bo'lg'usi pedagog kadrlarning kasbiy kompetentligini muntazam oshirib borishni maqsad qiladi.

II. O'quv fanining maqsadi va vazifalari

Fanni o'qitishdan maqsad – talabani chet til o'qituvchisi kasbiy faoliyatiga nazariy hamda amaliy jihatdan tayyorlashdan iborat. Zamonaviy metodikaning asosiy muammolari bilan tanishtirish "Tillar o'qitish metodikasi va ta'lim texnologiyalari" fanining asosiy vazifasi sanaladi. Ushbu fan talabalarni o'zlari ishlayotgan ta'lim muassasalarida olib boriladigan darslarda duch kelishi mumkin bo'lgan aniq vazifalarni mohirona hal etishga yo'naltiradi. Bunda asosiy e'tibor talabalarning amaliy ko'nikmalarini ishlab chiqish, asosiy kasbiy malakasining shakllanishi; darsning ongli, tarbiyaviy va ta'limiy maqsadlarini shakllantirish; mavzu asosida o'quv materialini rejalashtirish; darsning rejasi va konspektini tuzish; savol va topshiriqlar tuzish, so'rovlar o'tkazish hamda bilimni daliliy baholash; o'quvchilarning mustaqil ishini tashkil etish; hamkasblari va o'z darslarini tahlil qilishga qaratiladi.

Fan bo'yicha talabalarning bilim, ko'nikma va malakalariga quyidagi **talablar** qo'yiladi:

"Tillar o'qitish metodikasi va ta'lim texnologiyalari" fanini o'zlashtirish jarayonida bakalavr talabasi:

– pedagogik mohiyatning manbai, pedagogika tarixining asosiy bosqichlari,ushbu sohadagi yangi ilmiy yutuqlar borasida tasavvurga ega bo'lishi;

– yoshga doir psixologiyaning o'ziga xos xususiyatlari va uning gumanitar fanlarni o'qitish metodikasi bilan aloqasi borasida tasavvurga ega bo'lishi;

– gumanitar fanlar sohasidagi an'anaviy va yangi pedagogik texnologiyalarni bilishi va ulardan foydalana olishi;

– ta'lim jarayonida ijtimoiy va pedagogik fanlar integratsiyasining asosiy qonuniyatlarini bilishi va amalda qo'llay olishi;

– chet til darsini an'anaviy va yangi pedagogik texnologiyalardan to'laqonli foydalangan holda olib borishi;

– dars berish jarayonida ta'limning zamonaviy texnik vositalari bilan ishlay olishi;

– yangi ilmiy adabiyotlar, darsliklarning elektron ko'rinishlari va ARM kataloglaridan foydalana olish ko'nikmasiga ega bo'lishi zarur.

III. Asosiy nazariy qism (ma'ruza mashg'ulotlari)

1-mavzu. Uzluksiz ta'lim tizimida (umumta'lim maktablari, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari) chet til o'qitishning lingvodidaktik masalalari

Tillarni egallash Umumevropa kompetentsiyalari. Chet til o'quv predmeti sifatida. Chet tillarni o'rgatish maqsadlari, mazmuni va tamoyillari.

2-mavzu. Chet tillarni o'qitish metodikasining qisqacha tarixi va uning rivojlanish bosqichlari

Jahon miqyosida chet tillarni o'qitish. O'zbekistonda chet tillarni o'qitish. Chet til o'qitish metodikasi fanining tarixi.

3-mavzu. Chet tillarni o'qitish metodikasining qisqacha tarixi va uning rivojlanish bosqichlari

Chet til o'qitishning pedagogik, didaktik, psixologik, lingvistik va metodik tamoyillari. Yondashuv tushunchasi. Kommunikativ, shaxsga yo'naltirilgan, integrallashgan va kompetentlik yondashuvlari.

4-mavzu.Chet tillarni oʻqitish texnologiyalari

Texnologiya tushunchasi. Modulli texnologiya. Oʻyin texnologiyalari. Tanqidiy fikrlashni rivojlantirish texnologiyasi. Axborot kommunikatsion texnologiyalariga asoslangan ta'lim. Hamkorlikdagi ta'lim. Chet til ta'limining guruhli texnologiyalari.

5-mavzu. Chet tillarni oʻqitish metodlari

Metod tushunchasi. Chet til ta'limining an'anaviy va zamonaviy metodlari. Loyihalash metodi. Keys metodi. Evristik metod. TRIZ metodi.

6-mavzu. Uzluksiz ta'lim tizimida chet tillarni oʻqitish vositalari va mashqlar tizimi

Ta'lim vositalari tasnifi. Mashq - chet tillarni oʻqitishning yagona birligi. Oʻ UM - umumta'lim muassasalarida chet til ta'limi sifatini oshirishning samarali vositasi sifatida. Zamonaviy darslik: darslik tuzilishi va tamoyillari.

7-mavzu. Uzluksiz ta'lim tizimida chet til oʻqituvchisi kasbiy kompetentsiyasini shakllantirish

Kasbga yoʻnaltirilgan ta'limning maqsadi va mazmuni. Chet til oʻqituvchisining kasbiy kompetentsiyasi. Chet til oʻqituvchisi kasbiy kompetentsiyasining komponentlari. Chet til oʻqituvchisi kasbiy kompetentsiyasini shakllantirish metodlari.

