

**MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIALIZED  
EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN**

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**METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING SPECIAL  
SUBJECTS**

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МИНИСТЕРСТВО ВЫСШЕГО И СРЕДНЕГО СПЕЦИАЛЬНОГО  
ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РЕСПУБЛИКИ УЗБЕКИСТАН  
THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIALIZED  
EDUCATION  
УЗБЕКСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ  
МИРОВЫХ ЯЗЫКОВ  
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The course-book «Methodology of teaching special subjects” addresses to MA students with the English language specialty. The course-book’s material aims at development of the EL teachers’ professional competence in the context of the given topics.

"Махсус фанларнинг ўқитиш методикаси" ўқув қўлланмаси инглиз тили мутахассислик саналган магистратура талабалари учун мўлжалланган. Қўлланма материалларида келтирилган мавзулар инглиз тили ўқитувчиларнинг малакавий компетенциясини ривожлантиришга хизмат қилади.

Учебное пособие «Методика обучения спецдисциплинам” предназначено для студентов магистратуры, где английский язык является специальностью. Материал учебного пособия нацелен на развитие профессиональной компетенции будущих преподавателей английского языка в контексте предлагаемых тем.

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## CONTENTS

<b>PREFACE</b> . . . . .	6
<b>ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS</b> . . . . .	8
<b>THEME 1. INTRODUCTION INTO THE COURSE OF “METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING SPECIAL SUBJECTS”.</b>	
1. Education in the angle of up-to-datedness. . . . .	9
2. Modern trends of educational system development. . . . .	11
3. Principles of quality management. . . . .	12
4. The Uzbek model of education and measures of entering into international educational space. . . . .	16
5. Interdisciplinary links of the course “Methodology of teaching special subjects”. . . . .	18
6. Basic categories of “Methodology of teaching special subjects”. . . . .	20
Follow-up activities. . . . .	22
<b>THEME 2. MODERN REQUIREMENTS TO PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATION OF FL SPECIALISTS.</b>	
1. Document CEFR. . . . .	25
2. Competence-based approach. . . . .	27
3. Current requirements to FL specialist. . . . .	28
4. Career-Long Study. . . . .	32
Follow-up activities. . . . .	35
<b>THEME 3. PROFESSIONAL-PEDAGOGICAL COMPETENCY.</b>	
1. Pedagogical culture of teachers. . . . .	39
2. Psychological culture of teachers. . . . .	42
3. Culture of the language, speech and communication. . . . .	44
4. Instructional strategies at FLT process. . . . .	46
Follow-up activities. . . . .	47
<b>THEME 4. COMPARATIVE METHODOLOGY OF FLT.</b>	
1. Types of methodology of language teaching. . . . .	53
2. Methodology of FL teaching at different types of educational establishments. . . . .	54
3. Approaches and methods are used in different age groups. . . . .	60

4. Comparative analysis of approaches and methods of FLT at different stages. . . . .	61
Follow-up activities. . . . .	62
<b>THEME 5. GLOBAL HYPOTHESES OF THE L2 ACQUISITION AND INTERFERENCE.</b>	
1. Global hypotheses of language acquisition. . . . .	67
2. Interference and its types. . . . .	69
3. Interlanguage code. . . . .	72
4. Errors taxonomies in FLT. . . . .	73
Follow-up activities. . . . .	77
<b>THEME 6. FEATURES AND FORMS OF TEACHING SPECIAL SUBJECTS AT THE HIGHER LEVEL OF EDUCATION.</b>	
1. Teaching language as specialty and types of lessons. . . . .	85
2. Independent and laboratory work at the higher educational establishments. . . . .	87
3. Integrated courses. . . . .	90
4. Forms of teaching. . . . .	92
Follow-up activities. . . . .	95
<b>THEME 7. TEACHING THEORETICAL COURSES AT LINGUISTIC INSTITUTES.</b>	
1. Principles and methods of teaching theoretical courses. . . . .	99
2. Material of theoretical subjects. . . . .	102
3. Lecture and its types. . . . .	104
4. Projecting the lecture course. . . . .	107
5. Course “Methodology of teaching FL”. . . . .	109
Follow-up activities. . . . .	110
<b>THEME 8. STUDENTS’ RESEARCH ACTIVITY.</b>	
1. Ways and forms of organizing students’ research activity at the higher school. . . . .	116
2. Research methods in linguistics. . . . .	119
3. Research methods in methodology of FLT. . . . .	121
4. Experiment organization. . . . .	124
Follow-up activities. . . . .	127

**THEME 9. TEACHING THE PRACTICAL COURSE OF ENGLISH AT THE HIGHER SCHOOLS.**

1. Difference between practical course of the EL at linguistic and non-linguistic profiles of education. . . . . 134  
2. EAP teaching. . . . . 137  
3. Aim and content of teaching a practical course of the EL at the higher education level. . . . . 138  
4. Approaches to organization of practical lessons. . . . . 144  
5. Material selection and organization at non-linguistic higher schools. . . . . 147  
Follow-up activities. . . . . 152

**THEME 10. ASSESSMENT AT THE HIGHER SCHOOLS.**

1. Modern assessment requirements. . . . . 166  
2. Assessment in theoretical and practical courses. . . . . 169  
3. International standards. . . . . 180  
4. Testing and its types. . . . . 181  
5. Alternative assessment. . . . . 184  
Follow-up activities. . . . . 187

**THEME 11. EDUCATION-METHODOLOGICAL COMPLEX: DESIGN AND EVALUATION.**

1. Modern requirements to education-methodological provision. . 198  
2. Design of an education-methodological complex. . . . . 201  
3. Evaluation of teaching material. . . . . 205  
4. Constructing a module and a case. . . . . 210  
Follow-up activities. . . . . 214

**TESTS. . . . . 224**

**REFERENCES. . . . . 238**

**GLOSSARY. . . . . 244**

## МУНДАРИЖА

<b>КИРИШ</b> .....	6
<b>АКРОНИМ ВА АББРЕВИАТУРАЛАР</b> .....	8

### **1 МАВЗУ. "МАХСУС ФАНЛАРНИНГ ЎҚИТИШ МЕТОДИКАСИ" ФАНИГА КИРИШ.**

1. Таълим замонавийлик нуқтаи назаридан .....	9
2. Таълим тизими ривожланишининг замонавий йўналишлари.....	11
3. Сифатни бошқариш тамойиллари.....	12
4. Ўзбекистон таълим модели ва халқаро таълим соҳасига кириш тамойиллари.....	16
5. "Махсус фанларнинг ўқитиш методикаси" фанининг бошқа фанлар билан ўзаро боғлиқлиги .....	18
6. "Махсус фанларнинг ўқитиш методикаси" фанининг асосий тоифалари.....	20
Машқлар.....	22

### **2 МАВЗУ. ЧЕТ ТИЛИ ЎҚИТУВЧИЛАР ПРОФЕССИОНАЛ МАЛАКАСИГА ҚЎЙИЛГАН ЗАМОНАВИЙ ТАЛАБЛАР.**

1. СЕФР ҳужжати .....	25
2. Компетентликга асосланган ёндашув.....	27
3. Чет тили ўқитувчилар малакасига қўйилган талаблар.....	28
4. Узлуксиз касбий таълим.....	32
Машқлар.....	35

### **3 МАВЗУ. ПРОФЕССИОНАЛ-ПЕДАГОГИК КОМПЕТЕНЦИЯ.**

1. Ўқитувчиларнинг педагогик маданияти.....	39
2. Ўқитувчиларнинг психологик маданияти.....	42
3. Тил, нутқ ва мулоқот маданияти.....	44
4. Чет тилини ўқитиш жараёнида қўлланиладиган ўқув стратегиялар.....	46
Машқлар.....	47

### **4 МАВЗУ. ЧЕТ ТИЛИНИ ЎҚИТИШДА ҚИЁСИЙ МЕТОДОЛОГИЯНИ ЎРНИ.**

1. Тилларни ўқитиш методологияси турлари .....	53
--	----

2. Ҳар хил таълим муассасаларида чет тилини ўқитиш методикаси.....	54
3. Турли ёш гуруҳларига қўлланиладиган ёндашув ва усуллар .....	60
4. Турли босқичларда чет тилини ўқитишда қўлланиладиган ёндашув ва усуллари қиёсий таҳлили.....	61
Машқлар.....	62
<b>5 МАВЗУ. ИККИНЧИ ТИЛНИ МУКАММАЛ ЭГАЛЛАШ ВА ИНТЕРФЕРЕНЦИЯ БЎЙИЧА ГЛОБАЛ ФАРАЗЛАР.</b>	
1. Тилни мукаммал эгаллаш ҳақида умумий фаразлари .....	67
2. Интерференция ва унинг турлари.....	69
3. Тилнинг ички коди.....	72
4. Чет тилини ўқитишда таксономик хатолар.....	73
Машқлар.....	77
<b>6 МАВЗУ. ОЛИЙ ЎҚУВ ЮРТЛАРДА МАҲСУС ФАНЛАР ЎҚИТИШНИНГ ТУРЛАРИ ВА ШАКЛЛАРИ.</b>	
1. Тилни мутахассислик сифатида ўқитиш ва дарс турлари.....	85
2. Олий ўқув юртларда мустақил ва лаборатория ишлари .....	87
3. Интеграллашган фанлар.....	90
4. Ўқитиш шакллари.....	92
Машқлар.....	95
<b>7 МАВЗУ. ЛИНГВИСТИК ИНСТИТУТЛАРДА НАЗАРИЙ ФАНЛАРНИ ЎҚИТИШ.</b>	
1. Назарий фанлар ўқитишнинг услуб ва тамойинлари.....	99
2. Назарий машғулотлар материаллари.....	102
3. Маъруза ва унинг турлари .....	104
4. Маъруза машғулотларини лойихалаш.....	107
5. "Чет тили ўқитиш методикаси" фани.....	109
Машқлар.....	110
<b>8 МАВЗУ. ТАЛАБАЛАРНИ ИЛМИЙ ФАОЛИЯТИ.</b>	
1. Олий ўқув юртларда талабаларнинг илмий-тадқиқот фаолиятини ташкил қилиш йўллари ва шакллари.....	116
2. Лингвистик тадқиқот усуллари .....	119
3. Чет тили ўқитишда тадқиқот услуб ва усуллари.....	121
4. Экспериментни ташкил қилиш .....	124
Машқлар.....	127

## **9 МАВЗУ. ОЛИЙ ЎҚУВ ЮРТЛАРДА ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ АМАЛИЙ МАШҒУЛОТЛАРНИ ЎҚИТИШ.**

1. Мутахассислик ва номутахассислик олий ўқув юртларда чет тили ўқитиш ўртасидаги фарқ .....	134
2. Инглиз тили илмий тадқиқод учун (ЕАР) ўқитиш масаласи..	137
3. Олий ўқув юртларда инглиз тили амалий машғулотларни ўқитиш мақсад ва вазифалари.....	138
4. Амалий машғулотлар ташкил этишда турли ёндашувлар...	144
5. Номутахассислик олий ўқув юртларда материалларни танлаш ва саралаш масаласи.....	147
Машқлар.....	152

## **10 МАВЗУ. ОЛИЙ ЎҚУВ ЮРТЛАРДА БАҲОЛАШ МАСАЛАСИ.**

1. Баҳолашнинг замонавий талаблари.....	166
2. Назарий ва амалий машғулотларни баҳолаш .....	169
3. Халқаро стандартлар.....	180
4. Синов ва унинг турлари .....	181
5. Алтернатив баҳолаш .....	184
Машқлар.....	187

## **МАВЗУ 11. ЎҚУВ-УСЛУБИЙ МАЖМУА: ДИЗАЙН ВА БАҲОЛАШ.**

1. Ўқув-услубий мажмуаларга қўйилган замонавий талаблар..	198
2. Ўқув-услубий мажмуани лойиҳалаш .....	201
3. Ўқув материалларни баҳолаш .....	205
4. Модул ва кейслар тузиш .....	210
Машқлар.....	214
<b>ТЕСТЛАР</b> .....	224
<b>АДАБИЁТЛАР</b> .....	238
<b>ГЛОССАРИЙ</b> .....	244



## ОГЛАВЛЕНИЕ

<b>ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ</b> .....	6
<b>АКРОНИМЫ И АББРИВИАТУРА</b> .....	8
<b>ТЕМА 1. ВВЕДЕНИЕ В КУРС «МЕТОДИКА ОБУЧЕНИЯ СПЕЦИДИСЦИПЛИНАМ».</b>	
1. Образование в ракурсе современности.....	10
2. Современные направления развития системы образования.....	11
3. Принципы управления качеством.....	12
4. Узбекская модель образования и меры вхождения в международное образовательное пространство.....	16
5. Межпредметные связи курса «Методика обучения спецдисциплинам».....	18
6. Основные категории методики обучения спецдисциплинам.....	20
Задания.....	22
<b>ТЕМА 2. СОВРЕМЕННЫЕ ТРЕБОВАНИЯ К КВАЛИФИКАЦИИ СПЕЦИАЛИСТОВ ИНОСТРАННЫХ ЯЗЫКОВ.</b>	
1. Документ CEFR.....	26
2. Компетентностный подход.....	28
3. Современные требования к специалистам иностранных языков.....	29
4. Непрерывное профессиональное образование .....	33
Задания.....	35
<b>ТЕМА 3. ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНАЯ ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКАЯ КОМПЕТЕНЦИЯ.</b>	
1. Педагогическая культура учителей ИЯ.....	40
2. Психологическая культура учителей ИЯ.....	43
3. Культура языка, речи и общения.....	45
4. Методические стратегии в обучении ИЯ.....	47
Задания.....	48
<b>ТЕМА 4. СРАВНИТЕЛЬНАЯ МЕТОДИКА ОБУЧЕНИЯ ИЯ.</b>	

1. Типы методик обучения ИЯ.....	54
2. Методика обучения ИЯ в различных типах образовательных учреждений.....	55
3. Подходы и методы, используемые на различных этапах обучения.....	61
4. Сравнительный анализ подходов и методов для разных этапов обучения ИЯ.....	62
Задания.....	63
<b>ТЕМА 5. ГЛОБАЛЬНЫЕ ГИПОТЕЗЫ ОВЛАДЕНИЯ ВТОРЫМ ЯЗЫКОМ И ИНТЕРФЕРЕНЦИЯ.</b>	
1. Глобальные гипотезы в овладении языком.....	68
2. Интерференция и ее виды.....	70
3. Межъязыковой код.....	73
4. Таксономии ошибок в обучении ИЯ.....	74
Задания.....	78
<b>ТЕМА 6. ОСОБЕННОСТИ И ФОРМЫ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ СПЕЦПРЕДМЕТОВ НА УРОВНЕ ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ.</b>	
1. Обучение языку как специальности и виды занятий.....	86
2. Самостоятельная и лабораторная работа в высших школах..	88
3. Интегрированные курсы.....	91
4. Формы обучения.....	93
Задания.....	96
<b>ТЕМА 7. ПРЕПОДАВАНИЕ ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКИХ КУРСОВ В ЯЗЫКОВЫХ ВУЗАХ.</b>	
1. Принципы и методы преподавания теоретических курсов..	100
2. Учебный материал теоретических курсов.....	103
3. Лекция и ее типы.....	105
4. Проектирование лекционного курса.....	108
5. Курс «Методика обучения иностранным языкам».....	111
Задания.....	112
<b>ТЕМА 8. НАУЧНО-ИССЛЕДОВАТЕЛЬСКАЯ ДЕЯТЕЛЬНОСТЬ СТУДЕНТОВ.</b>	
1. Способы и формы организации научно-исследовательской деятельности в высшей школе.....	117

2. Методы исследования в лингвистике.....	120
3. Методы исследования в методике обучения ИЯ.....	123
4. Организация педагогического эксперимента.....	126
Задания.....	129
<b>ТЕМА 9. ПРЕПОДАВАНИЕ ПРАКТИЧЕСКОГО КУРСА АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА В ВЫСШЕЙ ШКОЛЕ.</b>	
1. Различия между практическим курсом английского языка в языковых и неязыковых вузах.....	136
2. Обучение английскому языку в академических целях.....	138
3. Цель и содержание преподавания практического курса английского языка на уровне высшего образования.....	139
4. Подходы к организации практических занятий.....	145
5. Отбор материала и ее организация в неязыковых вузах.....	148
Задания.....	153
<b>ТЕМА 10. ОРГАНИЗАЦИЯ КОНТРОЛЯ В ВЫСШЕЙ ШКОЛЕ.</b>	
1. Современные требования к контролю.....	168
2. Организация контроля в рамках теоретических и практических курсов.....	171
3. Международные стандарты уровня владения языком.....	182
4. Тестирование и типы тестов.....	183
5. Альтернативный контроль.....	186
Задания.....	189
<b>ТЕМА 11. УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС: РАЗРАБОТКА И ОЦЕНКА КАЧЕСТВА.</b>	
1. Современные требования к учебно-методическому оснащению.....	201
2. Разработка учебно-методического комплекса.....	203
3. Оценка учебного материала.....	208
4. Разработка модуля и кейса.....	212
Задания.....	216
<b>ТЕСТЫ</b> .....	226
<b>ИСПОЛЬЗОВАННАЯ ЛИТЕРАТУРА</b> .....	240
<b>ГЛОССАРИЙ</b> .....	246

## PREFACE

Across higher education there is growing demand for training qualified specialists in all spheres of education. However, the state legislators, state higher educational boards, and administrators have been more enthusiastic about training MA specialists who can teach theoretical and practical disciplines on their specialty at the higher schools, so the discipline “Methodology of teaching special subjects” implemented into the program of training specialists of all profiles of higher educational establishments.

The course of “Methodology of teaching special subjects” aims for MA students of linguistic universities who will work as EL teachers and researches at linguistic and non-linguistic profiles of the higher education because only teachers with MA academic degree have the right to work at the higher schools.

The course-book has been created taking into consideration reforms undertaken in the local system of education, the MA students and teachers’ needs as well as succession with BA Methodology of FLT course.

It is designed in the strict correspondence with the syllabus created by the author of this course-book, and includes 11 topics which are distributed for 90 academic hours including independent work. I am sure that the topics are significant for professional and research knowledge and skills development. The topics of the course reflect the core of this discipline and are saturated informatively, in particular, they are related to the following matters: modern trends in education and training of EL teachers, teaching theoretical and practical courses at linguistic and non-linguistic higher schools, research activity, design and evaluation of Educational-methodological complexes and matters of assessment and monitoring students’ achievements within theoretical and practical courses.

Structurally the each thematic section consists of

- objectives
- learning outcomes
- questions to be discussed
- spark activity

- text of the lecture with comprehension questions (as input material)
- follow-up activities
- key reading

The follow-up activities can be used at seminars and as independent-study material.

All mentioned above give evidence that

- the teaching material is variable, informative and meets the stages of education and students' level
- teaching material allows putting in the syllabus goals and objectives.

The author's long standing experience in delivering the lecture course on "Methodology of teaching special subjects" has been embodied in this course-book. My already graduated and undergraduate students at the Uzbekistan State World Languages University have been especially instrumental in helping me work out several ideas and see them in practice.

The course-book is addressed to the MA students, scholars and specialists engaged in the field of teaching academic subjects in modern linguistics, literature-study and methodology of language teaching at the BA English language faculties, as well as to all those who are interested in the problems of teaching language as specialty and for specialty.

The contributing author is grateful for reviewers and an editor who provided their suggestions on earlier versions of this course-book. I'd also like to acknowledge the contributions of authors whose work is referenced throughout this book.

## ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

The following are among the more traditional and less familiar acronyms and abbreviations used in this book:

EL – English Language  
FL – Foreign Language  
FLT – Foreign Language Teaching  
FLL – Foreign Language Learning  
ESP – English for Specific Purposes  
EOP – English for Occupational Purposes  
EAP – English for Academic Purpose  
L1 – First Language, or mother tongue  
L2 – Second or Foreign Language  
MTSS – Methodology of Teaching Special Subjects  
EMC – Education - Methodological Complex  
CB – Coursebook  
PTA – Primary Trait Analysis  
ISO – International Organization for Standardization  
CEFR – Common European Framework Reference  
ICT – Information-Communication Technologies  
MA – Master of Arts  
BA – Bachelor of Arts  
LEP – Language Education Policy  
CBL – Competency-Based Language Learning  
CBI – Content-Based Instruction  
CLL – Cooperative Language Learning  
TBLT – Task-Based Language Teaching  
TBL – Task-Based Learning  
TBA – Task-Based Approach  
CLT – Communicative Language Teaching;  
SLT – Situational Language Teaching.  
PPP – Presentation -> Practice -> Production  
ESA – Engage -> Study -> Activate  
TTT – Test -> Teach -> Test  
CPH – Critical Period Hypothesis  
CUP – Cambridge University Press  
TESOL – Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages  
TOEFL – Test of English as a Foreign Language  
TOEIC – Test English as a Foreign Language  
IELTS – International English Language Testing System

## **THEME 1. INTRODUCTION INTO THE COURSE OF “METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING SPECIAL SUBJECTS”**

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**Objectives of the lecture** are to familiarize with modern trends and challenges of education development; to explain the ISO principles of quality management; to analyze the Uzbek model of education; to generalize and enlarge the knowledge about basic categories of (MTSS) in accordance with current requirements.

**Outcomes of the lecture:** By the end of the lecture students will be able to:

- know the core of the modern education;
- identify modern postulates of education;
- identify and use criteria of education quality management;
- analyze the Uzbek model of education in comparison with modern postulates;
- recognize the MTSS goal, objectives and problems for study;
- understand the interdisciplinary links of this course and the MTSS goal and objectives;
- identify and evaluate the basic categories of this course.

### **Questions to be discussed:**

1. Education in the angle of up-to-datedness.
2. Modern trends of education system’s development.
3. Principles of quality management.
4. The Uzbek model of education and steps to be taken for integration into an international educational space.
5. Interdisciplinary links of the course “Methodology of teaching special subjects”.
6. Basic categories of “Methodology of teaching special subjects”.

### **Spark:**

Answer the questions:

What do we mean by education?

What do we understand by philologist?

Where can FL specialists work after graduating?

What are the aims of modern education?

**Input material:**

**1. Education in the angle of up-to-datedness**

Education is defined as a process of receiving or giving systematic instructions, especially at a school or university. Besides, education involves teaching students various subjects, or being taught.

At present, when tendencies of world integration and globalization have become apparent distinctly, when global problems solving by humanity depends on joint and coordinative efforts of all people, the matters of reconsideration of existing national paradigms of education have come up.

The world crisis in all spheres of human life is tagged after educational crisis and the novel mission of education has a face-saving formula. Education is powerful means of not only intellectual abilities but also spiritual, emotional-sensitive sides of individuals, programming their development and life way. Of course, education is not a panacea, not a key to solve all problems but means provided harmonious and genuine individual development (taken from J. Delora's report, the Chairperson of the UNESCO International Commission on education for the XXI century).

If the end of education is individual excellence, we are at once led to ask how does an individual's life develop, and the answer immediately brings back all the social references and claims that the doctrine of self-realization seems for a moment to banish. So, the reply must be that selves can develop only in accordance with their own nature and that their nature is social.

Thus, education aims to bring up a generation in the spirit of peace and cultural dialogue, cultural development of an individual who respects human rights and freedom, realizing global relationship between nations and contributing to mutual understanding, tolerance and friendship between nations, race and religious groups, to be ready for problem-solving in the local society and in the whole world.





What are the main reasons of the crisis in education?

What are the aims of modern education?

## **2. Modern trends of educational system development**

For reformation of education as all-individuals' development, the following trends in the UNESCO resolution were determined:

- 1) Humanization of education;
- 2) Humanitarization of education;
- 3) Culture-study socialization and ecologization of education;
- 4) Interdisciplinary integration into educational technologies;
- 5) Learner-centeredness.

The world trend of development of educational system or modern postulates of a new educational paradigm are:

1. From “good education for all life to a long-life learning”
2. From obedience to initiative.
3. From knowledge to competencies.

Education is between two poles: market demands ← education → demands to react to society needs to provide society management.

Education is the powerful means of all individuals' development in the intellectual, aesthetic, cultural and professional aspects. With the aim of education reformation in this context the renewal educational models have been suggested in the progressive foreign countries:

- Reconstructionism is a society-oriented educational model where education is dealt with as a power motive of society changes, in particular, in development of personnel's critical thinking, capable to apprehend the nature of the main social norms and reconstruct them. From the position of FLT, reconstructionism can be dealt with teaching students to communicate effectively aimed at a better understanding among social groups. For individuals' development the active learning, problem-solving, project-based learning are used.

- Progressivism is related to development of individuals and the value of diversity where a learner is considered as a centre of educational process in the conditions of strict planning, organization and assessment of teaching. The main role is paid to free choice and personal development. Within progressivism a learner is seen as a

whole person and not just as a disembodied intellect or as a skilled performer, in its turn education is considered as a way of enabling learners to learn how to learn by their efforts for improving meta-cognitive skills.

– The initiative or enterprise model, where the education is dealt with as an instrument of training of the qualified personnel. The criteria of evaluation of specialists' quality are: practical application, utility, professional literacy, communicative competence, ICT.

Here are given only some of reformation models taken place in progressive countries which, in our view, are more effective for training “Homo faber” – master, professional, expert, developer of systems. In our opinion, exactly these educational trends and ideas give a course to defining the ways and strategies for development of FL specialists' skills as *Homo faber*. In addition, one more novel trend for reformation of education in the foreign countries was Lifelong Learning that stimulated rethinking importance of a continued and successive education.

All mentioned ideas have been reflected directly and indirectly in the educational documents of the Republic of Uzbekistan and have been embodied into the practice of FLT in the light of all educational reforms.



What are the modern trends of educational system development?

What are ideological models of education?

What ideological model of education is functioning in the local context of education?

### **3. Principles of quality management**

Function of management and monitoring has a sequent character as cause and effect links. Objectives of management: 1) determination of management strategies; 2) decision-making; 3) carry out the accepted decisions.

Management of a system begins with determination of a goal and objectives; a structure of interrelated elements design; outline algorithm of actions and outcomes of these actions; direct and back links (input and output).

There are ISO quality management principles (See: [www. iso. org/iso/qmp\\_2012. pdf](http://www.iso.org/iso/qmp_2012.pdf)) which mean a set of fundamental beliefs, norms, rules and values that are accepted as true and can be used as a basis for quality management” (See *Figure 1*).

**Figure 1. ISO Quality Management Principles**  
(taken from [www. iso. org/iso/qmp\\_2012. pdf](http://www.iso.org/iso/qmp_2012.pdf))



**1. Customer focus.** Sustained success is achieved when an organization attracts and retains the confidence of customers and other interested parties. Every aspect of customer interaction provides an opportunity to create more value for the customer. Understanding current and future needs of customers and other interested parties contributes to sustained success of the organization.

**2. Leadership.** Creation of unity of purpose and direction and engagement of people enable an organization to align its strategies, policies, processes and resources to achieve its objectives.

**3. Involving of people.** To manage an organization effectively and efficiently, it is important to involve all people at all levels and to respect them as individuals.

Recognition, empowerment and enhancement of competence facilitate the engagement of people in achieving the organization's quality objectives.

**4. Process approach.** The quality management system consists of interrelated processes (strategic and tactical planning, process management which has beginning, development and ending stages). Understanding how results are

produced by this system enables an organization to optimize the system and its performance.

**5. System approach to management.** Education is a system which proposes management of the system.

**6. Continual improvement.** Improvement is essential for an organization to maintain current levels of performance, to react to changes in its internal and external conditions and to create new opportunities.

**7. Mutually beneficial relationship with suppliers.** Interested parties influence the performance of an organization. Sustained success is more likely to be achieved when the organization manages relationships with all of its interested parties to optimize their impact on its performance. Relationship management with its supplier and partner networks is of particular importance.

**8. Factual Approach to decision-making.** It can be a complex process, and it always involves some uncertainty. It often involves multiple types and sources of inputs, as well as their interpretation, which can be subjective. It is important to understand cause-and-effect relationships and potential unintended consequences. Facts, evidence and data analysis lead to greater objectivity and confidence in decision making

It is obvious that where positive dynamics in teaching are absent and results are systematically lower than described in the standards

(norms), the educational system needs modernization. When applied to the modern language training process, monitoring fulfils various objectives. They are:

1. Monitoring the educational activity of learners and teachers. The process of education is the process of interaction between a teacher and students, so a teacher's and learners' activity needs retracing.

2. Monitoring the objectiveness and reliability of assessment techniques of learners' achievements. The assessment should be relevant to the type of a task in which learners are engaged. Assessment techniques should be designed according to the language level designated in the curriculum. Besides, the conditions of study and techniques used to evaluate language skills should also be monitored.

3. Determining and analyzing the dynamic progress and regress in learners' achievements. It is important for learners to know where progress is being made and the criteria upon which their performance is being judged. The progress and shortcomings of the language performance are necessary to be followed.

4. Creating a competitive environment for teachers' and learners' creative and productive activity. Students and teachers can be encouraged to monitor each other's performances. Peer assessment is one of the techniques which motivates and improves the monitoring capacity. Another tool which creates competitiveness among teachers and students is testing.

5. Analyzing the persistent assessment of teaching and learning processes. The analysis of the results of assessments gives an opportunity to inform stakeholders about efficiency of teaching materials and assessment tools.

6. Predicting the perspectives of educational system development. We can predict the challenges and solve them in time to achieve progress via analysis of educational system and discussion of it with stakeholders.

The quality of modern language teacher training is assessed through a system of internal and external evaluations (See *Table 1*).

**Table 1. The types of evaluation**

<b>Internal evaluation</b>	<b>External evaluation</b>
Self-evaluation and Peer-evaluation (learners and teachers) Evaluation of the quality of the subject/module (learners and teachers). Evaluation of the educational program quality (learners, teachers, internal monitoring committee). Internal monitoring committee for teaching process evaluation.	Governor-evaluation Individuals and parents' evaluation Stakeholders' evaluation



What are the objectives of quality management?  
 What are the ISO major principles? How are they realized in our context of education?  
 What types of quality evaluation are used in Uzbekistan educational system?

#### **4. The Uzbek model of education and measures of entering into international educational space**

In Uzbekistan the multistage model of FLT has been worked out on the basis of continuity and succession of foreign language aptitudes (National Program for Personnel Training, 1997). Such continuity and succession is well-known as a multilevel model of FLT in different national contexts. Taking into consideration the international standards, and localization of FLT materials, the domestic multistage model of continuous and successive FLT has been created and it includes the following language levels (See: State Educational Standards of the Continuous Educational System of the Republic of Uzbekistan, 2013: 5) given in the *Table 2*.

**Table 2. The stages and levels of MLT**

<b>Educational stage</b>	<b>Stages</b>	<b>Levels according to CEFR</b>
Primary and secondary education	1-4 forms at school	A1
	5-9 forms at school	A2

<b>Educational stage</b>	<b>Stages</b>	<b>Levels according to CEFR</b>
	Language-oriented schools	A2+
Specialized secondary education	Academic lyceum 1-3 courses	B1
	Vocational colleges	
Higher education	Language-oriented academic lyceums	B1+
	Bachelor's degree at non-linguistic institutes and universities	B2
	Master's degree at non-linguistic institutes and universities	
	The second language at Bachelor's and Master's degree institutions and universities	
	Bachelor's degree at linguistic institutes and universities	C1
	Master's degree at linguistic institutes and universities	
Ph. D. degree at the institution of senior scientific personnel and researches.	C1+	

The advantages of this educational system are diverse, and relate to its relation to learners' development, in line with international standards, while not neglecting the needs and expectations of the national environments (Makhkamova, 2014: 12-14). Indeed, introducing the primary and post-graduate education contributes to work out the successive structure and content of FLT. The succession provides systematic and continuous content in MLT, and not doubling of the transitive components of FLT content from one stage to another. Multistage and gradual character of the process of cognition is reflected in the FL progress, this model is aimed at the life-long independent learning (self-study) of the language. The adaptation and application of international standards of the language level evaluation in view of communicative competence at all the stages of FLT provides the opportunity to enter into the world educational space. The CEFR levels and descriptors are adapted to

the national context of Uzbekistan and, the general aim and objectives are defined for each stage. The content and requirements to the communicative competences are described at each stage of FLT (See: State Educational Standards of the Continuous Educational System of the Republic of Uzbekistan, 2013:4-33). The sample of the content and requirements to the level of language proficiency of MA students you can see in Appendix.

The Uzbek model of education presupposes the localization of FL teaching and learning materials. In our conditions we use various FLT materials published by native authors and foreign ones. As the analysis shows, the developed materials not always reflect the national context of Uzbekistan which leads to the emerge of challenges and gaps in the teaching process. In this case we need to localize the FLT materials. By the localization of the FLT materials we understand the relevant contexts and the balance between local and foreign cultural concepts and images which can naturally serve for the better in the sense of the language acquisition. So, the new model of education requires the creation of new curricula, syllabi and course-books, so that to balance the local and foreign contexts to provide the opportunity for teachers to explain non-native cultural items using localized content and context.

Thus, the Uzbek model meets international standards and gives great perspectives for FL learners and teachers. This model has been developed for a long time of education. Reformation touched upon especially the higher education.



What is the specificity of the Uzbek model of education?

Why has the CEFR standard been taken as the basis of FLT in Uzbekistan?

What achievements do we have thanks to implementation of new State educational standards?

## **5. Interdisciplinary links of the course “Methodology of teaching special subjects”**



Methodology of teaching special subjects (MTSS) is intended to teach how to organize the lecture courses and practical lessons at linguistic and non-linguistic universities. But at the non-linguistic universities/institutions only a practical course of FL is conducted.

*The goal of this course* is to acquire the theoretical and practical matters of methodology of teaching special subjects for effective pedagogical activity at the higher educational establishments and teaching FL at schools, lyceums, and colleges. Within this subject some concepts are described and analyzed, and a set of practices are covered and the obtained knowledge is widely applicable for effective pedagogical activity.

It is very important for efficiency to choose the correct forms, methods, aids and ways of teaching in accordance with the purpose of teaching. A teacher should be able to choose and use the methods corresponding to the purpose of teaching.

Interdisciplinary links of the MTSS are presented in the *Table 3*.

**Table 3. Interdisciplinary links of MTSS**

<b>Basic disciplines for MTSS</b>	<b>Disciplines which are interfaced with different sciences:</b>
linguistics, psychology, pedagogy or didactics, philosophy, sociology, country-study, culture-study	psycholinguistics, social psychology, linguo-country study, linguoculturology, socio-linguistics.

Didactics is one of the basic subjects for MTSS and didactic principles are used in organizing teaching and learning process.

Below are the main didactic principles, used in methodology:

- importing knowledge and developing language sub-skills and skills are closely related to the character of the teaching material;
- the results of teaching depend on the professional quality of a teacher and also methods used by him/her;
- the results and efficiency of organizing teaching process are proportional to duration time of teaching;

- clearness and relevance of the aims and content of teaching to learners;
- the efficiency of teaching and learning is depended on the motivation, quality and appropriateness of the teaching material and means.



What is the goal and objectives of MTSS course?  
 What are disciplinary links of the MTSS?  
 What are the principles of didactics used in MTSS?

## **6. Basic categories of Methodology of teaching special subjects**

Basic categories of MTSS are: approach, method, goals of education, content of teaching, principles of teaching, and teaching aids.

In determining methods, the distinction between “a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles and a set of derived procedures for teaching a language, is central” (J. C. Richards and Th. S. Rodgers, 2002: 19). In an effort to elucidate this distinction, a scheme was proposed by an American applied linguist Edward Antony in 1963 (cited in J. C. Richards and Th. S. Rodgers, 2002). He identified three levels of conceptualization and organization, which he named *approach*, *method* and *technique*. According to his model:

“*approach* is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; *method* is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; *technique* is the level at which classroom procedures are described” (Antony, 1963:63-67, cited in J. C. Richards and Th. S. Rodgers, 2002).

Having referred to this model J. C. Richards and Th. S. Rodgers (2002) specified the following current approaches to foreign language teaching: Competency-Based Language Learning (CBL); Content-Based Instruction (CBI); Cooperative Language Learning (CLL); Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT); Whole Language (WL); Communicative Language Teaching (CLT); Situational Language Teaching (SLT).

These approaches and methods are widely used in the practice of foreign language teaching in need for developing language proficiency of learners. Among these approaches the *CLT* occupies the priority position which is found to be more practical and appropriate approach in language teaching and which integrates some of their principles with emphasis on developing communicative skills.

Among the English language teaching approaches the *CLT* or its variants in our conditions is considered to be a successful to develop language proficiency as the goal and result of education. The intercultural or linguocultural approach allows improving the quality of the communicative competence for conducting intercultural communication. At the higher educational level effective elements of the approaches are integrated due to requirements of the professional competence of FL specialists. In this context the role of subjective competence (subject-matters) increases.

#### ***The modern interpretation of goals of education:***



1. Educational and practical/communicative goals are directed at knowledge obtaining special disciplinary and interdisciplinary knowledge contributed to creation of basis for educational and real-life activity.

2. Development goals correlated with development intellectual abilities and disciplinary and interdisciplinary knowledge and skills (academic, communicative, cognitive).

3. Cultural goal – is culmination of education, put educational outcomes and set of competences related to readiness and ability to action, interaction in accordance with value-orientations and behavioral norms and conventions.

***New interpretation of the content of teaching as following:***

- mastering sets of disciplinary and interdisciplinary knowledge: facts, concepts, phenomena, laws, methodology which are necessary and enough for continuous individual’s development;
- obtaining certain algorithm of receiving, information-processing and self- management and monitoring;
- developing of the complex of academic, information, communicative skills related to information-processing and using obtained knowledge and skills in the educational and real-life activity;
- readiness to the independent activity and problem-solving and decision-making.

***The content of teaching includes the following components:***

- subject-matter (information);
- skills for working with the texts;
- skills for producing own texts.



How do you interpret the given categories of MTSS?

What distinctions are seen between them?

Have you ever heard about Edward Anthony and his seminal work in the domain of teaching technology?

**Follow-up activities:**

**Activity 1.**

A. Language education policy (LEP) is defined by Shohamy (2006:76) as ‘mechanism used to create de facto language practices in institutions, especially in centralized educational system’. The author states that LEPs are usually imposed by political authorities on those in charge of their implementation and, for that reason; they are determined by political and economic dimensions.

Think about Shohamy’s LEP definition and discuss with your peer the current LEP trend in Uzbekistan.

B. Analyze the State Educational Documents and think how the modern postulates of the new educational paradigm are undertaken in them.

C. Analyze the requirements to B2 and C1 levels of language proficiency presented in the State Educational Standard (2013) and correlate them with learner-centered education.

**Activity 2.** Discuss in the group the following approaches which are used as instructional syllabus.

1) two-pronged approaches, integrating 'accuracy' and 'fluency' work where there is a focus on grammatical form and on discourse features, combined with focus on experimental learning through communication;

2) build-up approach which works in practice where a learner is moving from a controlled practice, through guided work, to free communication, with an increasing emphasis on choice of what to say along the way;

3) reversible approach, where instruction, focusing on formal and rhetorical features of language, is linked to a set of communicative activities, focusing on acquisition and experimental learning.



**Activity 3.** Write summary of the factors for quality of education management.

**Key reading:**

1. Национальная программа по подготовке кадров. – Т.: Шарк, 1997. ГОС. // Халк таълим, 2013.

2. Курбанов Ш. Э., Сейтхалилов Э. Таълим сифатини бошқариш. – Т.: Турон-Икбол, 2006.

3. Jalolov J. J. Makhkamova G. T., Ashurov Sh. S. English Language Teaching Methodology (Theory and Practice). – T.: Fan va texnologiya, 2015.

4. Соловова Е. Н. Методика обучения иностранным языкам. Продвинутый курс. – М.: АСТ-Астрель, 2008.