8-mavzu. Zamonaviy chet til oʻquv jarayonini tashkil etish texnologiyalari, metod va usullari

Chet til oʻquv jarayonini rejalashtirish. Chet til darsi tavsifi va texnologiyasi: darsda til muhitini yaratish, darsning tarbiyaviy imkoniyatlari, dars maqsadining xususiyati, chet til darsining mazmuni. Darsning maqsad, vazifalarini belgilash va tilga oid nutqiy materialni tanlash va tayyorlash.

9-mavzu. Chet til darsi tuzilishi va uni tashkillashtirish

Chet til darsida oʻqituvchi va oʻquvchilarning oʻzaro hamkorligi shakllari. Mavzuiy reja. Bir soatlik darsni rejalashtirish, darsni kuzatish. Portfolio turlari va tuzilishi.

10-mavzu. Chet til darslarini tashkil etish shakllari

Darsning maqsadi, vazifalari, shakllari, darsga qo'yiladigan talablar, kalendar – tematik rejani tuzish texnologiyasi.

11-mavzu. Talaffuzni o'rgatish texnologiyalari
(1-4 sinflar)

O'quvchilarga chet til talaffuzini o'rgatish. Talaffuzni o'rgatishda innovatsion ta'lim texnologiyalari. Talaffuzni baholashga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari.

12-mavzu. Talaffuzni o'rgatish texnologiyalari
(5-9 sinflar)

O'quvchilarga chet til talaffuzini o'rgatish. Talaffuzni o'rgatishda innovatsion ta'lim texnologiyalari. Talaffuzni baholashga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari.

13-mavzu. Talaffuzni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (10-11 sinflar, AL va KHK o'quvchilari)

O'quvchilarga chet til talaffuzini o'rgatish. Talaffuzni o'rgatishda innovatsion ta'lim texnologiyalari. Talaffuzni baholashga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari.

14-mavzu. Leksikani o'rgatish texnologiyalari (1-4 sinflar)

O'quvchilarga leksikani o'rgatish muammolari. Leksik materialni o'rgatishda innovatsion ta'lim texnologiyalari. Leksikani baholashga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari.

15-mavzu. Leksikani o'rgatish texnologiyalari (5-9 sinflar)

O'quvchilarga leksikani o'rgatish. Leksik materialni o'rgatishda innovatsion ta'lim texnologiyalari. Leksikani baholashga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari.

16-mavzu. Leksikani o'rgatish (10-11 sinflar. AL va KHK o'quvchilari)

O'quvchilarga leksikani o'rgatish. Leksik materialni o'rgatishda innovatsion ta'lim texnologiyalari. Leksikani baholashga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari.

17-mavzu. Grammatikani o'rgatish texnologiyalari
(1-4 sinflar)

O'quvchilarga chet til grammatikasini o'rgatish. Grammatik materialini o'rgatishda innovatsion ta'lim texnologiyalari. Grammatikani baholashga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari.

18-mavzu. Grammatikani o'rgatish texnologiyalari (5-9 sinflar)

O'quvchilarga chet til grammatikasini o'rgatish. Grammatik materialini o'rgatishda innovatsion ta'lim texnologiyalari. Grammatikani baholashga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari.

19-mavzu. Grammatikani o'rgatish texnologiyalari
(10-11 sinflar, Al va KHK o'quvchilari)

O'quvchilarga chet til grammatikasini o'rgatish. Grammatik materialini o'rgatishda
innovatsion ta'lim texnologiyalari. Grammatikani baholashga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari.

20-mavzu. Tinglab tushunishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (1-4 sinflar)

Chet tilni amaliy jihatdan egallashda tinglab tushunishning ahamiyati. O'quvchilarga tinglab tushunish o'rgatishning maqsadi va vazifalari. Tinglab tushunishning asosiy mexanizmlari va ularni shakllantirish. Tinglab tushunishni o'rgatish qiyinchiliklari. O'quvchilarga tinglab tushunishni o'rgatishga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari va baholash.

21-mavzu. Tinglab tushunishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (5-9 sinflar)

O'quvchilarga tinglab tushunishni o'rgatishning ahamiyati. Tinglab tushunishni o'rgatishning asosiy mexanizmlari va ularni rivojlantirish. Tinglab tushunishni o'rgatishda uchraydigan qiyinchiliklar. O'quvchilarga tushunishni o'rgatishga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari va baholash.

22-mavzu. Tinglab tushunishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (10-11 sinflar, AL va KHK o'quvchilari)

O'quvchilarga tinglab tushunishni o'rgatishning ahamiyati. Tinglab tushunishni o'rgatishning asosiy mexanizmlari va ularni rivojlantirish. Tinglab tushunishni o'rgatishda uchraydigan qiyinchiliklar. Yuqori sinf o'quvchilariga tinglab tushunishni o'rgatishning "Top down" va "Bottom up" usullari. AKT yordamida tinglab tushunishni o'rgatish. O'quvchilarga tushunishni o'rgatishga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari va baholash.

23-mavzu. Gapirishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (1-4 sinflar)

Gapirish – ta'limning maqsadi va vositasi sifatida. Gapirishning turlari, asosiy mexanizmlari, ularni shakllantirish hamda rivojlantirish usullari. O'quvchilarning gapirishni o'rgatishning qiyinchiliklari. Gapirishni shakllantirishda mashqlar tizimi. Gaprishni o'rgatishda o'yin texnologiyalarini qo'llash. O'quvchilarga gapirishni o'rgatishga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari va baholash.

24- mavzu. Gapirishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (5-9 sinflar)

Gapirish – ta'limning maqsadi va vositasi sifatida. Gapirishning turlari, asosiy mexanizmlari, ularni shakllantirish hamda rivojlantirish usullari. O'quvchilarning gapirishni o'rgatishning qiyinchiliklari. Gapirishni shakllantirishda mashqlar tizimi. Gapirishni o'rgatishda interfaol texnologiyalardan foydalanish. O'quvchilarga gapirishni o'rgatishga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari va baholash.

25-mavzu. Gapirishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (10-11 sinflar, AL va KHK o'quvchilari)

Gapirishning turlari, asosiy mexanizmlari, ularni shakllantirish hamda rivojlantirish usullari. O'quvchilarga gapirishni o'rgatishning qiyinchiliklari. Gapirishni shakllantirishda mashqlar tizimi. Tanqidiy fikrlashni rivojlantirish texnologiyasi. O'quvchilarga gapirishni o'rgatishga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari va baholash.

26- mavzu. O'qishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (1-4 sinflar)

O'qish - chet til o'qitishning maqsad va vositasi sifatida. O'qishni o'rgatish bosqichlari. O'qish turlari va ularni shakllantirishga mo'ljallangan mashqlar tizimi. Nazorati turlari va shakllari. O'qitishni o'rgatishda grafik organayzerlarning ahamiyati. O'quvchilarning o'qish malakasiga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari va baholash.

27- mavzu. O'qishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (5-9 sinflar)

O'qish - chet til o'qitishning maqsad va vositasi sifatida. O'qishni o'rgatish bosqichlari. O'qish turlari va ularni shakllantirishga mo'ljallangan mashqlar tizimi. Nazorati turlari va shakllari. O'qitishni o'rgatishda grafik organayzerlarning ahamiyati. O'quvchilarning o'qish malakasiga qo'yilgan CEFR talablari va baholash.

28- mavzu. Oʻqishni oʻrgatish texnologiyalari (10-11 sinflar, AL va KHK oʻquvchilari)

Oʻqish - chet til oʻqitishning maqsad va vositasi sifatida. Oʻqishni oʻrgatish bosqichlari. Oʻqish turlari va ularni rivojlantirishga moʻljallangan mashqlar tizimi. Nazorati turlari va shakllari. Oʻqitishni oʻrgatishda grafik organayzerlarning ahamiyati. Oʻquvchilarning oʻqish malakasiga qoʻyilgan CEFR talablari va baholash.

29-mavzu. Yozuvni oʻrgatish texnologiyalari (1-4 sinflar)

Yozuvni oʻrgatishning maqsad va vazifalari. Yozma nutqni oʻrgatish texnologiyasi. Taʼlimning turli bosqichlarida yozuv, orfografiya (toʻgʻri yozish) koʻnikmalariga va yozma nutq malakasiga ega boʻlishga qoʻyilgan CEFR talablari va baholash.

30-mavzu. Yozuvni oʻrgatish texnologiyalari (5-9 sinflar)

Yozuvni oʻrgatishning maqsad va vazifalari. Yozma nutqni oʻrgatish texnologiyasi. Oʻquvchilarga yozuvni oʻrgatish. Yozuv, orfografiya (toʻgʻri yozish), punktuatsiya (tinish belgilar) koʻnikmalarini rivojlantirish. Yozuv malkasiga qoʻyilgan CEFR talablari va baholash.

31-mavzu. Yozishni oʻrgatish texnologiyalari (10-11 sinflar, AL va KHK oʻquvchilari)

Yozuvni oʻrgatishning maqsad va vazifalari. Yozma nutqni oʻrgatish texnologiyasi. (Press – formulasi. Brainstorming. Spider-man. Net work Tree, Fishbone). Taʼlimning turli bosqichlarida yozuv, orfografiya (toʻgʻri yozish), punktuatsiya (tinish belgilar) koʻnikmalariga va yozma nutq malakasiga ega boʻlishga qoʻyilgan CEFR talablari va baholash.

32-mavzu. Chet tilni oʻrgatishda nazorat va test turlari

Chet til bilim, koʻnikma va malakalarni nazorat qilishda CEFR talablari. Chet til boʻyicha bilim, koʻnikma va malakalarni nazorat qilish turlari, shakllari. Test turlari.

33-mavzu. Chet til boʻyicha darsdan tashqari ishlar

Chet til boʻyicha darsdan tashqari ishning ahamiyati. Chet til boʻyicha darsdan tashqari ishlarning turlari va shakllari. Chet til darsi boʻyicha darsdan tashqari

ishlarni tashkillashtirish va rejalashtirish tamoyillari. Ta'limning turli bosqichlarida chet til bo'yicha darsdan tashqari ishlarni tayyorlash va o'tkazish texnologiyalari. O'quv jarayonida mustaqil ta'limni tashkil etish.

IV. Seminar mashg'ulotlari bo'yicha ko'rsatma va tavsiyalar

Seminar mashg'ulotlari uchun quyidagi mavzular tavsiya etiladi:

1. Uzluksiz ta'lim tizimida (umumta'lim maktablari, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari) chet til o'qitishning lingvodidaktik masalalari.
2. Chet tillarni o'qitish metodikasining qisqacha tarixi va uning rivojlanish bosqichlari.
3. Chet tillarni o'qitish metodikasining qisqacha tarixi va uning rivojlanish bosqichlari.
4. Chet tillarni o'qitish texnologiyalari
5. Chet tillarni o'qitish metodlari
6. Uzluksiz ta'lim tizimida chet tillarni o'qitish vositalari va mashqlar tizimi.
7. Uzluksiz ta'lim tizimida chet til o'qituvchisi kasbiy kompetentsiyasini shakllantirish.
8. Zamonaviy chet til o'quv jarayonini tashkil etish texnologiyalari, metod va usullari.
9. Chet til darsi tuzilishi va uni tashkillashtirish.
10. Chet til darslarini tashkil etish shakllari.
11. Talaffuzni o'rgatish texnologiyalari.(1-4 sinflar)
12. Talaffuzni o'rgatish texnologiyalari. (5-9 sinflar).
13. Talaffuzni o'rgatish texnologiyalari. (10-11 sinflar, AL va KHK o'quvchilari).
14. Leksikani o'rgatish texnologiyalari. (1-4 sinflar).
15. Leksikani o'rgatish texnologiyalari. (5-9 sinflar).
16. Leksikani o'rgatish texnologiyalari. (10-11 sinflar. AL va KHK o'quvchilari).
17. Grammatikani o'rgatish texnologiyalari. (1-4 sinflar).
18. Grammatikani o'rgatish texnologiyalari. (5-9 sinflar).
19. Grammatikani o'rgatish texnologiyalari. (10-11 sinflar, Al va KHK o'quvchilari).
20. Tinglab tushunishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (1-4 sinflar).
21. Tinglab tushunishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (5-9 sinflar).

22. Tinglab tushunishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (10-11 sinflar, AL va KHK o'quvchilari).

23. Gapirishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (1-4 sinflar).

24. Gapirishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (5-9 sinflar).

25. Gapirishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (10-11 sinflar, AL va KHK o'quvchilari).

26. O'qishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (1-4 sinflar).

27. O'qishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (5-9 sinflar).

28. O'qishni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (10-11 sinflar, AL va KHK o'quvchilari).

29. Yozuvni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (1-4 sinflar).

30. Yozuvni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (5-9 sinflar).

31. Yozuvni o'rgatish texnologiyalari (10-11 sinflar, AL va KHK o'quvchilari).

32. Zamonaviy pedagogik texnologiyalardan foydalanib darsni tashkillashitirish maktab o'quvchilariga

33. Zamonaviy pedagogik texnologiyalardan foydalanib darsni tashkillashitirish akademik litsey o'quvchilariga

34. Zamonaviy pedagogik texnologiyalardan foydalanib darsni tashkillashitirish kasb-hunar kollej o'quvchilariga

35. Chet tilni o'rgatishda nazorat va test turlari.

36. Chet til bo'yicha darsdan tashqari ishlar.

37. Chet til o'qitishning auditoriyadan va sinfdan tashqari texnologiyalari.

38. Chet til jarayonida mustaqil ta'limni tashkil etish.

39. Chet til jarayoni uchun tarqatma materiallar yaratish.

40. Kompyuter va on-layn texnologiyalarni qo'llash.

41. Talabalar bilimini nazorat qiluvchi testlar va ularning turlari.

42. O'qituvchi portfoliosi va uning tuzilishi.

43. Chet til o'qituvchisining kasbiy kompetentsiyasi.

V. Fan bo'yicha kurs ishi

Kurs ishi fan mavzulariga taalluqli masalalar yuzasidan talabalarga yakka tartibda tegishli topshiriq shaklida beriladi. Kurs ishining hajmi, rasmiylashtirish shakli, baholash mezonlari kafedra tomonidan tuzilgan ishchi o'quv dasturida belgilanadi.

Kurs ishini bajarish talabalarda fanga oid bilim, ko'nikma va malakalarni shakllantirishga xizmat qiladi.

Kurs ishi uchun tahminiy mavzular:

1. Akademik litsey o'quvchilariga dialogik nutqni o'rgatishda ta'lim texnologiyalaridan foydalanish (B1darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

2. Kasb-hunar kollejlari o'quvchilariga dialogik nutqni o'rgatishda ta'lim texnologiyalaridan foydalanish (B1 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida) 3. Umumta'lim maktab o'quvchilariga gapirishni o'rgatishda uchraydigan qiyinchiliklar (A2 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

4. A1 darajadagi o'quvchilarning lug'at boyligini oshirishda jismoniy harakatlardan foydlanish (A1 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

5. A1 darajadagi o'quvchilarning lug'at boyligini oshirishda jismoniy harakatlardan foydlanish (A 1darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

6. O'quvchilarning diskurs kompetentsiyalarini rivojlantirishda rolli o'yin texnologiyasidan foydalanish. (A I level learners – 9 sinf o'quvchilari)

7. O'quvchilarning kommunikativ qobiliyatini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalaridan foydalanish.

8. O'quvchilarning ijtimoiy–madaniy kompetentsiyalarini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati.

9. O'quvchilarning kommunikativ kompetentsiyasini shakllantirishda interfaol texnologiyalardan foydalanish. (A2 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

10. O'quvchilarning strategik kompetentsiyalarini rivojlantirishda interfaol texnologiyalardan foydalanish. (A1 o'quvchilar misolida)

11. O'quvchilarning diskurs kompetentsiyasini rivojlantirishda interfaol ta'lim texnologiyalaridan foydalanish. (B1 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

12. O'quvchilarning diskurs kompetentsiyasini rivojlantirishda interfaol ta'lim texnologiyalaridan foydalanish. (B1 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

13. Kasb-hunar kollejlari o'quvchilari dialogik nutqini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati. ((B1 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

14. Kasb-hunar kollejlari o'quvchilari diskurs kompetentsyailarini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati.

15. Kasb-hunar kollejlari o'quvchilari kommunikativ kompetentsiyalarini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati.