5. Using CEFR: Principles of Good Practice. – Cambridge: CUP, 2011.

6. Quality management principles. www.iso.org/iso/qmp\_2012.pdf.

## **THEME 2. MODERN REQUIREMENTS TO PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATION OF THE FL SPECIALISTS**

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**Objectives of the lecture** are to familiarize with regulations and backgrounds of the CEFR and modern requirements to FL teachers; to deal with structure and content of professional competence of FL teachers; to discuss the career-long study of FL teachers.

**Learning outcomes of the lecture:** By the end of the lecture students will be able to

- understand modern requirements to FL teachers pointed in the state resolutions;
- identify components of professional competence of FL teachers;
- compare and evaluate different models of professional communicative competence;
- understand the core and components of career-long study.

### **Questions to be discussed:**

1. Document CEFR.
2. Competence-based approach.
3. Current requirements to FL specialist.
4. Career-Long Study.

## Spark:



1. Look at the picture and answer the questions given below.

What do you see in the picture?

What is the role of a teacher and students in learning a language?

What do we mean by competence and competency?

What competences must be acquired by a teacher?

Create a professional competence structure of the FL specialist.

## Input material:

### 1. Document CEFR

It is necessary to mention a few words about the CEFR, which has been created by the Council of Europe (1996, 2001). It is the result of a need for a common international framework for language learning facilitated co-operation among educational institutions in different countries. The life itself demanded to create a single and integrated educational space in Modern languages teaching/learning and international standards of language assessment in European countries. It is known that instead of foreign languages Modern languages are widely used in the international communication context.

The main function of this document was to provide a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum, guidelines, examination organizing, and textbooks across Europe. It also provided a method of assessing and teaching which was applied to all Modern languages in Europe.

Under the CEFR learning language proposes during a whole life as a dynamic progression through all levels. That's why the aim of the CEFR is to designate standards to be reached to subsequent stages of teaching and learning Modern languages. This document

has been accepted as a standard framework to be also implemented in many other countries, i. e. in every language teaching and learning context. The CEFR has been translated into at least 37 languages. The implication of this Framework in different countries is reflected in the development of National Curricula or State Educational Standards of FL.

The CEFR document enhances the transparency of courses, syllabuses and qualifications, thus promoting international co-operation in the field of Modern languages which requires mutual recognition of qualifications gained in different learning contexts and aids to promote students' mobility.

According to the CEFR, learners of every FLT context should be facilitated to gain the particular proficiency level in a particular stage of learning.

Learning Modern languages through a whole life proposes six common reference levels of education:

C2	Mastery	Operational	Proficient user
C1	Effective Proficiency		
B2	Vantage	Threshold	Independent user
B1	Threshold		
A1	Waystage	Breakthrough	Basic user
A2	Breakthrough		

Cultural context proposes taking into consideration the specifics of national conditions of teaching and learning Modern languages, and the national-cultural features of the adjoined languages (learned and native languages). Acquiring each stage successively learners have real opportunity to communicate with people of other language contexts.

In the CEFR document the reference to six levels is given and design as illustrative descriptors (scales) in the term of “*Can Do*” statements from level A1 to C2. These scales can be used as a tool for comparing levels of ability amongst learners of FL and also offer “a means to map the progress” of learners (Using the CEFR: Principles of Good Practice, 2011:8). The descriptors are built to do



two dimensions: 1) through a *vertical dimension* we see a progression through all levels; 2) through a *horizontal dimension* the different context of teaching and learning are presented. The CEFR describes language learners' ability in terms of "speaking, listening, reading and writing" at six reference levels. The reference levels of FL are examined through communicative tasks and activities.



What is CEFR?

How have we used the CEFR elements in creation State Educational Standard?

What information is given by the descriptors?

## **2. Competence-based approach**

The dynamic tendency "from qualification to the competence" is reflected in all documents of the Council of Europe. The term *professional qualification* doesn't cover the dynamic tendency of increasing cognitive and informative backgrounds of specialists. The term "competent" becomes adequate in the current conditions. The content of the FL specialists' qualification according to levels is described in the terms of "competences" and "results of FLT (Tuning program in the Bologna Declaration). Thus, the key term of this approach is "competence" and it is used for creation the professional portrait of FL specialists as modeling the results of FLT and their introducing as norms of qualities of the FL specialists. This direction allows defining the levels of professional development in the frame of their qualification qualities, abilities and skills.

According to the CEFR document, the competences are used for description of the goals, content and methods, they promote a transparency of the courses, curriculums and criteria of assessment.

The competence-based approach is oriented to the creation of the teaching/ learning process according to the results of education: transparency and comparativeness parameters of descriptors what a student will know and can be put on the curriculum in the result.

The process of acquiring this content brings action-oriented character. Language use, embracing language learning, comprises the actions performed by learners who, as individuals and as social agents, develop a range of competences, both general and particular

all components of the communicative competence. The core of this approach is interpreted as students draw on the competences at their disposal in various contexts under various conditions and under various constraints to engage in language activities involving language processes to produce and/or receive texts in relation to themes in specific domains, activating those strategies which seem most appropriate for carrying out the tasks to be accomplished (Using the CEFR: Principles of Good Practice, 2011:14). The monitoring of these actions by the participants leads to the reinforcement or modification of their competences.



What are the reasons for a competence-based approach appearance?

Can we use this approach during a teaching process?

How can we interpret *competence* and *qualification*?

### **3. Current requirements to FL specialists**

According to European standard, 5 basic competences provide adaptation, self-realization in the market conditions:

1. Social-political competence or readiness to problem-solving;
2. Information competence;
3. Communicative competence;
4. Social and socio-cultural competence (the model of communicative competence includes itself socio-cultural competence as one of the components)
5. Readiness to long-life learning.

The social-political competence concerns the readiness to problem-solving and be responsible for decision-making.

People face different problems in their life and psychological readiness to react to problems is topical, so teachers should train them to solve problems and be responsible for their actions. Teachers can develop reflective skills related to a certain situation, social roles, communicants' intentions and feelings to solve academic and

life activities. For example, students should solve basic academic tasks as

- compensate the omitted material;
- to get needed consultations;
- prepare successfully to the testing;
- choose the educational course or educational establishment;
- define the appropriate form of education;
- formulate the topic and define possible forms of presentation of project or research work;
- prepare a report in the oral or written form for a conference;
- compile the bibliography
- award a scientific grant or practical study;
- organize a seminar, a round-table discussion, a council

The core of the information competence can be interpreted as a set of readiness and needs to work with all types of modern media and academic resources in professional and everyday life spheres of individuals' activity:

- to search necessary information with the help of different sources including multimedia ones;
- to define the degree of its reliability/novelty/importance;
- to process information in accordance with a certain situation and the put tasks;
- to archive and reserve information;
- to use information for solving wide spectrum of tasks.

Nowadays the information competence/literacy is often replaced with the media literacy as ability to interact with the media information adequately in the global information space, especially, to search the necessary information, to analyze and evaluate it critically, to create media-texts, which are extended by different media means of mass information and communication in various forms.

Moreover in the late years the new information and communication technologies have been widely implemented in the teaching process at all stages of education, which represent new forms, approaches and methods in the organization of the teaching process. That's why the new kind of literacy as information-communication technologies (ICT competence) can be introduced.

The communicative competence of the FL specialists is related to professional literacy which includes the following components: 1) linguistic (lexical, grammatical, and phonetic); 2) communicative (speaking, listening, reading, writing); 3) linguocultural; 4) social-cultural; 5) subjective (informative-thematic, conceptual) and 6) methodological.

As we see professional communicative competence has in itself social and socio-cultural, and other ones.

Optimization of the process of foreign language teaching involves the development of certain areas of instructional activity, interactive teaching methods, cooperation between a teacher and students, modern equipment and facilities in classes, learner-centred teaching, information-communication technologies and assessment tools. All these criteria are taken into account during the process of designing curricula, syllabuses and course-books for primary, secondary and high schools. Optimization of foreign language teaching is aimed at the development of certain competencies, which in the case of language is reflected at the achieved level of language proficiency. Thus communicative competence (proficiency) is a result of modern language teaching, the components of which are enshrined in the CEFR's six reference levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2).

In the scientific literature on methodology various models of communicative competence (Celce-Murcia 2007:41–57) have been suggested. In current interpretation, communicative competence includes the ability to display linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic, socio-cultural and social competences (Van Ek 1986). Our local model contains linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences.

*Linguistic (language) competence* presupposes acquiring knowledge about the language system, rules of language items functioning in the speech and ability to comprehend and produce speech.

*Sociolinguistic competence* is also called as speech competence in the local methodology as well in the Russian school by that we understand knowledge about ways or strategies of forming and formulating ideas with the help of language providing opportunities

to organize, comprehend and undertake speech action for implementation of communicative intention, as well as ability to understand and express ideas via these ways.

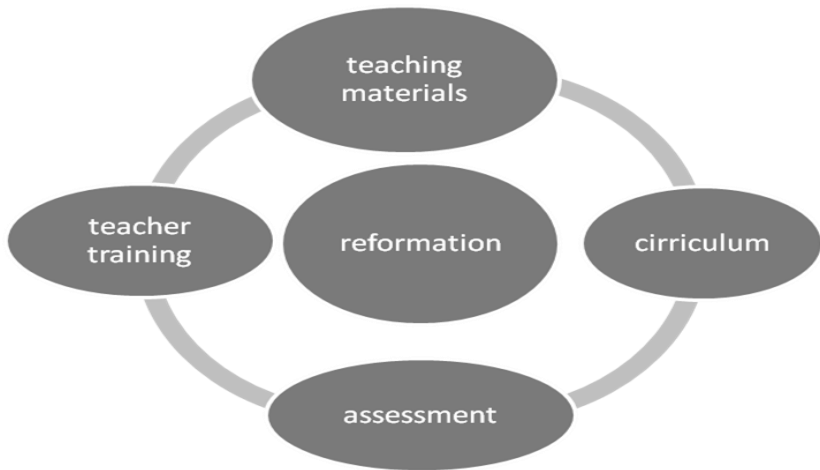
Cenoz (2007: 127) demonstrates the development of pragmatic competence: “Pragmatic competence was considered as part of sociolinguistic competence in Canale and Swain’s model (1980); other models include sociolinguistic competence as part of pragmatic competence (Bachman, 1990) but others consider it as independent but related to other competencies. Celcia-Murcia et al. (2007, 42) proposed pragmatic competence as an actional competence, which is described as ability to comprehend and produce speech acts or speech acts set. According to Cenoz (2007: 125-126), pragmatic competence envelops sociopragmatic and linguopragmatic aspects of speech acts.

In connection with these facts, by pragmatic competence is understood acquiring knowledge of the functions or illocutionary forces implied in the utterance/discourse, as well as the socio-contextual aspects and communication strategies that affect its appropriateness. In addition, it involves the knowledge of cultural aspects such as the rules of behaviour that exist in the target language community, as well as cross-cultural specifics, including differences and similarities in intercultural communication.

Readiness to long-life learning correlates with the continuous education, which the Uzbek model of education demonstrates it. This matter will be discussed in the next section.

As we see, reforms have an affect on the curriculum, teaching materials and assessment – all of which are crucial in the preparation of skilful modern languages teachers and in which they must be trained and retrained (See *Figure 2*).

***Figure 2. Reformation components of education***



What are the basic competences in accordance with the European standard?

Why can they provide adaptation, self-realization in the market conditions?

How many components of communicative competence are included in the local education?

What do we mean by the pragmatic competence and how it is realized in the State Educational Standard?

#### 4. Career-Long Study

List of Core Competencies for Educators are discussed by *Alicia Anthony* (<http://work.chron.com/list-core-competencies-educators->). This article gives an opportunity to open the core of teachers' career-long study and understand the pedagogical activity so we will present some ideas from it.

Teachers must acquire a range of educational proficiencies. Teachers are expected to be competent in five core areas. These five competencies are the backgrounds by which the teachers can be measured.

To be a qualified teacher, he/she must understand and appreciate the challenges faced by students and be willing to go the extra mile to help them open their potential.

To be a good teacher he/she should gain the knowledge they need to teach their subjects. Both pedagogy (the method and practice of teaching) and content-area knowledge is expected; it is important for instructors to stay up to date on new teaching concepts as well as specific subject-area knowledge.

Teachers should acquire classroom management skills which can be improved with experience. However, the ability to bond with students and foster an environment of mutual respect within the classroom is the first step to a well-managed classroom.

Teachers who possess the ability to think creatively qualify as an asset in their schools. These teachers are able to use appropriate instructions taking account the needs of individual students and to be able to handle the ever-changing tide of educational regulations with ease.

Teachers are expected to show leadership within their pedagogical activity. They may be expected to organize head committees as well as foster relationships with parents and community members.

When teachers engage in continuous professional study, they no longer need to be told how to teach. They become responsibly empowered professionals. Teachers growth is closely related to students growth. Studying teaching can help facilitate teacher's personal and professional development. For when teachers observe, examine, question, and reflect on their ideas and develop new practices that lead toward their ideal, students are alive... when teachers stop growing, so do students.

Teachers' professional development:

- language and instructional skills;
- individual style of teaching
- creative initiative
- innovative activity
- professional activity
- interaction activity.

It is axiomatic that a teacher who learns from his/her own experience understands in a way which is just not available to persons who merely try to follow the instructions of others. Experience-based innovation not only promotes pedagogical skills; from the manner in which the new skill is accumulated a teacher also learns concurrently the art of mastering new professional skills, and that confidence and sureness of touch which are hallmarks of the full professional. Self-development can be conducted via development or renewal curricula. It enables to develop broad curricular skills. Through various task-related activities they become proficient at translating broad aims into pedagogical objectives, developing strategies for classroom negotiation, creating syllabuses, thinking through alternative classroom teaching strategies, creating assessment instruments, producing teaching resources, and working out ways of obtaining evaluative feedback on the classroom endeavors. Equally important, however, a teacher's involvement in curriculum renewal leads to a growth in self-confidence and the building up of a healthy self-image; it provides a sense of professional achievement and personal value that leads to better teacher's morale and commitment.

Self-fulfillment 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.



How can you interpret a range of educational proficiencies related to FL teachers?

In what aspects can the teachers' professional development be undertaken?

How can self-fulfillment be achieved?

### **Follow-up activities:**

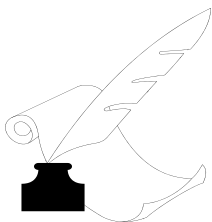
**Activity 1.** Analyze the CEFR document and

A. Think about approaches used for EL teaching and learning.

B. Prepare oral presentation about a competence-based approach.



**Activity 2.** Analyze State Educational Standard for training linguists at the MA level and study the requirements to FL specialist.



**Activity 3.** Write a summary to the section “Career-Long Study” (100 words).

**Activity 3.** Read explanation of concepts of *qualities* and *competences* given by Neil Kokemuller (<http://work.chron.com/difference-between-competencies-tasks-qualities-21533.html>). Describe your qualities and competences to engage the job placement as a teacher.

### **Qualities**

Your personal qualities include traits or attributes that help shape your personality. The combination of qualities you possess help make you unique as a person and employee. Charisma, appearance, humor, kindness and a helpful attitude are among qualities you might bring to the table as an employee. From an employer standpoint, your personal qualities are several competency factors used to assess whether you are the right fit for the company and job. Knowing yourself and your interests also help you ensure you get into an organization and position that matches well with your interests.

### **Competencies**

Job competencies include the knowledge, skills and abilities and behaviors, as well as qualities necessary for success in a position. Employers often include competencies in a job description to convey the qualifications needed for a successful applicant. This helps job seekers when giving consideration to a job posting. In the interview, hiring managers also use questions to find out whether you have the necessary competencies to do the job well. Competencies are essentially a broader umbrella of job traits that includes your personal qualities.

**Key reading:**

1. Blomeke S. & Delaney S. Assessment of teacher knowledge across countries: A review of the state of research. //ZDM Mathematics Education. 2012, 44, 223-247
2. Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning. Teaching. The Council of Europe. – Strasbourg, 2001.
3. Jalolov J. J. Makhkamova G. T., Ashurov Sh. S. English Language Teaching Methodology (Theory and Practice). –T.: Fan va texnologia, 2015.
4. Shohamy E. Language policies: Hidden agendas and new approaches. –New York: Routledge, 2006.
5. Using CEFR: Principles of Good Practice. – Cambridge: CUP, 2011.

### **THEME 3. PROFESSIONAL-PEDAGOGICAL COMPETENCY**

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**Objectives of the lecture** are to familiarize with the core elements of pedagogical and psychological culture, to deal with the main aspects of culture of the language, speech and communication, to discuss empathy phenomenon and etiquette patterns of professional competence.

**Learning outcomes of the lecture:** By the end of the lecture students will be able to:

- understand the features to be an effective teacher and components of professional competence of teachers;
- distinct the core elements of pedagogical and psychological culture;
- realize the pedagogical potential;
- identify the main aspects of culture of the language, speech and communication;
- use empathic and speech etiquette skills in the professional activity;

– use instructional strategies in the practice of language teaching.

**Questions to be discussed:**

1. Pedagogical culture of teachers.
2. Psychological components of teachers' culture.
3. Culture of the language, speech and communication.
4. Instructional strategies at FLT process.

**Spark:**

Look at the pictures and brainstorm the meaning of an 'effective teacher'.

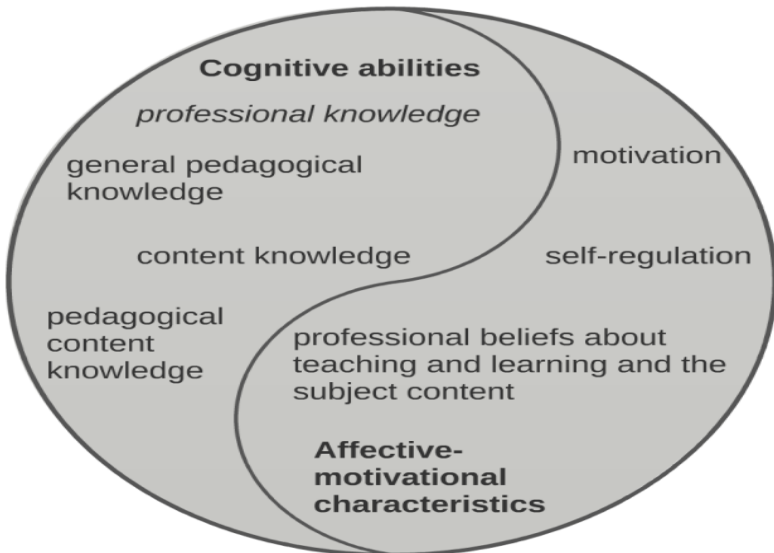


## **Input material:**

### **1. Pedagogical culture of teachers**

Educators today hear a lot about gaps in education – achievement gaps, funding gaps, and school-readiness gaps. Still, there's another gap that often goes unexamined: the cultural gap between students and teachers. For professionally competent, successful and effective implementation of their duties, class teachers ought to be familiar with the psychological and pedagogical basics of working with learners of the specific age, be informed about the latest advancements in forms and methods of educational work, know and use modern educational technologies. Thus be competent in their pedagogical activity. In the *Figure 3* professional competence of teachers is presented below.

***Figure 3. Professional competence of teachers***  
(adapted from Blomeke and Delaney, 2012)



In the *Figure 3* we can see dichotomy of cognitive abilities and affective-motivational characteristics which are in close interrelation with pedagogical and psychological aspects of teachers' activity.

Teachers' Pedagogical Knowledge and the Teaching Profession have been widely discussed in scientific literature ([www.oecd.org/.../Background\\_doc...m\\_ITEL-FINAL.pdf](http://www.oecd.org/.../Background_doc...m_ITEL-FINAL.pdf)). It is based on the seminal works in this area of study (Voss, Kunter Baumert, 2011; Konig et al., 2011). Let's analyze the main components of the various models of general pedagogical knowledge (See the *Table 4*).