16. Kasb-hunar kollejlari o'quvchilari og'zaki nutqini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati.

17. Akademik litsey o'quvchilari dialogik nutqini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati.

18. Kasb-hunar kollejlari o'quvchilarining ijtimoiy madaniy kompetentsiyasini rivojlantirishda o'yin texnologiyalarining ahamiyati.

19. Akademik litsey o'quvchilarining kommunikativ kompetentsiyasini rivojlantirishda Case Study texnologiyasining o'rni.

20. Umumta'lim maktabi o'quvchilarining dialogik nutqini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati. (A1 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

21. Umumta'lim maktabi o'quvchilarining og'zaki nutqini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati. (A1 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

22. Umumta'lim maktabi o'quvchilarining dialogik nutqini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati. (A2 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

23. Umumta'lim maktabi o'quvchilarining dialogik nutqini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati. (A2 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

24. Umumta'lim maktabi o'quvchilarining diskurs kompetentsiyasini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati. (A1 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

25. Umumta'lim maktabi o'quvchilarining diskurs kompetentsiyasini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati. (A2 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

26. Umumta'lim maktabi o'quvchilarining ijtimoiy –madaniy kompetentsiyasini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati. (A1 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

27. Umumta'lim maktabi o'quvchilarining kommunikativ kompetentsiyasini rivojlantirishda ta'lim texnologiyalarining ahamiyati. (A1 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

28. Umumta'lim maktabi o'quvchilarining dialogik nutqini rivojlantirishda Case Study texnologiyalarining ahamiyati. (A1 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

29. Umumta'lim maktabi o'quvchilarining dialogik nutqini rivojlantirishda Case texnologiyalarining ahamiyati. (A1 darajadagi o'quvchilar misolida)

30. O'qituvchining kasbiy kompetentsiyasini rivojlantirishda ommaviy ochiq onlayn kurslarining ahamiyati.

VI. Mustaqil ta'lim va mustaqil ishlar

Talaba mustaqil ishining asosiy maqsadi – o'qituvchining rahbarligi va nazorati ostida muayyan o'quv ishlarini mustaqil ravishda bajarishi uchun uning bilim va ko'nikmalarini shakllantirish va rivojlantirishdan iborat.

Talabaning mustaqil ishini tashkil etishda quyidagi shakllardan foydalaniladi:

1. Ayrim nazariy mavzularni o'quv adabiyoti yordamida mustaqil o'zlashtirish.
2. Berilgan mavzular bo'yicha referat tayyorlash.
3. Nazariy bilimlarini amaliyotda qo'llash.
4. Kundalik dars rejasini tuzish.
5. Ilmiy anjumanlarga ilmiy maqola, ma'ruza tayyorlash.
6. Berilgan mavzular bo'yicha prezentatsiyalar tayyorlash.
7. Kompyuter va on-layn texnologiyalarni qo'llash.
8. O'qituvchi portfoliosini tayyorlash.
9. Mustaqil holda dars jarayonini kuzatish va tahlil qilish.

Seminar mashg'ulotlari va talabalar mustaqil ishini tashkil etish bo'yicha kafedra professor-o'qituvchilari tomonidan uslubiy ko'rsatma va tavsiyalar ishlab chiqiladi.

Tavsiya etilayotgan mustaqil ishlarning mavzulari:
1. Uzluksiz ta'lim tizimida chet til o'qitishning o'ziga xos xususiyatlari.

2. Ta'limning turli bosqichlarida o'quv jarayonida zamonaviy ta'lim texnologiyalaridan foydalanish (boshlang'ich, umumiy o'rta ta'lim, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari misolida)

3. Ta'limning turli bosqichlarida chet tili bo'yicha auditoriya va sinfdan tashqari hamda mustaqil ishlarni tashkil etish (yondashuv, metod va usullar)

4. Ta'limning turli bosqichlari uchun o'qitishning interfaol metodlari (boshlang'ich, umumiy o'rta ta'lim, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari misolida)

5. Turli bosqichlarda loyiha texnologiyalari asosida o'qitish (boshlang'ich, umumiy o'rta ta'lim, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari misolida)

6. O'qituvchi kasbiy portfoliosini tayyorlash va himoya qilish

7. Chet til o'qituvchisi kasbiy kompetentsiyasining turli bosqichlardagi xususiyatlari.

8. Uzluksiz ta'lim tizimi o'quv adabiyotlarining ahamiyati (boshlang'ich, umumiy o'rta ta'lim, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari misolida)

9. Nazorat ishi va uning vazifalari namunalari.

10. Mustaqil ta'limning turli bosqichdagi xususiyatlari (boshlang'ich, umumiy o'rta ta'lim, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari misolida)

11. Chet til ta'limining turli bosqichlarida darsni rejalashtirish (boshlang'ich, umumiy o'rta ta'lim, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari misolida)

12. Chet til darsini AKT asosida rejalashtirish (boshlang'ich, umumiy o'rta ta'lim, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari misolida)

13. Chet tili bo'yicha O'UM tahlili.

14. Chet til bo'yicha kommunikativ kompetentsiyani shakllantirish va rivojlantirishga qaratilgan mashqlar tizimi (boshlang'ich, umumiy o'rta ta'lim, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari misolida)

15. Turli ta'lim bosqichlarida til va nutq materialini yaratishning didaktik asoslari (boshlang'ich, umumiy o'rta ta'lim, akademik litsey va kasb-hunar kollejlari misolida).

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COLLECTION OF MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST QUESTIONS ON FLTM

1. The teaching of English language in Uzbekistan was first introduced in …
A) 1934
B) 1932
C) 1991
D) 1933

2. The presidential decree number 1875 was promulgated in …
A) December 10, 2002
B) December 12, 2010
C) December 10, 2012
D) December 11, 2011

3. Which level of proficiency do learners have to achieve by the end of grade 5 according to the new National Standard on Learning Foreign Languages which is based on the CEFR?
A) A1
B) A2
C) A2+
D) B1

4. According to Hasanova when were foreign language teachers, especially English teachers exposed to modern approaches to ELT as communicative language teaching?
A) during the Soviet period
B) in the early 1990's
C) in the late 1990's
D) in the early 2000's

5. When was the National Educational Standard for Continuing Education System on Foreign Languages Learning adopted?
a) in May, 2001
b) in May, 2012
c) in May, 2002
d) in May, 2013

6. Which level of proficiency according to the CEFR do the baccalaureate level graduates of non-specialized faculties have to achieve?
A) B2
C) B1+
D) C1
C) B1

7. Check the correct date of the CEFR's official publishing.
A) 2012
B) 1970
C) 2001
D) 2011

8. Check the option which contains the correct answer.
A) The main purpose of the CEFR is the alignment of language learning, teaching, assessment and testing and ultimately guarantee correlation of learning outcomes across languages, contexts and countries.
B) The main purpose of the CEFR is the making the learning, teaching, assessment and testing reliable in terms of alignment to international standards and local requirements of foreign languages teaching and learning.
C) The main purpose of the CEFR is the making of assessment in European countries transparent, reliable and internationally recognizable.
D) The main purpose of the CEFR is to introduce new language teaching and learning policies across European countries and guarantee correlation of learning outcomes across languages, contexts and countries.

9. What do Goullier and North suggest regarding the CEFR?

A) They suggest that the CEFR is an outline document of prescriptions in terms of what to teach, how to teach and when to teach.
B) They suggest that the CEFR is a descriptive document, rather than a prescriptive document.
C) They suggest that the CEFR is a prescriptive document and outlines the language competencies needed for language learners in the effective communication.
D) They suggest that the CEFR is an outline of descriptions and prescriptive suggestions on the assessment procedures employed by learners or teachers.

10. How many groups of young learners are suggested by Scott and Ytreberg?
A) Two: First group – children between the ages of 5 and 7; Second group – children between the ages of 8-10.
B) Two: First group – children between the ages of 6 and 8; Second group – children between the ages of 6 and 8;
C) Two: First group – children between the ages of 5 and 8; Second group – children between the ages of 8-11.
D) Two: First group – children between the ages of 4 and 6; Second group – children between the ages of 7-10

11. How do we refer to young language learners in the context of Uzbekistan's education system?
A) primary school juniors
B) primary school pupils
C) young learners of primary school
D) primary school attendants

12. What skills according to Cameron Lynne are acquired in naturalistic setting better than in classroom settings?
A) speaking and writing
B) listening and speaking
C) reading and listening
D) pronunciation and writing

13. Check the answer which contains the correct list of young learners' strengths in terms of learning second language.

A) brain plasticity, stronger group identity, analytical thinking, and simplified input
B) brain plasticity, weaker group identity, L2 knowledge, and simplified input
C) brain plasticity, weaker group identity, less analytical thinking, and simplified input
D) brain plasticity, stronger group identity, less analytical thinking, and simplified input

14. According to Saville-Troike which factor does not allow young learners to learn vocabulary effectively?
A) stronger brain plasticity
B) weaker brain capacity
C) less analytical thinking
D) strong group identity

15. What does the transfer knowledge of L1 to L2 learning mean?
A) application of knowledge about the systems of a native language in learning a foreign language
B) learning a foreign language with the help of a native language and applying it in the foreign language classroom
C) application of skills existent in a native language to the learning process of a foreign language
D) application of knowledge about the foreign language in learning another foreign language

16. Why it is not suggested for teachers to employ grammatical and lexical rules in teaching young learners?
A) YL tend to possess weaker brain capacity
B) YL tend to posses less analytical skills
C) YL tend to have longer attention span
D) YL tend to possess strong group identity

17. According to Blatchford what does provide individualized teaching, make it easier to control the classroom, and allow more time for marking, assessments and planning, and less teacher stress?
A) young learners class
B) small class size
C) adult learners class
D) class size

18. Check the answer which contains information about the main sources of input and output in the naturalistic setting of language learning.
A) listening and reading
B) listening and writing
C) listening and speaking
D) speaking and writing

19. What is the "area of potential development where learner can achieve that development only with assistance"?
A) Zone of Proximal Development
B) Zone of Prominent Development
C) Zone of Prohibited Demand
D) Zone of Proclaimed Development

20. According to Scott and Ytreberg what are the factors that make teaching speaking and listening difficult both for teacher and learner?
A) learners' little access to speaking, learners' constant need for correction and feedback
B) learners' little access to speaking outside the classroom and their need for correction and feedback
C) learners' little access to natural language input within the classroom and their constant need for feedback and correction
D) learners' little access to speaking and natural language input of what to correct, how to correct and when to correct

21. Check the option which defines the term "affective filter"
A) Affective filter is a mechanism that allows or restricts the processing of input
B) Affective filter is a mechanism that allows the processing of output
C) Affective filter is a mechanism that restricts the production of input
D) Affective filter is a mechanism that affects the processing of limited input

22. Who is considered the inventor of Total Physical Response method?
A) Prof. J. Usher
B) Prof. T.S. Rodgers
C) Prof. J.C. Richards
D) Prof. J. Asher