**Table 4. The main components of the various models of general pedagogical knowledge**

Pedagogical components	Psychological components
<p>– <b>Knowledge of classroom management:</b> maximizing the quantity of instructional time, handling classroom events, teaching at a steady pace, maintaining clear direction at lessons.</p> <p>– <b>Knowledge of teaching methods:</b> having a command of various teaching methods, knowing when and how to apply each method;</p> <p>– <b>Knowledge of classroom assessment:</b> knowledge of different forms and purposes of formative and summative assessments, knowledge of how different frames of reference (e. g., social, individual, criterion-based) impact students' motivation;</p> <p>– <b>Structure:</b> structuring of learning objectives and the lesson process, lesson planning and evaluation</p> <p>– <b>Adaptivity:</b> dealing with heterogeneous learning groups in the classroom</p>	<p>– <b>Knowledge of learning processes:</b> supporting and fostering individual learning progress by having knowledge of various cognitive and motivational learning processes (e. g. learning strategies, impact of prior knowledge, effects and quality characteristics of praise, etc.).</p> <p>– <b>Knowledge of an individual student's characteristics:</b> having knowledge of the sources of a student's cognitive, motivational, and emotional heterogeneity.</p>

The pedagogical component we can correlate with instructional competence and the psychological one with learning theory and cognitive features of learners.

While analyzing the professional portrait of a teacher we can notice the term “pedagogical culture”, with which the following is considered:

- wide world-looking, psychological and pedagogical erudition and competence
- a set of important, for the teaching activity, personal qualifications
- skills for connection of teaching-bringing up activity with the searching the ways of his/her activity development
- pedagogical mastery and mastery and orderliness

In the professional activity the pedagogical culture shaped the following components:

- professional and pedagogical knowledge
- professional pedagogical skills
- professionally-psychological positions
- teachers’ attitudes
- personal qualities provided professionally-oriented knowledge and skills.

To understand the instructional aspect of teachers training it is necessary to illustrate what components are included into teachers’ pedagogical potential. (See *Table 5*).

*Table 5. The structure of pedagogical potential*

<b>Professional training</b>	<b>Creativity of teachers</b>	<b>Professionalism of teachers</b>	<b>Pedagogical culture</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– orientation on profession</li> <li>– professional development</li> <li>– readiness to pedagogical activity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– pedagogical intellect</li> <li>– professional competency</li> <li>– individual style of teaching-creative attitude to the job</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– innovative activity</li> <li>– humanistic orientation</li> <li>– professional growing</li> <li>– professional</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– pedagogical style of thinking</li> <li>– pedagogical mechanics</li> <li>– mastery of communication</li> <li>– social</li> </ul>

	– development of creative initiative	position –professional activeness	activeness – instructional mastery
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Being a class teacher means a responsibility voluntarily assumed by teachers in addition to their main activity. A class teacher is the primary organizer of educational work at schools, and is officially appointed by the school principal to organize an educational process of their class. A class teacher:

- mediates the society and the developing personalities of learners in their learning the cultural foundations of humankind;
- manages relations between all elements of an educational process;
- creates optimal psychological climate in classrooms;
- coordinates joint efforts of teachers, family and society;
- organizes daily life of learners, and is an important role-model in individual's development.



How can you interpret pedagogical culture of teachers?

What components does it consist of?

What is pedagogical potential?

## 2. Psychological components of teachers' culture

The central element of teacher's qualification is his/her professional psychological-pedagogical competence, understanding of the complexity of personality, ability to analyze interaction of students with the world, and manifestations of students' interpersonal relations with other people. Thus, the psychological culture can be viewed as a part of psychological and pedagogical competence of a class teacher. Broadly put, psychological culture is related to a learner's inner life – thoughts, feelings, emotional states, and interpersonal relations – all that constitutes one's psychological reality.

Psychological understanding of culture defines people as both cultural objects and subjects, and this demands that to the definition

of culture should be added a set of values, norms and ideals, actively internalized by people and used by them in interactions with others.

In general, psychological components of culture are: 1) cognitive; 2) reflexive-perceptive; 3) affective; 4) volitional; 5) communicative; 6) regulative; 7) value-sense. Students and teachers should understand that these elements enter into the structure and content of pedagogical skills.

As we see, psychological culture as part of the general culture which is multilayered. It includes: 1) everyday psychological knowledge, and psychological practices of religious, social, political, economic, and educational activities, 2) professional experience and practical knowledge in the field of psychology, both as a science and an art (psycho-techniques, various schools of counseling and therapy), and 3) the psychological science and education (mostly higher education), that form psychological domain.

In the light of this differentiation, T. Kulikova ([psychologyinrussia. com/. . . /pdf/2012/kulikova. pdf](http://psychologyinrussia.com/. . . /pdf/2012/kulikova. pdf)) viewed the concept of “basic psychological culture” as a multi-component systemic formation that can be viewed from the standpoints of gnosiological, activity, and subjective-personal aspects. Let’s describe some ideas from her article to understand the main components of psychological culture.

From the gnosiological standpoint the author considers philosophical and culturological, components of culture: norms, knowledge, values, and symbols. Cultural norms are associated with normative social behavior, its roles, social expectations, etc. The adoption of norms leads to internalization of such psychological legacies of culture, as prejudice, stereotypes that manifest themselves in consciousness, subconscious and behavior. Psychological knowledge presupposes to know oneself or other people and by the developments of science, expressed in ideas, notions, or theories, can be both practical and theoretical. Meanings – the cultural tools for connection with the world through the medium of signs – are expressed with images, symbols, gestures, words, clothing, etc. Symbols in the field of psychology may be a



subject of analysis in terms of the various manifestations of mental activity (fairytales, dreams, metaphors, etc.), their interpretation, assignment of personal meanings and an impact on a person's activities.

From the activity standpoint Kulikova understands the tasks that a man needs to perform. This aspect considers the content of the activity that underlies internalization of human culture. Entering the world of psychological culture, much like any other culture, is done in two ways: through the reproduction of the experience familiar to humankind and through creativity – the “discovery” of truth, understanding psychological phenomena, or by insights.

From the subjective-personal standpoint Kulikova stresses the components objectively presented in culture that became part of personality of the person who internalized them. Psychological culture of personality is, above all, the phenomenon that permeates every aspect of people's psyche and activity.

Thus psychological culture of teachers is one of the components of teachers' professional competence.



What is psychological culture of teachers?  
Why is psychological culture considered as part of the general culture?  
Why is it multicomponential?

### **3. Culture of the language, speech and communication**

The culture of communication includes the speech culture which consists of knowledge about the language system and its literary norms in its historical development and communicative skills from the normative-regulative perspectives. Norm in the theory of speech culture sets out as correlation of the language system and uses and as a set of appropriate means for providing a successful communication. Uses is understood here as a stylistic concept expressed by language using features and related to the social role of communicants.

From the theory of speech act *speech culture* is a choice and organization of language means which provides successful

organization and achievement of communicative aims taking into consideration situation, language, communicative and ethical norms. However, we can follow the language norms and ethical rules and produce unsatisfactory texts. So in the speech culture a communicative component plays an important role in achieving the set goals: for each goal specific means can be used. For adequate communication students should have skills of perception and comprehension of the text, then give response (produce the text) or conduct negotiation of meanings. For this purpose students need to have linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge. Due to the personal attitude the content of speech is modulated.

Communication culture is related to speech etiquette. According to E. Bern, speech etiquette is turn up of politeness which provides smooth communication in order to avoid conflicts and misunderstanding. By the speech etiquette the system of sustainable formulas of communication is understood.

The second important aspect of professional communication is empathy as the ability to share another person's feelings and emotions as if they were your own. Teachers need to develop the empathic competence as it has an impact on the social and professional adaptation and development of communicative norms and rules.

Empathy plays a great role in development and stabilization of interpersonal relations which is evaluated as important communicative quality of a personality which allows creating an atmosphere of openness, confidentiality, sincerity and disclosure of creative potential.

During the teaching process teachers need to show an interest in all learners and promote them to the class. Every learner is unique and interesting and it is teachers' job to find out why. Taking the register is a great opportunity to do this. As teachers call each learner they can ask questions to find out information about their interests and backgrounds. This not only gives good language models but also helps learners to learn about each other. Teachers should also be conscious of how often they use individual learners' names. If they

call out some names more than others, whether for positive or negative reasons, this can have a damaging effect.

All learners need to feel valued and it's the teacher who sets the tone for this. How teachers use their voice gives strong messages of how they feel about the class and the individuals in it. Every time teachers talk to their class or the individuals in it, teachers are providing a model of how they want them to talk to each other. If teachers shout at their learners or talk to them harshly too often, then they will do the same with each other.

Teachers should be very careful not to put less confident learners on the spot when they talk to them in front of the class, especially when asking questions. Lower-order questions, that just require *yes* or *no* answers, will be less threatening for less confident learners. Whereas, teachers can stretch more able learners with higher-order questions that ask *Why?*, or *How?*, or *What do you think?*

When setting tasks, give lots of explanation and instructions and always let them know that teachers are happy to repeat. Use gestures to reinforce meaning where it is possible too.

Some learners will need more *thinking time* than others do. It's easy to find that a small group of stronger learners always answer your questions first. To include everyone, tell the class to stay quiet and write answers down, so everyone has time to think about the question before sharing answers as a group.



How do you understand the language and speech?  
Why do teachers need mastering empathic skills?  
How do we usually teach speech etiquette of the target language?

#### 4. Instructional strategies at FLT process

The instructional strategies are given in the *Table 6*.

**Table 6. The Nine Categories of Instructional Strategies** (taken from: [www.nomeschools.org/Page/479...](http://www.nomeschools.org/Page/479...))

Category	Instructions
Setting Objectives and	Provide students with a direction for learning and

<b>Providing Feedback</b>	information about how well they are performing it relative to a particular learning objective.
<b>Reinforcing Effort and Providing Recognition</b>	Enhance students' understanding the relationship between effort and achievement by addressing students' attitudes and beliefs about learning.  Provide students with abstract tokens of recognition or praise for their accomplishments related to the attainment of a goal.
<b>Cooperative Learning</b>	Provide students with opportunities to interact with one another in ways that enhance their learning.
<b>Cues, Questions, and Advance Organizers</b>	Enhance students' ability to retrieve, use and organize what they already know about a topic.
<b>Non-linguistic Representations</b>	Enhance students' ability to represent and elaborate on knowledge using mental images.
<b>Summarizing and Note Taking</b>	Enhance students' ability to synthesize information and organize it in a way that captures the main ideas and supporting details.
<b>Assigning Homework and Providing Practice</b>	Extend the learning opportunities for students to practice, review, and apply knowledge.  Enhance students' ability to reach the expected level of proficiency for a skill or process.
<b>Identifying Similarities and Differences</b>	Enhance students' understanding and ability to use knowledge by engaging them in mental processes that involve identifying ways in which items are similar and different.
<b>Generating and Testing Hypotheses</b>	Enhance students' understanding and ability to use knowledge by engaging them in mental processes that involve making and testing hypotheses.



What do we mean by instructional strategies?  
 What kind of strategies do you know?  
 What instructional strategies are used by a teacher?

**Follow-up activities:**

**Activity 1.** Define the mentioned strategies above in accordance with the following items:

- Possible ways to analyze a teaching process
- Research designs and data analyses that can be applied in the classroom
- The importance of sharing the results of research and possible ways to improve situation.

**Activity 2.** Think about characteristics of an ideal teacher(taken from: [www.slideplayer.com/slide/10919219/](http://www.slideplayer.com/slide/10919219/)). Do you agree or disagree with the given characteristics in the chart.

<b>Ideal teacher</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Enjoys students.</li> <li>• Uses different teaching techniques.</li> <li>• Has a great sense of humor.</li> <li>• Acts like an adult and not a child (or high school student).</li> <li>• Keeps promises.</li> <li>• Is organized.</li> <li>• Knows the subject matter.</li> <li>• Admits when he or she is wrong.</li> <li>• Uses a pleasant voice.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is enthusiastic about the subject.</li> <li>• Is willing to listen to both sides of an issue.</li> <li>• Has a reputation for giving challenging work.</li> <li>• Isn't a pushover. Keeps misbehaving students in line.</li> <li>• Keeps everyone busy.</li> <li>• Does not have favorites.</li> <li>• Is polite to everyone all the time.</li> <li>• Is friendly and fair.</li> </ul>

**Activity 3.** Study the requirements to being a teacher. Reflect on the questions:

- Do all of them reflect the qualities of the English language teacher?
- Can we concern the qualities given in the first column as professional skills or not?
- What can you add to the first and second columns?

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Efficiency in the L2 class,</li> <li>– Activity, energy and movement in the</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Show an interest in students</li> <li>– Be friendly and funny</li> </ul>
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classroom, – Openness to innovations and new methodological approaches, – Enthusiasm and degree of hopefulness, which may decrease with age, – Willingness to strive and improve teaching and learning conditions, etc.	– Being on close terms with students – Have a good sense of humor – Treat students well – Be patient – Teach in a pleasant and graceful way – Be kind
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#### **Activity 4.**

A. Read and discuss with your partner the given instruction for teachers to organize the teacher-student interaction. Write a list of phrases (10) used for organizing interaction with students.

1. You should show that you care about your students. Attend sporting events, ask about their hobbies, and make a connection.
2. You should have a thorough knowledge of your subject matter. Being prepared builds trust.
3. You should take command of the class. If you are not the classroom leader, students will gladly assume the position.
4. You should act in a mature manner all the time. Don't be sarcastic. Don't tell lies. Don't lose your temper.
5. You should maintain a certain emotional distance between yourself and your students. Students have peers. They need you to teach.

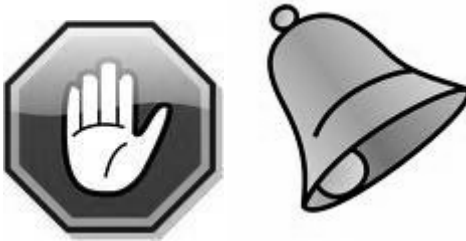
B. The three most important student's behaviors to teach on the first days of school are:

- Discipline
- Procedures
- Routines

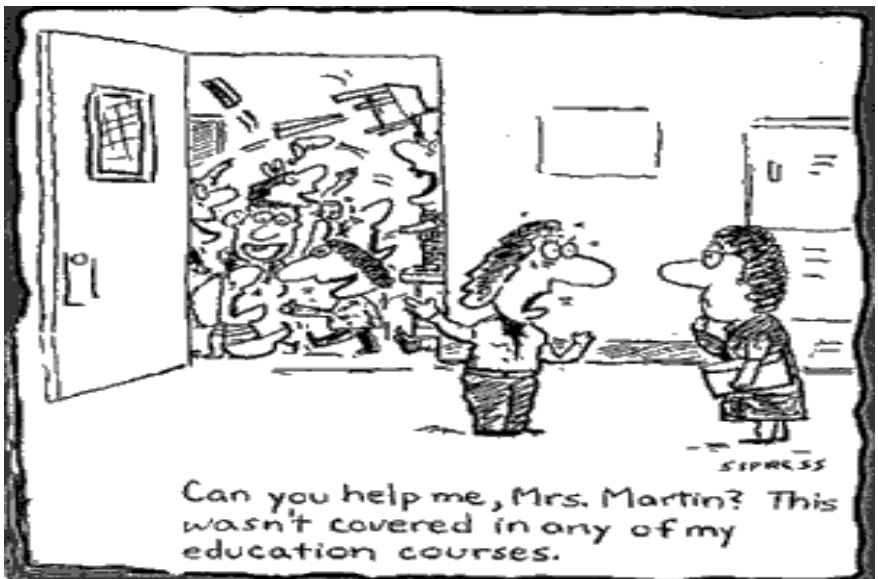
Write a list of phrases (10) to organize students' behavior successfully within the given items.

**Activity 5.** Non-verbal cues can be effective to show the class that the noise level is too high. Cues can be a bell, a clicker, flipping the light switches. They can also be facial expressions, body posture and hand signals.

Look at the cues below to be used to keep silence or attract attention. Tell students up-front what is your cue, and use it throughout the presentation.



**Activity 6.** Look at the pictures and discuss their content in the group. What strategies will you use to overcome the seen problems within a teaching process?





### **Key reading:**

1. Konig J., Blomeke S., Paine L., Schmidt W. H., & Hsieh F. General pedagogical knowledge of future middle school teachers: On the complex ecology of teacher education in the United States, Germany, and Taiwan. // *Journal of Teacher Education*. 2011, 62(2). – Pp. 188 -201.
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## **THEME 4. COMPARATIVE METHODOLOGY OF FLT**

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**Objectives of the lecture** are to familiarize with types of methodology and how groups influence the selecting approaches and methods appropriately to the age and context of language teaching, as well as to organize the comparison and analysis of the approaches and methods of FLT.

**Learning outcomes of the lecture:** By the end of the lecture students will be able to

- understand the role of comparative methodology in theory and practice of FLT;
- identify cognitive abilities of different age groups;
- compare and evaluate approaches and methods of language teaching from the position of their efficacy and appropriateness;
- use appropriate approaches and methods of FLT and integrate them during the classes.

### **Questions to be discussed:**

1. Types of methodology of language teaching.
2. Methodology of FL teaching at different types of educational establishments.
3. Approaches and methods are used in different age groups.
4. Comparative analysis of approaches and methods of FLT.

### **Spark:**

Discuss in the group prompt management of inappropriate behavior of a teacher

- Eye contact/move closer and prompt appropriate behavior
- Reminder of procedure by stating correct one or note students who are doing what is expected
- Redirect attention to task and monitor shortly thereafter

- ▶ Ask/tell a student to stop inappropriate behavior
- ▶ Make it private: call to desk, whisper, nonverbal cues
- ▶ Briefly talk to a student/assess penalties
- ▶ Time out at desk or another room

**Input material:**

**1. Types of methodology of language teaching**



We distinguish the following types of methodology of language teaching:

1) **General methodology** studies laws, regulations, and backgrounds of teaching FL. For e. g.: the principles of selection of the teaching material, rational correlation of oral speech and reading, ways of organization and intensification of FLT.

2) **Particular methodology** studies laws, regulations, features of teaching a certain language, its phenomena on the basis of a native language, because during teaching we focus on similarities and differences between target and native languages.

3) **Special methodology** deals with concrete aspects of theory of FLT, which are more important for FLT. For e. g.: technology of teaching grammar, methodology of using technical tools.

4) **Historical methodology** – subject of study is the history of development of methods of FLT.

5) **Experimental methodology** – the theory of conducting experiment in FLT;

6) **Comparative methodology** studies:

– features of language teaching in allied/kindred /homogeneous regions;

– approaches and methods of FLT in comparison. For example, from the position of their effectiveness and retrospective research.

– conditions and features of teaching within multi-didactics;

– features of teaching at different types of

educational institutions;

– teaching FL in and out of the native speakers environment;

– intensive and extensive conditions of FLT.



What types of methodology of language teaching are differentiated?

What are objectives of comparative methodology?

Which comparative methodology is important for FL teachers training?

## 2. Methodology of FL teaching at different types of educational establishments

First, it is necessary to distinguish age groups of learners and their cognitive abilities (taken from: Kubertson & Ford’s article “Language acquisition: An overview” - <http://www.adlit.org/article/2685>) presented in the *Table 7*.

*Table 7. Learners age groups*

Primary and intermediate students (7-10 years old)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• start to learn to analyze, perception becomes less emotion-based, more selective</li><li>• short attention span, sustained attention develops together with learning motivation</li><li>• evolution of thinking from the one based on images and emotions to abstract and critical thinking</li><li>• a new situation in relations with others (in a class), teacher represents an authority</li></ul>
Early adolescent students (upper-elementary and middle-school) (11-14 years old)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• strong emotional connection to what is learned (do only the things that are interesting, attention is easily drawn to something else)</li><li>• thinking becomes more abstract, critical; students tend to reject the teacher’s and course books authority, want to have their own opinion on the subject</li><li>• the speech becomes logical, students are</li></ul>

	able to prove <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• students tend to be impulsive, sometimes manifest their feelings in an aggressive way</li> </ul>
Young Adults	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• students tend to choose the knowledge that will come useful in their future profession</li> <li>• students try to get to the core of a problem, evaluate an event, independent thinking is crucial</li> </ul>

Researchers defined the Six Stages of Second-Language Acquisition and instructional strategies the teachers need to work in different age group. The teachers also differentiate instructions according to the language level. It is necessary to describe cognitive abilities at these stages focusing on some instructions for teachers to work at different stages (taken from Kubertson & Ford’s article “Language acquisition: An overview” - <http://www.adlit.org/article/2685>):

**1. Pre-production** – is a silent period when a student takes in the new language but does not speak it. This period often lasts for six weeks or longer, depending on the individual.