23. What process is depicted as "the world's biggest policy development in education" by Johnstone?

A) widespread teaching of English in the education systems of third world countries
B) widespread introduction of English language teaching in the education systems
C) widespread introduction of English language teaching in primary education
D) widespread development of English language teaching systems around the world

24. Check the answer which contains Communicative Competence Dimensions of the CEFR
A) Vocabulary range, grammatical accuracy, sociolinguistic appropriateness, flexibility, coherence and cohesion, spoken fluency
B) Vocabulary range, grammatical fluency, sociocultural flexibility, coherence and cohesion, spoken accuracy
C) Vocabulary range, grammatical accuracy, sociolinguistic flexibility, spoken appropriateness, coherence and cohesion, spoken accuracy
D) Vocabulary range, sociolinguistic appropriateness, flexibility, spoken interaction, grammatical fluency

25. Check the answer which contains the language activities as suggested in the CEFR
A) listening, spoken interaction, spoken production, reading, vocabulary, gramammar
B) listening, reading, spoken interaction, spoken production, writing
C) listening, spoken fluency, spoken accuracy, reading, writing
D) listening, speaking, reading, writing, spoken fluency, spoken accuracy

26. How many hours of formal instruction does a learner need to reach C2 level according to the CEFR?
A) 900-1000
B) 1000-1200
C) 1000-1100
D) 900-1200

27. Check the option which contains the correct information about the four main elements of culture.
A) symbols, language, values, norms
B) symbols, language, norms, taboos
C) symbols, language, mores, norms
D) symbols, language, mores, taboos

28. Check the answer which contains the factors that may influence the hours of formal instruction in reaching the CEFR level.
A) age and motivation
B) quality of education
C) quality of coursebooks and materials
D) amount of time spent in preparing for formal education

29. Which of the communicative competences is described in the below given extract?
"Can handle very short social exchanges, using everyday polite forms of greeting and address. Can make and respond to invitations, suggestions, apologies, etc."
A) Flexibility
B) Sociolinguistic appropriateness
C) Vocabulary range
D) Spoken fluency

30. Find the correct language activity and level of the given "can do statement":
"I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose".
A) B2, Reading
B) C1, Listening
C) B1, Reading
D) B2 Listening

31. What is the main difference between the New Educational Standard on Foreign Languages and the Old Standard?
A) there was no consistency and continuity in the Old type of standard, moreover it emphasized on knowledge of foreign

language rather than the communication using the target language

B) there was no consistency and continuity in the Old type of standard and it stressed on the acquisition of language skills rather than language knowledge

C) there was no consistency and continuity in the Old type of standard and it emphasized on the use of language knowledge in everyday communication

D) there was no consistency and continuity in the Old type of standard whereas the language skills rather on the use of target language knowledge

32. How many hours of training do the practicing teachers of foreign languages undertake during the in-service teacher training?
A) 144
B) 288
C) 124
D) 244

33. According to Hasanova how many hours of foreign language classes in total had been taken by learners by the end of grade X?
A) 666
B) 660
C) 662
D) 668

34. Which variety of English was predominant variety in English classroom during the Soviet period?
A) American English
B) Queens English
C) Australian English
D) Global English

35. When did it become essential to update the existing curricula for all disciplines, including foreign languages, so that they correspond to the current economic, social, and political realities of Uzbekistan?
A) in the early 2000's
B) after 1992
C) in the early 1980's
D) after 2000's

36. Check the option which contains the name of series of coursebooks published in cooperation with British Council Uzbekistan.
A) English Matters, English B1
B) English Matters, Fly High
C) English B1, Fly High
D) Scale Up, English Matters

37. What changes has been identified by the foreign language curriculum designers in the early 1990's in terms of reforming the foreign languages teaching system in Uzbekistan?
A) a gradual shift from traditional grammar-translation methods to communicative language teaching approaches
B) a gradual shift from communicative language teaching approaches to task-based language teaching methods
C) a gradual shift from grammar translation methods to a more communicative language teaching approaches as audio-lingual, structural approach
D) a gradual shift from grammar translation methods to a more learner-centered classroom teaching and methods

38. Which textbook is described by Matskevich in the given extract?
"…aims to help pupils to develop the four language skills: reading, listening, speaking and writing. There is an emphasis on teaching Modern English for communication so special attention is paid to speaking and listening. Vocabulary and grammar are also developed systematically. The main difference between X and other textbooks we have used is that X encourages a learner-centered approach to teaching. For this reason X contains many activities, exercises, debates, projects and games, which encourage pupils to use the new language naturally through working in pairs and groups".
A) Fly High
B) Bonk
C) Bonk
D) Scale Up

39. What is the difference between the new generation of textbooks such as English Matters, Fly High, Scale Up and the old generation of textbooks such as Bonk, Arakin and etc?

A) old fashioned textbooks focus on developing grammatical competence and therefore do not go beyond pattern drills and grammar translation exercises

B) old fashioned textbooks contain a lot of grammar exercises and pattern drills that target at developing communication skills of learners

C) old fashioned textbooks rely on the use of communicative tasks and grammar translation exercises in developing language learners' skills and competencies

D) old fashioned textbooks were rarely updated and contained many texts for translation and development of communicative strategies

40. Check the correct option which contains the correct definition of aim of intercultural learning.

A) The aim of intercultural learning is to increase learners' awareness of the target culture and relate that awareness to communication

B) The aim of intercultural learning is to increase learners' intercultural competence in order to become better appreciator of other people's culture

C) The aim of intercultural learning is to increase international and cross-cultural tolerance and understanding

D) The aim of intercultural learning is to increase learners' international tolerance and cross-cultural knowledge