- Emphasize listening comprehension by using read-aloud and music.
- Use visuals and have students point to pictures or act out vocabulary.
- Speak slowly and use shorter words, but use correct English phrasing.
- Model "survival" language by saying and showing the meaning. For example, say, "Open your book, " and then open a book while students observe.
- Gesture, point and show as much as possible.
- More advanced classmates who speak the same language can support new learning through interpretation.
- Avoid excessive error correction. Reinforce learning by modeling correct language usage when students make mistakes.

**2. Early Production** – the individual begins to speak using short words and sentences, but the emphasis is still on listening and

absorbing the new language. There will be many errors in the early production stage.

- Continue the strategies listed above, but add opportunities for students to produce simple language.
- Ask students to point to pictures and say new words.
- Ask yes/no and either/or questions.
- Have students work in pairs or small groups to discuss a problem. Have literate students write short sentences or words in graphic organizers.
- Model a phrase and have students repeat it and add modifications. A teacher says, "This book is very interesting. " A student repeats it and says, "This book is very boring. " Continue with as many modifications as possible.
- Avoid excessive error correction. Reinforce learning by modeling correct usage.

**3. Speech Emergent** – speech becomes more frequent, words and sentences are longer, but the individual still relies heavily on context clues and familiar topics. Vocabulary continues to increase and errors begin to decrease, especially in common or repeated interactions.

- Introduce more academic language skills by using the same techniques listed above, but beginning to use more academic vocabulary.
- Introduce new academic vocabulary and model how to use it in a sentence.
- Provide visuals and make connections with students' background knowledge as much as possible.
- Ask questions that require a short answer and are fairly literal.
- Introduce charts and graphs by using easily understood information such as a class survey of food preferences.
- Have students re-tell stories or experiences and have one student write them down. The EL student can bring these narratives home to read and reinforce learning.

- In writing activities, provide students with a fill-in-the blank version of the assignment with the necessary vocabulary listed on the page.

- Provide minimal error correction. Focus only on correction that directly interferes with meaning and reinforce learning by modeling the correct usage.

**4. Beginning Fluency** – speech is fairly fluent in social situations with minimal errors. New contexts and academic language are challenging and the individuals will struggle to express themselves due to gaps in vocabulary and appropriate phrases.

- Have students work in pairs and groups to discuss content.
- During instruction, have students do a "Think, pair, share" to give students an opportunity to process the new language and concept.

- Ask questions that require a full response with explanation. If you do not understand students' explanation, ask for clarification by paraphrasing and asking students if you heard them correctly.

- Ask questions that require inference and justification of the answer.

- Ask students if they agree or disagree with a statement and why.

- Model more advanced academic language structures such as, "I think, " "In my opinion, " and "When you compare. "Have students repeat the phrases in context.

- Re-phrase incorrect statements in correct English, or ask students if they know another way to say it.

- Introduce nuances of language such as when to use more formal English and how to interact in conversations.

- Have students make short presentations, providing them with the phrases and language used in presentations ("Today I will be talking about") and giving them an opportunity to practice the presentation with partners before getting in front of the class.

- Continue to provide visual support and vocabulary development.

- Correct errors that interfere with meaning, and pre-identify errors that will be corrected in students' writing, such as verb-tense agreement. Only correct the errors agreed upon.

You may want to assist in improving pronunciation by asking students to repeat key vocabulary and discussing how different languages have different sounds.

**5. Intermediate Fluency** – Communicating in the L2 is fluent, especially in social language situations. The individual is able to speak almost fluently in new situations or in academic areas, but there will be gaps in vocabulary knowledge and some unknown expressions. There are very few errors, and the individual is able to demonstrate higher order of thinking skills in the second language such as offering an opinion or analyzing a problem.

- Identify key academic vocabulary and phrases and model them. Ask students to produce the language in class activities.

- Use graphic organizers and thinking maps and check to make sure students fill them in with details. Challenge students to add more.

- Help students make connections with new vocabulary by instructing them in the etymology of words or word families such as, "important, importance, importantly."

- Create assessments that give students an opportunity to present in English after they have an opportunity to practice in pairs or small groups.

- Introduce more academic skills, such as brainstorming, prioritizing, categorization, summarizing and compare and contrast.

- Ask students to identify vocabulary by symbols that show whether students "know it really well, kind of know it, or don't know it at all." Help students focus on strategies to get the meaning of new words.

- Conduct a "guessing time" during silent reading where they circle words they don't know and write down their guess of the meaning. Check the students' results in the class.

- Introduce idioms and give examples of how to use them appropriately. For example, "Let's wind up our work." What's another way you could use the phrase "wind up?"

- Starting at this level, students need more correction/feedback, even on errors that do not directly affect meaning. They should be developing a more advanced command of syntax, pragmatics, pronunciation, and other elements that do not necessarily affect meaning but do contribute to oral fluency.

It may also be helpful to discuss language goals with students so you can assist in providing modeling and correction in specified areas.

**6. Advanced Fluency** – An individual communicates fluently in all contexts and can maneuver successfully in new contexts and when exposed to new academic information. At this stage, the individual may still have an accent and use idiomatic expressions incorrectly at times, but an individual is essentially fluent and comfortable communicating in the second language.

- Students at this level are close to native language fluency and can interact well in a variety of situations. Continue to develop language skills as gaps arise by using the strategies listed above. Although a student may seem completely fluent, he or she still benefits from visual support, building on background knowledge, pre-teaching vocabulary and making connections between content areas.

- Offer challenge activities to expand a student's vocabulary knowledge such as identifying antonyms, synonyms and the use of a thesaurus and dictionary.

- Demonstrate effective note-taking and provide a template.

Offer error correction on academic work and on oral language. Because students at this stage have achieved near-native fluency, they benefit from support in fine-tuning their oral and written language skills.

It is important to keep in mind that teachers often get frustrated when EL students appear to be fluent because they have strong social English skills, but then they do not participate well in academic projects and discussions. Teachers who are aware of EL students' need to develop academic language fluency in English will be much better prepared to assist those students in becoming academically successful.





What groups can be distinguished in methodology of FLT?

Why are they distinguished according to language acquisition abilities?

What proficiency levels are described in this text?

Why should you know the age groups?

### 3. Approaches and methods are used in different age groups

The selection of the methods depends on the goal, characteristics, age, and content of each lesson. A teacher may choose from a wide range of methods such as conversation, presentation, retelling, translation, or others.

For teaching adults in the context of ESP we can use the **Lexical approach** which is derived from the belief that the building blocks of language learning and communication are not grammar, functions, notions but lexis that is words and word combinations (<http://ru.scribd.com/doc/17116576/Presentation-on-The-Lexical-Approach>). It is known that acquiring lexical units are necessary for the second language researches. That's why the teachers can use lexical approaches in language teaching which are differentiated into four types.

*Type 1:* It consists of complete course packages including supplementary texts, tapes, and teacher's books.

*Type 2:* This consists of collections of vocabulary teaching activities.

*Type 3:* This consists of "printout" versions of computer corpora collections packaged in text format.

*Type 4:* These are computer concordance programs and attached data sets to allow students to set up and carry out their own analyses. These are typically packaged in CD-ROM form or can be downloaded from the internet.

The status of vocabulary in language teaching is enhanced by recognition of multiword units in language learning and communication. However, it still lacks the full characterization of an approach or method. It remains to be demonstrated how a lexically

based theory of language and language learning can be applied at the levels of design and procedure in language teaching.

The second successful approach for FLT the task-based learning (TBL) which can be used in all age groups. At school it can be organized as a role play or drama. TBL focuses on the use of authentic language and on asking students to do meaningful tasks using the target language. In teaching adults such tasks can include visiting a doctor, conducting an interview, or calling customer service for help. Each task will be organized in the following way:

- Pre-task activity an introduction to the topic and the task
- Task cycle: Task > Planning > Report
- Language Focus and Feedback

A balance should be kept between fluency, which is what the task provides, and accuracy, which is provided by the task feedback.

Why should teachers take into consideration the age group when they choose the methods of teaching?



Can lexical approach be used in teaching teens?

Why is it considered that a task-based approach is flexible for teaching all learners?

What other methods can be used by teachers when they teach young learners and teens?

#### **4. Comparative analysis of approaches and methods of FLT**

There are different approaches and methods of FLT. A teacher should have abilities to compare them from the position of their effectiveness and their relevance to the given situation. While analyzing a teacher should answer the key questions: What principles of analyzed approaches and methods are more successful for development of communicative and professional competences? Is the approach or method appropriate to the teaching/learning context/age and language level? What activities can be successful within the approach?

The samples of comparative analysis of five approaches (Linguo-country study, Socio-cultural, Intercultural, Cognitive-

action and Communicative approaches) are presented by G. Makhkamova (2010:51-56) in the following parameters:

- Status of foreign language teaching
- Basic theories in this approach
- Learning goals and principles of teaching
- Learning objects and units
- Applied technology and formulas of teaching.
- Learning results and assessment

On the basis of these parameters the researcher has revealed the positive and negative sides of the compared approaches for development intercultural competence.



Why should we analyze or compare approaches and methods of FLT?

What questions should we ask when analyzing approaches or methods of teaching?

What criteria are used for analyzing approaches or methods of FL teaching?

### Follow-up activities:

**Activity 1.** Study the core of the methods given in the table (taken from <http://blog.tjtaylor.net/teaching-methods/>). Compare them and answer the questions:

What are the differences between them?

Are they effective in FLT?

Which of them are used in the local FLT methodology? What can you say about their efficacy for development of communicative competence?

Method	Focus	Characteristics
– Community Language Learning	Student interaction	Understanding of English through active students' interaction
– Comprehension Approach (Natural Approach, the	Listening comprehension	English speaking delayed until students are ready; meaning

Learnable, and Total Physical Response)		clarified through actions and visuals
Communicative Language Teaching	Interaction, authentic communication and negotiating meaning	Understanding of English through active students' interaction; role play, games, information gaps
Content-based, Task-based, and Participatory Approaches	What is being communicated, not structure of English	Content-based on relevance to students' lives: topics, tasks, problem-solving
Learning Strategy Training, Cooperative Learning, and Multiple Intelligences	How to learn	Teach learning strategies, cooperation; activities vary according to different intelligences

*Based on Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching  
(Oxford University Press)*

**Activity 2.** According to academic researches, there is **not one single best method for everyone** in all contexts, and there is no one teaching method which is inherently superior to the others.

Also, it is not always possible – or appropriate – to apply the same methodology to all learners, who have different objectives, environments and learning needs.

An experienced professional language teacher always supports the **Principled Eclecticism** approach/method, deciding on the most suitable techniques and applying the most appropriate methodology for that learner's specific objectives, learning style and context.

Think about definitions given by methodologists:

- \*Eclecticism means choosing or integrating the best principles of different approaches and methods in teaching process. (Azimov's Dictionary, 1994).
- \*The eclectic method is, therefore involving procedures and techniques drawn from various methods (Mutawa & Kailan, 1989:27).
- \*Teachers can use other concepts and procedures deriving from other theories and methods (Crystal, 1985:104).

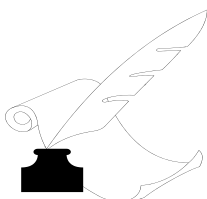
Think about the ways of integration of the best principles of different approaches for the organization EL classroom in different age group.

**Activity 3.** Look at the content of the given *Table 8* and think in what age group and in what context can we use the given instructions.

**Table 8. Types of instructions in L1 and L2 acquisition**

<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Natural acquisition</b>	<b>Traditional instruction</b>	<b>Communicative instruction</b>
<b>Error correction</b>	- rare	++ frequent	-/+ Limited
<b>Learning one thing at a time</b>	- none – language is not presented step by step	++ Input is structurally graded, linguistic items isolated	+ Input is simplified and made comprehensible, but not structurally graded
<b>Ample time available for learning</b>	++ Almost unlimited, many hours a day	- A few hours a week	- A few hours a week, but time can be added by immersion courses
<b>High ratio of native speakers to learners</b>	++ Very high	- The teacher – the only native or proficient speaker	- The teacher – the only native or proficient speaker; students also exposed to other learners' interlanguage(which contains errors)
<b>Variety of language and discourse types</b>	++ Many different types of language events and written forms	- Limited range of language and discourse types, written language selected to represent specific grammatical features	+ Variety of discourse types introduced through stories, role playing, "real-life materials": newspapers, TV programmes

<b>Pressure to use the TL correctly</b>	-/+ High, but the emphasis is on getting meaning across clearly	++ Great pressure to speak and write correctly	- Emphasis on comprehension rather than production
<b>Access to modified input</b>	-/+ Available in one-to-one conversations	+ Teachers often use the learners' first language to give instructions  <b>(often in L1)</b>	+Modified input – a defining feature of this approach  <b>(often in TL)</b>



**Activity 4.** Design three lesson plans for teaching young learners, teens and adults on the topic “Family”.

**Activity 5.** Study how a teacher’s communicative skills can be applied during the English language classes (the material taken from: [www.slideplayer.com/slide/2839359](http://www.slideplayer.com/slide/2839359)).

- **Constructive assertiveness**
  - Clear statement of problem or concern and describing effects – reduces students’ defensiveness, avoids labeling students/behavior, use statements
  - Unambiguous body language: eye contact, posture, facial expression matches tone of statements
  - Obtaining appropriate behavior and resolving the problem: a student needs to accept responsibility for behavior, dramatic emphasis for evasive students
- **Empathic responding**
  - Keeps lines of communication open between you and a student and aids problem solving process
  - Two components: listening skills and processing skills

- **Problem solving**

- Identify the problem: state purpose of meeting, get students point of view/describe problem, ask students reaction; evaluate: help/hurt?

- Identify and select the solution: students' suggestion, a teacher's multiple alternatives; positive focus with plan for improvement

- Obtain a commitment: students' acceptance for the period of time followed by evaluation (sometimes in a contract) with consequences if not followed

- **Talking with parents**

- Constructive assertiveness, empathetic responding, problem solving

- Express appreciation for parents' efforts to meet, work w/them as a team

- Focus on choices a student is making and how to encourage better decisions

- Document concerns: a student's work and notes of behaviors

- **Key reading:**

1. Harmer J. The practice of the English language teaching. – Longman, 2009.

2. Jalolov J. J., Makhkamova G. T., Ashurov Sh. S. English Language Teaching Methodology. (Theory and Practice). –Tashkent: Fan va texnologiya, 2015.

3. Makhkamova G. T., Alimov Ah. S., Ziyayev A. L. Innovative pedagogical technologies in the English language teaching. –Tashkent: Fan va texnologiya, 2017.

4. Robinson P. Cognition and second language instruction. – Cambridge University Press, 2001. Online publication: October 2010. [http://dx. doi. org/10. 1017/CB09781139524780](http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CB09781139524780).

## THEME 5. GLOBAL HYPOTHESES OF THE L2 ACQUISITION AND INTERFERENCE

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**Objectives of the lecture** are to familiarize with the core of the global hypotheses and with interference and inter-language phenomena, to explain the errors classification and students in organizing remedy work.

**Learning outcomes of the lecture:** By the end of the lecture students will be able to

- understand the given notions and hypotheses and their impact on methodology of FLT development;
- define and interpret interference and interlanguage concepts;
- identify types of errors and ways of their overcoming and preventing;
- define a procedure of setting typology of difficulties in FLT;
- use and design themselves techniques for remedy work.

### Questions to be discussed:

1. Global hypotheses of language acquisition.
2. Interference and its types.
3. Interlanguage code.
4. Errors taxonomies in FLT.

### Spark:

Create associative links of the term “interlanguage” and discuss them in the group.

### Input material:

#### 1. Global hypotheses of language acquisition



Scholars presented different models of the L2 or FL language acquisition as global hypotheses (Bausch, Kasper, 1979), particular: 1) contrastive, 2) identity and 3) interlanguage. The contrastive and identity hypotheses are related to the issues L1 and L2 experience, linguistic abilities, psycholinguistic mechanisms of language acquisition.

The third hypothesis is correlated with teaching



FL as cognitive process. The key postulate of this hypothesis is when a learner learns a FL he/she usually forms own language system which includes the main traits of the mother tongue and FL so called interlanguage.

We can see the main features of global hypotheses in the *Table 9*.

***Table 9. The types of Global Hypotheses***

Contrastive Hypothesis	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Linguistic basis of teaching and contrastive characteristics of linguistic items in the contacted languages – interference and transposition, methodological typology of difficulties.</li> <li>2. Behaviorism theory of teaching: input – output with the help of imitations and drills for habit-formation</li> </ol>
Identity Hypothesis	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Postulate of universalism of language acquisition.</li> <li>2. Naturalistic method – atomization of all latent structures in learners’ psychic set up and mechanisms of language acquisition. The process of language acquisition is considered as a creative process of language construction where a learner filters off useful information.</li> <li>3. Teaching is organized on the basis of visual/verbal aids, simple structures and situations. It focuses on the self-correction.</li> </ol>
Interlanguage Hypothesis	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Language is a means of communication and interaction.</li> <li>2. L2 acquisition process is based on the L1 acquisition: factors, interlanguage, and tolerance to the errors.</li> <li>3. During language learning process, learners paraphrase, reconstruct utterances, guess meaning of unknown words, avoid unknown topics, use means to compensate gaps.</li> </ol>

The content of this *Table* gives evidence that these hypotheses influence the formation of a certain approach to teaching.



What are the differences between hypothesis and theory?

What hypotheses were described? What is the core of each one?

Why is the last hypothesis correlated with the communicative approach to FLT?

Why were these hypotheses formulated in accordance with the attitude to errors?

## **2. Interference and its types**

The concept of language transfer can be understood as linguistic interference, diffusion, or cross meaning, which refers to speakers and writers applying knowledge from their native language to L2. According to Dulay et al. (1982) it is the automatic transfer, due to habits, of surface structure of the L1 onto surface of the target language. In turn, Lott (1983:256) understands interference as “errors in the learners’ use of the FL that can be traced back to the mother tongue.” Ellis (1997:51) refers to interference as ‘transfer’, which he says is the influence that a learner’s L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2.” Thus transfer is governed by learners’ perception about what is transferable and by their stage of L2 development.

Interference is a general problem that occurs in FLT. There are many factors that impact of interference appearance. First reason is a speaker’s bilingualism background, because a speaker is influenced by both the source and the target language. Second reason is disloyalty to the target language which is a cause of negative attitude and leads to disobedience to the target language structure and further forces the bilingual to put uncontrolled structure of his/her L1 elements to output in practicing words, oral and written utterances. For example, students’ knowledge and skills sometimes are limited, tend to put words in sentences/oral speech in structure and sense of the native language.

Third, the limited vocabulary in the second language is usually occurred. Vocabulary of a certain language mostly is about words connected to life surroundings. Thus, a learner can meet new words different from the native language. In order to be able to produce

speech approximately to native speakers, vocabulary plays a great role. FL learners try to put deliberately their native word to state points when they cannot find the best words in the target language.

Fourth, needs of synonyms which play an important role as word chosen variation in order to prevent repetition and show vocabulary range. Thus, vocabulary range is aimed to intensify meaning.

Fifth is related to a prestige and style. Applying unfamiliar words during communication practice in a FL which are dominant in the languages of both speakers. Those unfamiliar words usage will become a style of the user. Unfortunately, the user sometimes does not understand the real meaning whether the meaning is denotative or connotative. The common feature is that many language users put affixation in every word.