41. The process of becoming more aware of and better understanding one's own culture and other cultures around the world is called …

A) intercultural tolerance
B) intercultural learning
C) cross-cultural awareness
D) international tolerance and understanding

42. Check the correct answer which can be defined by "culturally defined standards for what is good or desirable".

A) norms
B) symbols
C) values
D) language

43. Culturally defined expectations of behavior is called …

A) Norms
B) Values
C) Symbols
D) Mores

44. Check the option which contains the most suitable definition of culture

A) A set of social practices
B) A system of social practices
C) A shared history of culture or set of experiences
D) A shared history of culture and norms

45. According to Kramsch why should intercultural learning be at the core of language teaching?

A) because language is a social practice
B) because culture is more important than language
C) because language is in the core of culture
D) because language is inseparable from culture

46. According to Kramsch intercultural awareness …

A) is not a skill, but a set of skills and attitudes better thought of as a competence

B) is not a skill but a collection of skills and practices better thought of as a communicative competence

C) is not a skill but a set of attitudes and awareness better thought of as a language competence

D) is not a skill but a set of attitudes and values better thought of as cultural awareness

47. "…learners engaging in X enhance not only their attitudes towards the speakers and the target culture, but also their communication competence with people

from other cultures and awareness of the influence of their own culture in their lives" What does X stand for in the above given extract?
A) authentic environment
B) ethnographic interviews
C) watching videos
D) dealing with cultural stereotypes

48. Which methods and approaches reintroduced the use of authentic materials in foreign language classrooms?
A) Audio-Lingual Method and Structural Approach
B) Communicative Approach and Task-Based Language Teaching
C) Audio-Lingual and Grammar Translation Method
D) Direct Method and Communicative Approach

49. Check the option which contains correct definition of authentic material
A) Authenticity relates to materials and textbooks developed by native speakers for native speakers
B) Authenticity related to speech made by a native speaker for non-native speaker in naturalistic setting
C) Authenticity relates to culture, and the ability to behave or think like a target language group in order to be recognized and validated by them
D) Authenticity relates to culture and the ability to behave like target language group in order to be validated by native speakers

50. What are the factors that influence successful use of authentic materials:
A) availability of the material
B) target language area
C) language systems
D) students' interests in studying the material

51. What kind of authentic materials are advised to be used at lower levels?
A) leaflets, timetables, menus, short headline type reports,
B) audio and video advertising, short news broadcasts, articles

C) leaflets, timetables, menus, short headline reports, articles
D) audio and video advertising, reports, leaflets, menus

52. .... learners can remember more about something new or difficult by talking about it rather than reading about it.
A) Auditory
B) Tactile
C) Visual
D) Oral Method

53. . ...learners prefer new or difficult information to be presented by using posters, books and/or video.
A) Tactile
B) Visual
C) Auditory
D) Oral Method

54. First, the teacher presents the present perfect. Next, the students try using it in structured exercises. Finally, the students try to have a conversation together using the present perfect.
A) TTT
B) SSS
C) PPP
D) Semantic Base

55. Reading sub-skill that involves reading paying attention to the exact words which are used. People usually read legal contracts in this way.
A) Skimming
B) Scanning
C) Intensive Reading
D) Extensive reading

56. Basic user includes…….
A) B1, B2
B) A1, A2
C) C1, C2
D) A1, B1

57. Can express him/herself clearly and without much sign of having to restrict what he/she wants to say. . What level is it?
A) A1

B) A2
C) B1
D) B2

58. Can handle very short social exchanges even though they don't understand enough to keep the conversation going themselves...... What level is it?
A) A2
B) A1
C) B2
D) C1

59. Can select an appropriate formulation from a broad range of language to express him/herself clearly, without having to restrict what he/she wants to say. What level is it?
A) C1
B) A1
C) B2
D) A2

60. CEFR is ......
A) descriptive document
B) international standard
C) theoretical document
D) compulsory document

61. CEFR is ......
A) Common European Framework of Reference
B) Common European Framework of Languages
B) Common European Field of Reference
C) Common European Framework

62. CEFR is not....
A) theoretical document
B) descriptive document
C) a document to reflex
D) a starting point to develop new tools

63. Has a very basic range of simple expressions about personal details and needs of a concrete type.
A) A2
B) A1
C) B2
D) C1

64. Has enough language to get by, with sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some hesitation and circumlocutions on topics such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events, but lexical limitations cause repetition and even difficulty with formulation at times. . What level is it?
A) B1
B) A1
C) B2
D) A2

65. I can describe where I live. What level is it?
A) B1
B) B2
C) A2
D) A1

66. I can write personal letters describing experiences, feelings and events in detail. What level is it?
A) A2
B) B2
C) B1
D) A1

67. I can write very simple personal letters expressing thanks and apology. What level is it?
A) B1
B) A2
C) B2
D) A1

68. Independent user includes....... ....
A) A1, A2
B) C1, C2
C) B1, B2
D) A1, B1

69. Kid's English 2 for which level is for?
A) B1
B) B2
C) A2
D) A1

70. levels for college-leaving
A) A2
B) B2
C) A1
D) B1

71. levels for non philology-leaving
A) B1
B) B2
C) A2
D) A1

72. levels for philology-leaving
A) B1
B) B2
C) A2

D) C1

73. Levels for school-leaving

A) A2, B1

B) C1

C) A1, A2

D) A1, B2

74. The levels in CEFR are described in the form of .... statements

A) do

B) can't do

C) no

D) can do

75. What are the specific features of modern approaches?

A) Teacher-centeredness

B) Explicitness

C) Learner-centeredness

D) rote learning