Interference can be interlingual, intralingual, implicit and explicit. Interlingual transfer is a significant source for language learners. This concept comes from contrastive analysis of behaviorist school of learning. It stresses the negative interference of the mother tongue which contributes to errors appearance. Thus errors are the cause of differences between two contacted languages. In methodology of FLT positive transfer is called **transposition** (fossilization) and negative one is **interference**. Negative transfer refers to those instances of transfer, which result in error because of the native language experience transfer. On contrary, positive transfer is the correct utterance, because both languages have similar structures or universalities.

Interference may occur as the transference of elements of one language to another at various levels including phonological, grammatical, lexical and orthographical. Berthold et al. (1997) define phonological interference as items including foreign accent such as stress, rhyme, intonation and speech sounds from the L1 influencing the L2. The grammatical interference is defined as the L1 influencing the L2 in terms of word order, use of pronouns and determinants, tense and mood. The lexical interference is when we use borrowings of words from one language and when we convert them to sound more natural in another. The orthographic interference includes the spelling of one language altering another.

The most common source of errors is appeared in the process of FLL because of the native tongue; but interference may occur in other contact situations (as multilingualism). In learning L1 certain habits of perceiving and performing have to be established and the old habits tend to intrude and interfere with the learning, so that a student may speak L2 (or FL) with the intonation of his L1 or the word order of his L1 and so on.



Moreover, during intercultural communication misunderstanding, attribution can appear. That's why we can distinguish the intercultural interference because of individual's two cognitive bases occurring.

By the intercultural interference we understand the result of conflict interaction of different cognitive bases, where a non-native speaker transfers home cultural patterns into FL discourse so it influences the goal-achievement and mutual understanding in the interaction.

G. Makhkamova (2011) in her thesis paper described the phenomenon of intercultural interference which can appear in the communication

**Intercultural interference can appear if:**

	Forms are similar but meanings and distributions are different
	Forms and meanings are similar but difference is in distribution
	Forms and distributions are similar, difference is in meaning
	Distributions and meanings are similar but difference is in forms
	Similar meanings but forms and distributions are different.
	Gender specificity of linguistic items and communicative style.
	Lacunae in one of the languages



- What is interference?
- What are their types?
- Why should you know about interference in FLT?
- Why is transposition considered to be positive?

### 3. The interlanguage code

Teaching/learning FL presupposes acquiring “interlanguage” because the language experience combines two languages that follow the forming of the mixed code. The term “interlanguage” refers to development stages involved in moving from L1 to L2/FL. Different types of errors and strategies have been identified at stages along the way. For example, learners at some levels at an early stage of their development have difficulty with sentence inversion when asking a question (e. g., they make incorrect word order in questions –*You are in the garden?*), and with the negative formation (They use incorrect form of a negative sentence – *You no in the garden*). Learners tend to vary their interlanguage.

If fossilization appears to be occurring, emphasis may need to be placed on further communicative data and on a more deliberate focus on form. If deliberate learning appears to be proceeding, but little fluency is occurring, an increase in communicative experience may be required. Students can be encouraged to monitor each other’s performances. They can learn to draw attention to what they think is a monitoring capacity, and allows them to learn from each other. The ultimate aim of peer monitoring, however, must encourage an appropriate level of self-monitoring.

Errors analysis attempts to describe learners’ interlanguage (i. e. learners’ version of the target language) independently and objectively. Most distinct feature of errors analysis is that the mother tongue is not supposed to be mentioned for comparison. The purpose of error analysis is, in fact, to find what a learner knows and does not know and to ultimately enables a teacher to supply him/her not just with the information that his/her hypothesis is wrong, but also, importantly, with the right sort of information or data for him/her to form a more adequate concept of a rule in the target language (Corder, 1974, p. 170).

In relation to the term of error, Brown (1987) defines that errors are idiosyncrasies in the interlanguage of a learner which are direct manifestation of a system within which a learner is operating. He further states that an error is noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the inter-language competence of the learner (Brown, 1987. p. 170).

Within the communicative effect, errors are classified into global and local. Burt & Kiparsky (1972) define that global errors are errors that affect an overall organization of the sentence and impede significantly a successful communication in the sense that errors cause a listener or reader to misunderstand the message or to consider the sentence incomprehensible. For example, if students say, “The French language use many students”, there are grammar errors impacted to comprehension.



- How did scholars define the term “interlanguage”?
- Why is it considered as a “mixed code”?
- Why should we be tolerant to the errors within the Communicative Language Teaching?
- How can we improve learners’ interlanguage?

#### **4. Errors taxonomies in FLT**

The errors can be classified on the basis of comparison between the structures of L2 errors and certain other types of constructions. In this classification, L2 errors have most frequently been compared to errors made by language learning, the target language as their first language and to equivalent phrases or sentences in the learner’s mother tongue.

*Surface taxonomy* (Dulay 1982:150) emphasizes the ways surface structures are changed. For example, omissions, additions, misformation and misordering error types. With regard to the surface taxonomy, students’ errors are evaluated in terms of whether they may omit necessary items or add unnecessary ones; they may misform or misorder them.

The most important errors classification is based on *linguistic category* where errors are classified in accordance with the levels of

the linguistic system structure. Language components include phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantic and lexical (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style).

One of the common difficulties in understanding the linguistic system of both L1 and L2 learners is the fact that such systems cannot be directly observed. They must be inferred by means of analyzing production and comprehension data. In analyzing the production of errors, we must have procedures to make the process of error analysis run smoothly. There are two steps of analyzing learners' errors as the identification and description of errors (See: Brown,1987:173). The identification of learners' errors is done by finding out what learners have already made, and then describing the difference among them.

There are three stages in error analysis: recognition, description, and exploitation. They are logically dependent upon each other. It is a difficult task to determine the specificity of some errors. The division between errors traceable to a particular language system does not always show a clear cut, therefore, the establishment is not easy (Jain, 1969: 190), so it is caused by methodological difficulties. The different source of errors, intralingual and developmental categories turn out to be subset of each other and error analysts continue to use them as separate error types within a single taxonomy. There is a great overlap in the two processes proposed by Selinker; overgeneralization is one of the strategies of second language learning; therefore, when one uses overgeneralization as well as strategies of second language learning as error categories, there is a great overlap because the overgeneralization of the target language rules is intra-lingual and strategies of second language learning is developmental (Dulay, 1982: 145). So, in spite of its significance, Error Analysis has its weaknesses. However, it is better than Contrastive Analysis.

Having known learners' errors, teachers should think about ways and when they should be corrected. Let's discuss some criteria of errors correction.

The most difficult challenge of language teaching is determining when not to ignore students' errors. Therefore, teachers must plan error correction strategies carefully and that one place to begin is to determine the cause of the error.

Correction of errors can be organized taking account the following four criteria (taken from: Walz, 1982: 10).

1) *Comprehensibility*. Teachers should correct errors that cause a misunderstanding or lack of comprehension. Because the main purpose of using a language is to communicate ideas, correcting for comprehensible forms is a reasonable goal. Teachers must be constantly on the look out for this type of error, particularly those who are experienced, because they have learned to understand students' interlanguage much better than a monolingual speaker of the target language.

2) *Frequency*. A frequent error is usually made on a common point of grammar, so the carryover value of learning the correct form is greater than with an isolated mistake. Some writers have suggested keeping tally sheets for written and oral errors to beginning teachers who have greater difficulty in knowing which errors are the most frequent.

3) *Pedagogical focus*. Errors in forms that students have recently learned in class should be corrected. If a class spends time studying a particular grammar feature and then an error occurs and goes uncorrected, all of the students who hear it will begin to question their own understanding of the structure. This tendency is particularly relevant in the traditional classroom where students are motivated by and concerned about tests and grades.

4) *Individual student concerns*. All good teachers get to know students and to learn who are the most sensitive to correction. More capable students can profit from corrections of minor points. Adults probably profit from correction of grammatical features more than children. Some students want to be corrected all the time, while others are more easily inhibited.

Thus, teachers must know the techniques of error correction, both in oral and written errors.





What classification of errors have you learned from the given sources?

How can we explain the precision and specificity of some errors in students' language?

What criteria are used by instructors for errors correction?

Why do teachers need to know the sources of errors of their students?

### **Follow-up activities:**

**Activity 1.** Teaching languages as L2, L3 has been organized within multididactics. The subject of this theory is investigation of optimal methods and techniques of teaching two or more language simultaneously or at the same time (Barishnikov, 2004:20).

What do we mean by *multididactics*? What are the conditions for teaching two or more languages? Create a mind-map.

The following principles are defined within multididactics: 1) integrative teaching and learning two or three languages; 2) bearing of the linguistic and learning experience in the first foreign language; 3) taking account the artificial subordinate multilingualism; 4) circumstantiality of the process of teaching and learning two or three languages; 5) cognitive direction of language teaching and learning; 6) intercultural direction of language teaching and learning (See Barishnikov, 2004:25-27).

Try to interpret these basic principles of multididactics based on your experience in learning two foreign languages.

**Activity 2.** Discuss in small groups students' errors, repetition drills, explaining grammar rules and using English in the classroom. Imagine that you are a teacher. Do you give students a chance to practice the correct forms? Think of one good student and one weaker student in the class. What do you do to improve a weak student language performance?

**Activity 3.** P. Davies and E. Pearse (2000) suggested 15 successful ways of correcting spoken errors which can be used by

any teacher during speaking classes. Read this information and classify techniques.

### **1. Collect the errors for later**

A teacher can then correct them later in the same class (with a game like a grammar auction or just eliciting corrections from the class) or in a future class (for example, writing error dictation pair-work worksheets or using the same techniques as can be used in the same class). A teacher should give positive reinforcement as well, e. g. “Someone said this sentence, and that is really good.”

Useful language:

*“Here are some things that people said in the last activity.”*

*“I heard several people say this one.”*

*“Can anyone correct this sentence? It has one missing word/ one word missing/ You need to add one word.”*

*“The words are in the wrong order/ You need to change the words around/change the word order/ mix the words up.”*

*“This is a typical mistake for students from...”*

*“Don’t worry, even native speakers make this mistake sometimes/every nationality makes this mistake.”*

*“This mistake is something we studied last week.”*

### **2. Facial expression**

For example, a teacher can raise an eyebrow, tilt head to one side or give a slight frown. Most people will do this naturally, but there is a slight chance a teacher’s expression will be too critical or too subtle for students to pick up on, and a teacher can (amusingly) practice facial expressions in a teaching workshop by participants communicating certain typical classroom messages (“move over there to work with this person”, “work in pairs” etc.) using just their heads and faces, including feedback on spoken errors in that list.

### **3. Body language**

The problems with using body language to show errors could also be that it is taken as very serious criticism or that it is too vague. Possibilities include using hands (rolling a hand from side to side to mean “so-so attempt”; making a circle by moving index finger to mean “one more time”; or a cross with fingers, open palms or even forearms to show a very clear “no” or “wrong” – probably only

suitable for a team game etc. where the responsibility is shared), head (tilted to one side to mean “I’m not sure that sounds correct”), or shoulders (hunched to reinforce “I don’t understand what you are saying”). Besides such techniques can be useful, as can eliciting other body language teachers could have used after an observation.

#### **4. Point at the correct language**

If a teacher has something in the correct form easily accessible on the whiteboard, in the textbook or on a poster, just pointing at it can be a subtle but clear way of prompting students to use the correct language. What a teacher points at could be the name of the tense or word form they are supposed to be using, a verb forms table or the actual correct verb form, a grammatical explanation, or another grammatical hint such as “future”, “prediction” or “polite”.

Useful language: “*Have a look at your books/ the board.*” “*You copied this down earlier. Have a look in your notebooks.*”

#### **5. Repeat what they said**

This can mean repeating the whole sentence, one section of it including the wrong part, the sentence up to the wrong part, the sentence with the wrong part missed out (with maybe a humming noise to show the gap that should be filled) or just the wrong part. A teacher can illustrate that he/she is showing them an error and give some hint as to which bit is wrong by using a questioning tone. This method is overused by some teachers and can sound as patronizing if used too often or with the wrong tone of voice, so try to mix up the different versions of it described here and to alternate with methods described in the other tips.

Useful language: “*The man GOED to the shops?*”  
“*The man GOED?*” “*GOED?*”

#### **6. Just say the right version**

Students can then repeat the correct version or tell you what the difference between the two sentences was and why their version was wrong. Because the students don’t do much of the work in this way of being corrected, it may not be as good a way of remembering the correction as methods where you give more subtle clues. Its advantages are that it is quick and suits cultures, classes and students that think of elicitation as shirking by a teacher. It can also be more

face-saving than asking them for self-correction, as trying to correct themselves risks making even more mistakes. The “right version” could mean the whole sentence or just the correction of the part that was wrong. In the latter case, a teacher can then ask them to put it into the sentence in the right place and repeat the whole thing.

Useful language: *“I understand what you are saying, but you need to say...”*

*“We studied this last week. “Hardly” has a different meaning to “hard”, so you need to say...?”*

*“The past of say is pronounced /sed/. So your sentence should be...?”*

### **7. Tell them how many mistakes**

This method is only really suitable for controlled speaking practice, but can be a very simple way of giving feedback in that situation. Examples include “Most of the comparatives were right, but you made two mistakes” and “Three words are in the wrong position in the sentence/ are mixed up”. Teachers only use this method when students can remember what a teacher is referring to without too much prompting. Other useful language: *“Very good, but you made just one mistake with the passive”*.

*(For a tongue twister) “Good attempt/ Getting better, but in two places you said /sh/ where it should have been /s/. Can you guess which words?”*

### **8. Use grammatical terminology to identify the mistake**

For example, “(You used) the wrong tense”, “Not the Present Perfect”, “You need an adverb, not an adjective” or “Can change that into the passive/indirect speech?” This method is perhaps overused, and teachers need to be sure that the grammatical terminology isn’t just going to confuse them more.

Other useful language: *“Because that is the present simple, you need to add the auxiliary (verb) ‘do’”*. *“Say the same sentence, but with the comparative form”*.

### **9. Give the rule**

For example, “‘Since’ usually takes the Present Perfect” or “One syllable adjectives make the comparative with *-er*, not more +

adjective” This works best if they already know the rule, and a teacher at least needs to make sure that they will quickly understand what he/she is saying, for example, by only using grammatical terminology that a teacher has used with them several times before.

#### ***10. Give a number of points***

This is probably the best saved for part of a game, especially one where students work together, but a teacher can give each response a number of points out of 10. The same or other teams can then make another attempt at saying the same thing to see if they can get more points. If teachers don’t want students to focus on accuracy too much, it is better to tell them that the points will also give them credit for good pronunciation, fluency, politeness, persuasiveness and/or originality of ideas.

Useful language: *“Very good fluency and very interesting, but a few basic mistakes, so I’ll give your team a score of . . . . Practice your script in your team again for 5 minutes and we’ll try it one more time”*

*“You got all the articles right this time, so I’ll give you 9 out of 10”.*

#### ***11. Just tell them they are wrong***

Positive ways of being negative include “nearly there”, “getting closer”, “just one mistake”, “much better”, “good idea, but...”, “I understand what you mean but...”, “you have made a mistake that almost everyone does/ that’s a very common mistake”, “we haven’t studied this yet, but...” and “much better pronunciation, but...” With lower level and new classes, a teacher might have to balance the need to be nice with the need to be clear and not confuse them with feedback language that they don’t understand, perhaps by sticking to one or two phrases to give feedback for the first couple of months. It can also be useful to give them translations of this and other classroom language which will be used, for example, on a worksheet or a poster.

#### ***12. Tell them what part they should change***

For example, “You need to change the introduction to your presentation” or “Try replacing the third word with something else”.

#### ***13. Ask partners to spot errors***

This is a fairly well-known way of giving feedback in speaking tasks, but it can be a minefield if the person giving feedback has no confidence in their ability to do so or in how well the feedback (i. e. criticism) will be taken, and even more so if the person receiving the feedback will in fact react badly. This method is easier to do and easier to take when they have been told specifically which language to use while speaking and so to look out for when listening, usually meaning controlled speaking practice tasks. The feedback can be made even simpler to give and collect and more neutral with some careful planning, e. g. asking them count how many times their partner uses the target form as well as or instead of looking for when it used incorrectly.

**14. Try again!**

Sometimes students don't need much help at all but just a chance to do it again. This is likely to be true if you have trained them well in spotting their own errors, if there was some other kind of mental load such as a puzzle to solve that was distracting them from the language, or if they have had a chance to hear someone else doing the same speaking task in the class or on a recording.

Useful language: *“One more time (but think about the grammar more this time/ but concentrating on making less mistakes instead of speaking quickly)”*. *“Give it another go”*. *“Do you want one more chance before you get the final score?”*

**15. Remind them when you studied that point**

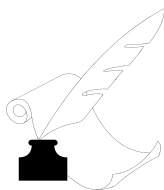
For example, “Nearly right, but you’ve forgotten the grammar that we studied last week” or “You’ve made the same mistake as everyone made in the last test”.

**Activity 4.**

A. Study the chart and decide what techniques for remedial activity you can use for accuracy and fluency correction

Accuracy	Fluency
Vocabulary	Appropriateness
Grammar	Coherent
Pronunciation	Cohesion
Word order	

	Turn-taking Interrupting Sustaining Filler phrases Starting/finishing conversation
<p><b>Aims:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- To present new material</li> <li>- To provide controlled practice</li> <li>- To consolidate it</li> <li>- To integrate new and old language</li> <li>- To reactivate/revise known language</li> </ul>	<p><b>Aims:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- To provide practice in the selection of appropriate language</li> <li>- To provide practice in unpredictability</li> <li>- To provide practice in using language to fulfill objectives</li> </ul>



B. Observe the lesson and write a report (250 words) about errors correction work which was used by a teacher during his/her lesson.

Try to reflect the controlled practice of a teacher.

C. Organize interview with any group of students and ask them about their attitude to the errors correction. Write their commentaries and present to your group.

### **Key reading:**

1. Jalolov J. J. Makhkamova G. T., Ashurov Sh. S. English Language Teaching Methodology. (Theory and Practice). –T.: Fan va texnologiya, 2015.

2. Makhkamova G. T., Alimov Ah. S., Ziyayev A. L. Innovative pedagogical technologies in the English language teaching. –Tashkent: Fan va texnologiya, 2017. Pp. 174-180.

3. Standard M. D. Language interference. //Posted on April 2, 2013.

4. Мильруд Р. П., Кондакова Н. Н. Теория ошибок в методике обучения иностранному языку//cyberilninka. ru.

## **THEME 6. FEATURES AND FORMS OF TEACHING SPECIAL SUBJECTS AT THE HIGHER LEVEL OF EDUCATION**

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**Objectives of the lecture** are to enlarge knowledge about features of teaching language as specialty and for specialty, to familiarize with the forms of teaching special subjects.

**Learning outcomes of the lecture:** By the end of the lecture students will be able to:

- identify the purpose and specificity of theoretical and practical lessons as well as scientific work;
- identify the different types and forms of the courses and lessons;
- understand the value of independent work and ways of its organization;
- formulate instructions and proposals;
- recognize the specificity of teaching adults.

### **Questions to be discussed:**

1. Teaching language as specialty and types of the lessons.
2. Independent and laboratory work at the higher educational establishments.
3. Integrated courses.
4. Forms of teaching.

### **Spark:**

Discuss in the group the specificity of teaching at the higher educational level.

### **Input material:**

#### **1. Teaching language as specialty and types of the lessons**

At linguistic universities FL is a specialty, so it is a base of students' future vocational activity. According to the State Educational Standard graduates of linguistic universities can work as teachers, translators, editors. These types of professional activity demand acquiring a high level of language proficiency as C1. The final purpose of study at linguistic institutes and universities is



acquiring norms of FL in oral and written speech and obtaining the theoretical knowledge in linguistics for professional and other practical aims. In other words the future specialists of FL should become masters in language performance and knowledge about the language itself. That's why, students study languages as specialty through the theoretical and practical courses.

The cycle of theoretical subjects includes Lexicology, History of language, Theoretical grammar, Theoretical phonetics, Stylistics, Theory of translation and other professionally-oriented courses. The destination of these subjects is learning knowledge about the theory of language, cultivating research skills, creating of scientific basis for deep and wide practical learning FL. Theoretical courses can be compulsory/obligatory and elective. They are conducted as lectures, seminars or practical lessons, writing course projects (works) and a qualification paper.

Lectures and seminars introduce into the theory and history of language, give information about topical issues, current achievements, and acquaint with reference books. Theoretical courses must develop scientific thinking and be the basis of students' specialization in some sphere of linguistics or methodology of FLT, or literature-study. Elective and course papers contribute to their efficacy. The qualification paper (so-called a diploma work) focuses on the specialization in the chosen scientific area or topic. The scientific work allows learning linguistic material in order to become a master of joining theory with practice, i. e. to apply theoretical material and develop skills of self-study. Students should participate in students' scientific seminars and conferences with own reports and publish articles. All subjects as a system contribute to theoretical and practical professional training. Theoretical courses generalize and systematize practical knowledge of students and are the basis of their further extending.

Such direction for acquiring language as specialty makes the content and organization of teaching process at linguistic universities. FL is an instrument and object of pedagogical and translating activities, that's why theoretical knowledge and research skills are necessary for them. The content of practical courses at the linguistic universities includes different types of activity for oral and

written speech development. Each type of speech activity demands for specific ways and techniques of lesson organization owing to aspect/module teaching.



What do we mean teaching language *as specialty* and *for specialty*?

What are features of training FL specialists?

What kind of courses do we distinguish at linguistic universities?

Why does a scientific work play an important role in training FL specialists?

How can we integrate theory and practice in training FL specialists?

## **2. Independent and laboratory work at the higher educational establishments**

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 a teacher and run through teaching material and monitoring by a teacher (distance learning). Independent work is an important part in ELT, because 30 % of teaching and learning time is given to independent work. So a 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 forms. 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.

Without doubt 'good language learners' try to facilitate their learning and identify some of their learning strategies, the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge. A

teacher's job is not only to teach EL, but to teach learning, because students need training in learning strategies.

When we teach English to adults, we deal with individuals who, to a greater or lesser degree, have a set of study skills, acquired in their previous schooling. At the very least, they possess writing, summarizing, and note-taking skills. They know perfectly well what it's like to attend classes, and the greater their commitment to their learning, the more organized they are, and the more skills they are willing to deploy.

To take advantage of students' previously acquired study skills ask them to produce a summary of a video seen in class, or a reading assignment. Encourage them to prepare charts or graphs. Feel free to assign more challenging types of homework assignments, not necessarily more time-consuming, as most adult learners don't have a great deal of free time at their disposal, but they may handle more mentally-challenging exercises. They may even make a Power Point presentation for their final examination. Never underestimate them.

The aim of a teacher in the field of independent study 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 results. That's why an independent work shapes as a 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 learners' 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. A teacher promotes autonomous behavior by suggesting curricular and extracurricular activities, focusing first on those that students are already engaged

in. For example, a 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.

For development of students' independent learning it is necessary:

- 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 tasks to overcome the difficulties;
- to provide the appropriate conditions for tasks 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, pair work, small group work and work with the whole class. These organizational forms call upon to create and develop a set of organizational, information, cognitive and communicative skills which provide moving to language proficiency and learning strategies in integrative way.

Within a practical course some elements of lectures, as delivering of information to students, can be used. Learners must acquire knowledge and information (input) to reproduce and produce them in a new context (output). Students obtain knowledge and information from texts, rules and a teacher's speech.

**Laboratory work** is another form of organizing a practical lesson. It is organized in a specially equipped room or in the reading hall independently according to teachers' instructions. The aim of

laboratory work is development of research skills and experimentation; on the basis of a certain topic this kind of work leads to deep studying, independent understanding and generalization of the material. In general, during laboratory work we can:

- fix, enlarge and deepen knowledge on the topical matters, develop perception and productive skills;
- cultivate self-study skills for working with teaching, reference and scientific literature;
- become familiar with research methods and with the ways of their practical realization

Thus laboratory work is usually organized with technical tools including information-communication technologies which are singled out into separate types of lessons and can be considered as independent study.



What features of independent work did you reveal?

Why has the self-study become so important nowadays?

Do you have laboratory work at your institution?  
How is it organized?

### 3. Integrated courses

The last one is **integrated course** which helps to develop the whole picture via cognition and communication within integrated subjects taking into consideration their relationship and interrelations. Complex approach to organization of integrated courses in the classroom allows revealing and developing a circle of concepts and skills which are common for different subjects. For example: FL and literature, FL and ecology, FL and history.

Moreover the integrated approach to the FLT is usually used where one of the language skills is integrated with other skills, as well as approaches can be integrated. For example, “variety of listening approaches are used: a discrete-item-based approach when listening for the sounds or words; a grammar-based approach when completing close sentences or paragraphs; task-based approach when all the exercises are built on one another around a similar topic; and

a strategy-based approach when asking students to think about how they listen and to generate hints on how to listen” (Flowerdew & L. Miller, 2013, p. 19).

Most combinations of skills exemplify the usefulness of presenting a receptive-interpretative skill before asking students to produce something, that is to say, providing "comprehensible input" before asking students for any "output". In this sense, it is advisable for listening to precede speaking or reading to precede writing.

The educators suggest some appropriate combinations of two skills:

- Listening and speaking
- Listening and reading
- Reading and writing
- Speaking and writing
- Listening and writing.



The current models of integrated teaching of the four language skills have the objective of developing learners' fluency and accuracy, as well as their socio-cultural or intercultural communicative competence requiring adapting the language from context to context and from genre to genre.

In light of the fact that the present time English is widely employed as the medium of international communication, it seems easy to predict that integrated language teaching will continue to dominate among the various types of pedagogical models. There is little doubt, however, that the evolution and change of integrated teaching models and methods will remain one of the main – if not the main – defining characteristic of language teaching around the world.

Let's explore the content of the *Table 10* to understand the main components of teaching and learning models.

**Table 10. The main components of various models of teaching and learning** (based on Carrol, 1963 & Slavin, 1984).

<b>Input from a teacher and environment</b>	<b>Input from students</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Construction of knowledge in a particular subject</li> <li>– Taking place in a social learning environment</li> <li>– Continuous monitoring and assessment of learning</li> <li>– Opportunity to learn (incentive and time allocated for learning)</li> <li>– Quality and levels of instruction</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– General ability and aptitude</li> <li>– Prior knowledge</li> <li>– Motivation to learn</li> </ul>

As we noticed there are differences between input from the position of learners and teachers which must be taken into consideration in constructing syllabuses. Although students may have the initial motivation to enroll in classes, it may vanish into thin air if they suddenly face activities and tasks that don't inspire them to learn. To effectively motivate them, simply consider their goals. Teachers need plan activities that specifically cater to the goal of their future vocation, like job interviews, specialty realia, or business e-mail writing, as well as a variety of activities that will keep them engaged, like videos, games, or even field trips.



- What do we mean by integrated courses or programs?
- What are advantages of integrated courses for professional development?
- How can we integrate language skills?
- Do you have an integrated skills subject at you institute or university?

#### **4. Forms of teaching**

There are individual, pair, and group work. In a pair, the atmosphere tends to more protective and private than in a group. Students often feel less inhibited in a pair, and they can talk about more personal feelings or experiences than they would even do in a

small group. Pairs seem to be more conducive to cooperation and collaboration, while groups tend to be more conducive to (friendly) disagreement and discussion. A lively discussion often depends on an exchange of different ideas and a certain amount of conflict – if everyone agrees with everyone, there may not be much of a discussion.

It is time to discuss interaction forms of teaching and learning. In the *Table 11* below the model of classroom interaction is presented to understand the form of interactions between learners and a teacher.

*Table 11. A model of classroom interaction*

<b>Teacher</b>	<b>Student</b>
<p>a) <b>Accepts feeling:</b> Feelings may be positive or negative and their production and recalling are included.</p> <p>b) <b>Praises or encourages:</b> this includes telling jokes, nodding head or using phrases like ‘Go on’.</p> <p>c) <b>Accepts or uses ideas of students:</b> a teacher clarifies or develops students’ ideas.</p> <p>d) <b>Asks questions:</b> Questions may be about content or procedure.</p> <p>e) <b>Lectures:</b> Gives facts or opinions about the content or procedure.</p> <p>f) <b>Gives directions,</b> commands or orders.</p> <p>g) <b>Criticizes or justifies authority:</b> E. g. statements intended to change student’s behavior.</p>	<p>a) <b>Response:</b> A teacher initiates interaction. Freedom to express own ideas is limited.</p> <p>b) <b>Initiation:</b> Students express their own ideas, initiate a topic.</p> <p>c) <b>Silence or confusion:</b> Pauses, short periods of silence, confusion and incomprehension.</p>

The analysis of the classroom interaction is demonstrated in the *Table 12* on the basis of the English classroom as a practical course.



**Table 12. Classroom interaction**

<b>The whole-class activities</b>	
<b>Accuracy</b>	<b>Fluency</b>
<p><b>A.</b> Activities are focused on accuracy. They are controlled by a teacher and done with the whole class. Drills and traditional language games are most present here:</p> <p><i>Drills</i></p> <p><i>Games</i></p> <p><i>Controlled conversation</i></p> <p><i>Listening</i></p> <p><i>Writing</i></p>	<p><b>C.</b> Activities focus on fluency. However, they are controlled by a teacher and done with the whole class. The whole-class discussion and story-telling, some of them are:</p> <p><i>Conversation</i></p> <p><i>Discussion</i></p> <p><i>Simulation</i></p> <p><i>Games</i></p> <p><i>Story telling</i></p> <p><i>Listening</i></p> <p><i>Writing</i></p>
<p><b>B.</b> Activities are focused on correct use of the language, but they are directed by learners and done in pairs or groups (mini-dialogue):</p> <p><i>Exercises</i></p> <p><i>Controlled conversation</i></p> <p><i>Role play</i></p> <p><i>Games</i></p> <p><i>Questionnaires</i></p> <p><i>Listening</i></p> <p><i>Writing</i></p>	<p><b>D.</b> Activities are directed to fluency and directed to learners and done in pair-work and group work. They present the least controlled type of classroom interaction:</p> <p><i>Discussion</i></p> <p><i>Games</i></p> <p><i>Role-play</i></p> <p><i>Project work</i></p> <p><i>Listening</i></p> <p><i>Reading</i></p> <p><i>Writing</i></p>
<p><b>Pair work ↔ Group work</b></p> <p><b>Learner-directed</b></p>	

The role of a teacher varies in each type from instructor (A type) to a consultant (D type).

Present time the more preferences are given to the group work to involve all students into the teaching process.



What forms of lessons do you know?

Why is a group work more successful than an individual one?

Why should a teacher organize a learner-directed work?

### Follow-up activities:

**Activity 1.** Watch the video (<http://yandex.ru/video/search?filmId=qhsqIJJdUXI&text=teaching%20english%20to%20adults>) and answer the questions:

- What are the main ideas of teaching adults?
- Why is it difficult for adults to learn English?
- What is the best way to teach adults?

Write down a review paper how to organize the process of teaching English to adults.



**Activity 2.** Imagine you have the first lesson with a group of adults. You know their cognitive abilities. Design a speaking lesson plan. By the help of a teacher students can apply a number of communicative strategies to overcome communication difficulties. Focus on teaching achievement and reduction strategies which compensate for a problem of expression. The given information below will help you.

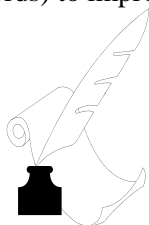
*Achievement strategies:* guessing, paraphrase, co-operative strategies.

*Reduction strategies:* avoidance strategies, e. g. phonetic, grammatical or lexical problems.

**Activity 3.** The following challenges can be raised by the program constructors or administrators if we say about materials:

- Limited resources to support language teaching curricula and instruction

- Limited profession-specific resources
- Lack of correlation between ready-made materials and the specific outcomes identified within the curriculum
  - Lack of textbooks and other published learning materials that include Uzbekistan and multicultural content
  - Limited funding to support training initiatives for learners and instructors to effectively use educational technologies (including technology-based materials and resources) Write a proposal (1000 words) to improve a situation.



#### **Activity 4.**

A. Read information about selection of the material which provides authentic, contextualized uses of language (taken from the Internet source: ATESL Adult ESL Curriculum Framework. Selecting Materials and Methods. Section 4: Selecting Methods and Materials. <http://www.atesldocuments.com/cf/sites/default/files/downloads/Introduction.pdf>) and reflect on the questions given after text.

Authentic materials are materials that are not written or spoken for language teaching purposes. However, it is recognized that materials used in ESL classes may be modified by simplification, elaboration or reformulation while retaining the natural properties of authentic material. The following are some of the advantages of including authentic or “authentic-like” materials in the EL curriculum:

- Learners become familiar with language forms and functions, genres, and language varieties (e. g., dialect, register) used in real-world contexts. For example, some features of natural speech, including pauses and fillers, are generally not presented in published materials (e. g., textbooks).
- Learners’ confidence for communicating in real-world contexts increases when they have time to build and practice their language skills and knowledge using authentic materials in the language classroom.

- Learners recognize the relevance of instruction because they see that what they are learning will help them achieve their communicative goals outside the classroom.

The goal is to select materials that align with curricular outcomes and tasks while also attending to the learners' real world needs, interests, and future goals. Using authentic materials that are typically found within particular communicative contexts will serve to connect language with learners' goals. For example, authentic materials that support language development may include grocery, furniture, and hardware store advertisements; application forms (e. g., employment, driver's license, credit card); postal and courier forms; video clips; and listening materials such as webcasts, radio or educational podcasts. When curriculum developers are able to select relevant authentic materials that connect to learners' real world needs, interests and future goals, programs are better able to provide effective and responsive learning experiences.

### **Questions:**

What is the value of the authentic materials using?

What do we mean by the real-life context?

What authentic material can we use at the English language classrooms?

What difficulties students face when they work with authentic materials?

B. Define a list of criteria whether the materials you are going to select, or create, or adapt can support the development of learners' English language proficiency for effective communication in real-world situations.

### **Key reading:**

1. Harits Masduqi. Integrating Receptive Skills and Productive Skills into a Reading Lesson. // TEFL Lecture Series. 2009. June 12.

2. Harmer J. The practice of the English language teaching. – Longman, 2009. [http://www. ehow. com/how\\_4472325\\_teach-english-adults. html](http://www. ehow. com/how_4472325_teach-english-adults. html).

3. "Integrating the four skills". <http://www. slideshare. net/teacheryamith/integrating-the-four-skills-brown-2007?related=1>

4. [http://mcu.edu.tw/~vedrash/Research/Present/ELC\\_Curriculum/syllabusTypes.htm](http://mcu.edu.tw/~vedrash/Research/Present/ELC_Curriculum/syllabusTypes.htm) Teaching adults.  
<http://busyteacher.org/3643-teaching-adults.html>

5. Бородулина М. К. и другие. Обучение иностранному языку как специальности. –М.: Высшая школа, 1982.

## **THEME 7. TEACHING THEORETICAL COURSES AT LINGUISTIC HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS**

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**Objectives of the lecture** are to familiarize with the ways of organization of theoretical courses at linguistic higher educational institutions.

**Learning outcomes of the lecture:** By the end of the lesson students will be able to

- understand a complex character of the theoretical courses;
- identify different types and forms of lectures;
- design lectures and seminars using modern technologies;
- organize independent and laboratory work on theoretical subjects;
- teach the course of “Methodology of FLT” at the BA departments;
- observe, analyze and evaluate lecture courses and course-books using the given criteria.

### **Questions to be discussed:**

1. Principles and methods of teaching theoretical courses.
2. Material of theoretical subjects.
3. Lecture and its types.
4. Projecting the lecture course.
5. Course “Methodology of teaching FL”.

### **Spark:**

Make clustering of the concept of “theoretical courses” at linguistic universities and institutes.

**Input material:**

**1. Principles and methods of teaching theoretical courses**

Teaching theoretical courses, related to language as specialty at the higher level of education, has own specific differences in the context of goals, content and methodology.



Teaching process at the higher educational establishments is organized on the basis of the following principles described by S. I. Arkhangelskiy (1980:59-78)

<b>Principles</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>
<b>Cognition</b>	The teaching process is dealt with as a complex and discrepant one, usually gone from not knowing to knowing, from not full knowledge to full knowledge, from cognition of phenomena to cognition of their essence, inner conformity with a law and relationships, directions and trends of knowledge development. This principle gives an opportunity to evaluate and provide cognition process in research doing.
<b>Objectivity</b>	It deals with existence of objective reality, things and subjective relationships, which influence us and allow studying their properties, ways and forms of their development, their interaction and mutual influences.
<b>Integrity of theory and practice</b>	Studies indissolubility and continuity of theory and practice, evaluates practice as source, goal and criterion of truth and scientific cognition as one of the means of progressive modification of reality. Integrity of theory and practice is the key assumption of teaching disciplines of specialty because practical activity of specialists is defined with increasing role of scientific theory. In this case practice is reflection and incarnation of theory.

<b>Principles</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>
<b>Determinism</b>	Expresses the definiteness, initial basis, clearness and justification of all changes in constructing and developing the teaching process within a theoretical course. This principle allows establishing or revealing cause and effect and relationships between building elements to use information-processing and statistic data.
<b>Historical and dialectic development</b>	Connects logically and historically all stages and continuity of development of facts and events, theoretical assumptions into a natural scientific system. This principle analyzes relationships between past, present and future perspectives. Historical perspective expresses originality and development of forms, means, methods, assumptions, conceptions, but logical perspective is understood as evaluation and justification of this origin and development.
<b>Systemacy</b>	Teaching process is a complex system operating of information-processing and communication-driven data which includes information components, means of teaching and methods of teaching. Information field of teaching process determines content of teaching theory which is expressed by a system of the didactic and other related to teaching concepts.
<b>Scientific</b>	It means that all presented information must correlate with progressive science achievements and future perspectives.

In teaching and research activity at the level of the higher education teachers use new forms and methods of teaching. Because teaching is a cognitive process we should present the methods of cognitive activity organization at higher schools:

**Analysis and synthesis** of events that enables to study, explore, evaluate a subject or thing through distribution operation. Teaching and research are the processes of studying relationships of and attitudes to components/elements and exploring the whole item through its components or related items.

**Deduction** – on the basis of the obtained knowledge the new one is defined about subject or thing or group of things, which have the

common properties. This method is successful when the particular action, inference, definition concluding from the general rule, axiom, assumption and be as an effect of the particular take place.

**Hypothetical-deductive method** – during scientific research or justifications first supposition is appeared which then is justified deductively.

**Induction** – the general rules or assumptions are inferred on the basis of studying peculiarities of some things. With the help of induction in the teaching process the cognitive activity is going from single to general judgment. This method is related to evaluation and comparison of facts, things, and events.

**Traduction** – when judgments and inferences in a certain degree of generality are applied to new knowledge. Traduction allows defining some definitions on the similar subjects.

**Abstraction** – mental distraction of some indicators or features of some subjects/ objects with the aim of deepen exploring it or creation of ideal object.

**Concretization** is mental process of an event/fact reconstruction on the basis of made before abstractions.

**Modeling** – establishment of something like or relevant to an event/thing, transformation of simple on the complex, transmitting characteristics of some object on the other one.



What are the principles applied for organization of teaching theoretical courses and research activity at higher schools?

What methods are usually used for teaching theoretical courses and research activity?

Can we organize teaching theoretical courses on the basis of Communicative Language Learning?

## 2. Material of theoretical subjects

The selection of the subjects for qualified training of specialists of FL depends on the professionally-oriented skills development and types of their professional activity. Besides for professionally-



oriented subject it is necessary to define the content of teaching due to the principle of scientific material selection.



The sense of its application is justification of ways of selection qualitative and quantitative content of a discipline. By the qualitative features we understand everything that expresses the deep scientific penetration, exactness, validity, learnability and repeatability, logical proportion and clarity of the material.

Quantitative features express a quantity of information which is enough to characterize the facts, objects or events. The whole science can't be included into the theoretical discipline so only its key aspects should be presented in the discipline, in particular, as shown in the *Table 13*.

**Table 13. Material of theoretical subjects**

<b>Factual material</b>	<b>Theoretical material</b>	<b>Methodological material</b>
1. Terms (scientific apparatus): -widely used; - called for explanation; - called for definition because they are new terms. 2. Concepts (conceptual apparatus): - key; - basic (which can help to understand key ones); - additional.	1. Characteristics of laws, regulations and norms, their cause and effects. 2. Reflection of main theories, conceptions, hypothesizes. 3. Characteristics of important ideas and perspectives.	1. Approaches. 2. Principles. 3. Research methods. 4. Units and sources of the research, analysis.
<b><i>Pedagogical material</i></b>		

<b>Bringing up (cultural) material</b>	<b>Didactic material</b>	<b>Reference-oriented material</b>
1. Materials for forming emotional-valuable attitude to the world. 2. World outlook and ideological generalization and appreciation. 3. Characteristics of ideological, moral, esthetical norms, which are necessary for future activity.	1. Receptive material intended to mastering material, instructions, illustrative means (verbal and visual). 2. Reproductive material is directed to its recording, tasks for reproduction. 3. Productive (creative): using the obtained knowledge in other types of activity; research assignments (analysis, comparison, contrast, finding analogue, problem-solving, decision-making, associations-building).	1. Material oriented to the structure and content of course-books: preface, contents, and introduction. 2. Reference material: reference, index, glossary, and appendix.

As we see the content of teaching theoretical disciplines consists of not only, for example, linguistic material but also pedagogical material which has three dimensions, valuable for acquiring and training novel knowledge and skills.

Teaching special theoretical courses must be based on dealing with the core of this subject, its results, inferences as laws and theories, gnosiological (epistemological) relation between objective world and practice. Synthesis of understanding a phenomenon or fact or event and methods of its realization or application in the practice means the required qualification of the FL specialists, in other words, acquiring scientific knowledge and skills for operation with them.



What types of material should you select for organizing a lecture course?

Why do we need to acquire the methodological

material within a lecture course?

Can you give examples of cultural material within a lexicology course?

How do you interpret didactic material? Give your examples.

### 3. Lecture and its types

**Lecture** is oriented at imparting theoretical knowledge and it is good for delivering information to a large number of students simultaneously and increasingly. A traditional lecture is a long way from the sort of active learning that is generally seen as being beneficial. In recent years, increasing number of students and new learning technologies have created a new set of pressures on, and possibilities for, the lecture.

Bringing all students together in one place for lectures can be a good way of providing, a sort of, shared experiences that can help build a sense of belonging. Introducing more interactive elements to lectures makes these links between students stronger. It is important to focus on what students need to know at their stage, rather than everything the lecturer knows about the topic. Note-taking learning outcomes for a lecture can help to keep attention on the essentials while planning the content and may help teachers to choose activities to informally assess students' learning during the lecture.



An enthusiastic lecturer can inspire students to want to learn about the topic. Students are likely to be even more enthusiastic if they see the subject as something that relates to their life and academic experience and that they can actually get involved with themselves; so activities that engage students with current affairs, or real life questions will make a subject more relevant and interesting.

As practitioners view, a lecturer is in a good position to give students an understanding of what it means to “do” their particular discipline; to demonstrate, the disciplinary approach by using

appropriate short activities, such as asking students to compare notes or ask questions amongst themselves.

At the lecture courses a personal learning experience captures in notes. Many people see note-taking as the most important activity that students engage in during lectures but too often the process is quite passive with lots of writing going on but not much thinking. If teachers expect students to take notes, it is worth introducing short activities to illustrate note-making rather than coping slides. The lecturers can help students to structure their notes and have more time to engage with lecturers' presentation by providing (in advance) skeleton handouts/gapped handouts.

There are different types and forms of lectures which are given in the *Table 14*.

**Table 14. Types and forms of lectures**

<b>Types</b>	<b>Forms</b>
Introductory lecture Informative lecture Review lecture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Problem-solving lecture</li> <li>– Discussion-lecture</li> <li>– Visualization-lecture</li> <li>– Slide-lecture</li> <li>– Analytical lecture</li> <li>– Instruction lecture</li> <li>– Press-conference lecture</li> <li>– Lecture with the planned in advance mistakes</li> <li>– Video-lecture</li> <li>– Multimedia lecture</li> </ul>

Nowadays all types and forms of the presented lectures are used by lecturers and many of them are considered as modern with using educational technologies. Let's study the lectures in the *Table 15* organized with the help of computer technologies in detail because it is an innovation in our educational conditions and are very topical nowadays.

**Table 15. Forms of lectures with using computer technologies**

<p><b>1. Video-lecture.</b> Teacher's lecture is recorded on videotape. Through the method of non-linear editing, it can be supplemented by multimedia applications that use given lectures. Also, supplements not only enrich the content of the lecture, but also makes its presentation more lively and attractive to the course participants. The apparent advantage of this method of presentation of theoretical material is the ability to listen to a lecture at any time, constantly referring to the most difficult moments.</p>
<p><b>2. Multimedia-lecture</b> For independent work on lecture material, it can be developed as interactive computer training programs. This is a tutorial where the theoretical material through the use of multimedia tools is structured so that each student can choose the optimal way of learning, convenient work on the courses and the most appropriate way of psycho-physiological features of its perception. Teaching effect in such programs is achieved by not only the content and friendly interface, but the use of testing programs, allowing students to assess the degree of assimilation out of the theoretical study material.</p>
<p><b>3. Traditional analogous educational programs:</b> electronic texts of lectures, reference notes, manuals for the study of theoretical material, and so on.</p>

A lecture course is based on the concrete approaches, methods, principles within a certain theoretical discipline. For example, cognitive, linguocultural, structural-functional, communicative, ethnographical, retrospective approaches, linguopragmatic, etc.

A lecture course should 1) contain definitions of language and culture phenomena; 2) put the backgrounds for understanding language and culture facts, language and socio-cultural norms, conventions; 3) be base for pragmatic aims.



- What types of lectures are presented?
- What forms of lectures are usually used at your experience of study at the higher institution?
- What are differences between a video –lecture and a multimedia lecture?

#### **4. Projecting the lecture course**

To structure the content of teaching material the following principles are used by a lecture course designer:

- Unity of content and ways of organization for learning knowledge;
- Taking into account psychological laws and regulations in perception and understanding of novel information;
- Systemizing and succession of delivering material;
- Simplicity and accessibility of information;
- Integration of interdisciplinary knowledge and differentiation of special information.

Algorithm of projecting a lecture course is given in the *Table 16*.

***Table 16. Algorithm of projecting a lecture course***

1.	To identify the teaching principles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- systemacy;</li> <li>- information value;</li> <li>- visualization;</li> <li>- simplicity and visuality.</li> </ul>
2.	To identify the principles of material selection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- thematic organization;</li> <li>- problem presence and novelty;</li> <li>- scientific character;</li> <li>- professional orientation;</li> <li>- developmental principle.</li> </ul>
3.	To identify a structure of the lecture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- theme;</li> <li>- goal and objectives;</li> <li>- learning outcomes;</li> <li>- questions for discussion (plan);</li> <li>- key words;</li> <li>- text of the lecture in accordance with the plan;</li> <li>- questions for assessment;</li> <li>- tasks for independent work;</li> <li>- recommended literature.</li> </ul> <p>Or:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- theme;</li> <li>- goal and objectives;</li> <li>- learning outcomes;</li> <li>- tools;</li> <li>- introduction;</li> <li>- the main body;</li> </ul>

		- conclusion.
4.	To identify the list of recommended literature	- basic; - additional.
5.	To determine the ways of lecture fixation	- written text; - compendium, taking-note; - plan of the lecture.
6.	To identify the main rules, methods and techniques for working with students	- problem-solving; - heuristic method; - analytical conversation - case-study; - brainstorming; - clustering; - method of visualization; - method of associative links.

Seminars propose a brief description of the theoretical matters and practical assignments for application theory in practice. The sequence of steps for designing a seminar is presented as following:

- theme;
- goal and objectives of the seminar;
- learning outcomes of the lesson;
- tools;
- introduction;
- the main body: I – Brief presentation of theoretical topics on the basis of lecture; II – practical activities;
- conclusion.

While projecting a lecture course a teacher should also start with the questions given below:

1. What didactic principles can be used for structuring the teaching process (conceptual aspect)?

2. What knowledge and skills will students acquire? What language and culture phenomena, facts, theories, assumptions will students come to know? (a goal, objectives, content of teaching)?

3. How will you put the teaching material to make logical sequentially? How can you achieve the determined before purposes? (Will be there a progression or not?)

4. How will you present the teaching material?

5. How should you organize your lecture, seminar (forms, techniques, activities and tasks)?

6. How will you carry out the verbalization and visualization of material (motivation)?



What principles must be used for a lecture constructing?

What exact steps should a teacher follow during lecture projecting?

What is the structure of a lecture course?

What modern technologies must be used by a lector

### **5. Course “Methodology of teaching FL”**

Methodology of FLT is a science and a subject which studies matters of teaching language at different educational establishments and cultural aspect of learners’ intellectual development. For the last period the scholars have defined general assumptions of philosophy and cultural aspect of teaching and learning which are taught within this course.

Within the lecture course of “Methodology of FLT” the following topics are taught:

1. Main categories of methodology of teaching: goals, content, approaches, methods and techniques of FLT.
2. The system of exercises.
3. Material evaluation, selection, adaptation.
4. Teaching pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar.
5. Teaching listening, speaking, reading, writing.
6. Assessment
7. Planning.

It is important for teachers to get students acquainted with the current instructional methods and their underlying principles as well as effective classroom techniques, materials, and assessment strategies appropriate for a certain stage depending on learners’ age group (see theme “Comparative methodology”).





What is the goal of study of the course “Methodology of FLT”?

What topical matters are described and trained within this course?

Why is this lecture course important for professional training?

What are differences between Methodology of FLT and Methodology of teaching special subjects?

### **Follow-up activities:**

#### **Activity 1.**

A. Study the given chart to have general imagination about syllabus and course-book for a theoretical discipline.

<b>Course-book (Theoretical subject).</b>	<b>Course-book (Practical course of English)</b>
CB consists of theoretical laws, regulations, definitions, methodological base and methods of the research. It is organized a) to underbuild deep understanding the language phenomena and linguistic norms of their functioning in the speech; b) to create theoretical backgrounds for language learning in pragmatic plan.	CB consists of language (grammar constructions, vocabulary) and speech material (texts, situations), operations and actions for acquiring this material (rules-instructions, exercises). Teaching material is organized to achieve the communicative, educational, developmental, cultural goals.

B. Analyze a theoretical course syllabus and book focusing on the given items below.

1. Instructional conception (goal and objectives, material and sequence of their presentation, lesson organization, assessment).

2. Correspondence with the teaching/learning context (syllabus, content, the level of students, balance of knowledge and skills within the course).

3. Motivation of learning (stimulus, pragmatic arrangement, learners’ needs and preferences).

4. Scientific value, relevance to the subject matter of the material.

**Activity 2.** Observe a professor's lectures and seminars.

A. Evaluate one of the lectures on the basis of the following criteria:

- Aims and objectives of the lecture
- Lecture organization: type, form
- Value of teaching material
- Educational technologies

B. Study the given “A Made-to-Order Form for Instructional Observation (Peer Version)” (taken from Weimer, Parrett & Kens in the book “How am I teaching. Forms and activities for acquiring instructional input” 1988) and tick ‘V’ before each item if a professor did it during the lecture or seminar.

**Organization:**

- Begins class on time in an orderly, organized fashion.
- Previews lecture/discussion content.
- Clearly states the goal or objectives for the period.
- Reviews prior class material to prepare students for the content to be covered.
- Provides internal summaries and transitions.
- Does not digress often from the main topic.
- Summarizes and distills main points at the end of class.
- Appears well-prepared for class.

**Presentation:**

- Incorporates various instructional supports like slides, videos, diagrams, etc.
- Uses instructional support effectively.
- Responds to changes in student attentiveness.
- Uses a variety of spaces in the classroom from which to present material (i. e., doesn't “hide” behind the podium).
- Blackboard writing is large and legible.
- Speech fillers (for example, “OK. Ahm”) are not distracting.
- Speaks audibly and clearly.

- Uses gestures to enhance meaning and not to release nervous tension (repetitive gestures tend to do the latter).
- Communicates a sense of enthusiasm and excitement toward the content.
- Use of humor is positive and appropriate.
- Presentation style facilitates note-taking.
- Speech is neither too formal nor too casual.
- Establishes and maintains eye contact with students.
- Talks to students, not to boards or windows.
- Varies the pace to keep students alert.
- Selects teaching methods appropriate for the content.

**Rapport:**

- Praises students for contributions that deserve commendation.
- Solicit student feedback.
- Requires student thought and participation.
- Responds constructively to student opinions.
- Knows and uses student names.
- Does not deprecate student ignorance or misunderstanding.
- Responds to students as individuals.
- Treats class members equitably.
- Listens carefully to student comments and questions.
- Tailors the course to help many kinds of students.
- Recognizes when students do not understand.
- Encourages mutual respect among students.
- Credibility and control.
- Responds to distractions effectively yet constructively.
- Demonstrates content-competence.
- Responds confidently to students inquiries for additional information.
- Uses authority in classroom to create an environment conducive to learning.
- Speaks about course content with confidence and authority.
- Is able to admit error and/or insufficient knowledge.
- Respects constructive criticism.

**Content:**

- Includes illustrations.

- Selects examples relevant to student experiences and course content.
- Integrates text material into classroom presentations.
- Relates current course content to what’s gone before and will come after.
- Relates current course content to students’ general education.
- Makes course content relevant with references to “real world” applications.
- Presents views other than own when appropriate.
- Seeks to apply theory to problem-solving.
- Explicitly states relationship among various topics and facts/theory.
- Explains difficult terms, concepts, or problems in more than one way.
- Presents backgrounds of ideas and concepts.
- Presents pertinent facts and concepts from related fields.
- Presents up-to-date developments in the field.
- Relates assignments to course content.
- Clearly organizes assignments.
- Carefully explains assignments.

**Interaction:**

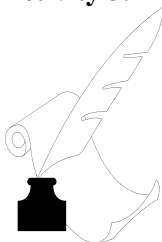
- Encourages student questions, involvement, and debate.
- Answers student questions clearly and directly.
- Uses rhetorical questions to gain students attention.
- Gives students enough time to respond to questions.
- Retrains from answering own questions.
- Responds to wrong answers constructively.
- Allows ample time for questions.
- Encourages students to respond to each other’s questions.
- Encourages students to answer difficult questions by providing cues and encouragement.
- Allows relevant student discussion to proceed uninterrupted.
- Presents challenging questions to stimulate discussion.
- Respects diverse points of view.

**Active learning (activities, labs, etc.):**

- Clearly explains directions or procedures.

- Clearly explains the goal of the activity.
- Has readily available materials and equipment necessary to complete the activity.
- Allows opportunity for individual expression.
- Provides practice time.
- Gives prompts attention to individual problems.
- Provides individuals constructive verbal feedback.
- Careful safety supervision is obvious.
- Allows sufficient time for completion.
- Provides enough demonstrations.
- Demonstrations are clearly visible to all students.
- If the discovery method is employed, schedules time for discussion of result.
- Required skills are not beyond reasonable expectations for the course and/or students.
- Provides opportunities for a dialogue about the activity with peers and/or other lector.
- Allocates sufficient clean-up time within the class session.

### Activity 3.



A. Design a lecture on a theoretical course which you want or on the field of your research work. Follow the guidelines given above in the *Table 16*.

B. Design a seminar lesson taking into consideration training, assessment and independent study activities for any theoretical course which you like.

### Key reading:

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2. Бородулина М. К. и другие. Обучение иностранному языку как специальности. –М.: Высшая школа, 1982.

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## **THEME 8. STUDENTS' RESEARCH ACTIVITY**

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**Objectives of the lecture** are to familiarize students with the forms of the research activity and methodology of organization of the research work and experiment.

**Learning outcomes of the lecture:** By the end of the lecture students will be able to

- understand the essence of the research activity and its forms;
- recognize and use the research methods in their academic study and vocational practice;
- organize experimental teaching with learners at different types of educational establishments;
- evaluate and write reviews on the research papers;
- conduct consultations with students as scientific advisors or mentors.

### **Questions to be discussed:**

1. Ways and forms of organizing students' research activity at higher schools.
2. Research methods in linguistics.
3. Research methods in methodology of FLT.
4. Experiment organization.

### **Spark:**

Write a mind map of the concept “scientific activity” and “research paper”.

### **Input material:**

#### **1. Ways and forms of organizing students research activity at the higher schools**

Research activity of students is an integral part of higher education and its development increases prestige and rating of educational establishments. Besides students must be ready to do research work which allows future specialists of FLT fulfilling their professional and research activity. Research papers can become a great tool to deepen students’ understanding of their chosen field, and may be the first step towards developing a specialization that will serve students well as they move into their career or advanced education.



In accordance with the competence-based approach to education during study students must master the following competences related to research activity:

1. *Information-research competence:*
2. *Methodological competence:*
3. *Theoretical competence*
4. *Empirical competence:*

1. *Information-research competence:*
  - searching, selection, information-processing;
  - understanding and reconstructing the text structure;
  - compressing of the text and preparing a plan, abstract, synopsis, summary, paper, essay, library-research, note-taking;
  - citation and preparing the text in accordance with specificity of genre and scientific style;
  - participating in the scientific dialogue, dispute, discussion;
  - obtaining new knowledge independently and applying it in the practice.

2. *Methodological competence:*

- defining a problem and ways of its solving;
- suggesting the key research idea and the structure of the research work;
- defining the research apparatus (object, subject, goal and objectives, hypothesis and others items of the research paper).

3. *Theoretical competence* for analysis, synthesis, induction, deduction, comparison and contrast, abstraction and concretization, classification and systematization, analogy and generalization, theoretical modeling.

4. *Empirical competence:*

- conducting survey, questionnaire, testing;
- studying data, indicators;
- studying and generalizing, for example, language experience or ELT experience in the local context;
- conducting an experiment and interpreting its results and findings.

At higher schools students are engaged in different forms of the research activity. In particular:

Course papers  
BA qualification paper  
MA thesis  
Students scientific organization  
Consultations  
Writing reviews  
Writing articles  
International research projects  
Scientific conferences, seminars, webinars

The future specialists must obtain skills to be scientific advisor of students' research papers and to write reviews on students' and other teachers' research papers.

Thus students' research and creative activities can be defined as students' engagement in the *original* research, scholarly activity, and/or creative activity, *mentored* by a scientific advisor or other



faculty members, with the *goal* of publication, presentation, performance, or exhibition of the results or products.



There are four key elements to this definition that should be emphasized:

1) *originality*, partially or totally, of the project or the research paper;

2) *mentoring* relationship between a student and a teacher, whose responsibility is to actively guide student scholars in the methods of their disciplines;

3) the *goal* that the results will be shared with others so that a contribution is made to the discipline and that students gain research and practical experiences;

4) *research results, findings or product* are reviewed, or judged, or evaluated by peers and teachers.

Since undergraduate students are engaged in research works in the presented above forms it is necessary to consider research methods in linguistics and linguodidactics.



What competences should you acquired to conduct research activity successfully?

How do these competences help you to write MA dissertation?

What forms of research works which take place at your university can you name?

Since undergraduate students are engaged in research works in the presented above forms it is necessary to consider research methods in linguistics and linguodidactics.

## 2. Research methods in linguistics

There are the following approaches to the study of linguistic phenomena in linguistics: *diachronic approach* reflects the history and conditions of language/ linguistic universals' change up to the present period and *synchronic approach* reflects the modern state of language/linguistic universals.

In linguistics there are scientific methods of "a set of methods and rules for studying a particular phenomenon or group of phenomena. " The method of research at the same time is an aspect of the research, subordinating to itself the methods of the research, the procedure or steps of their use, and the ways of describing the achieved results and findings.

Methods of research in linguistics are as follows:

1) *Comparative analysis*. With the help of this method, general and specific features of analyzed phenomena within one language or related and unrelated languages are established. In the process of linguistic universals' comparative analysis (at morphological, phonetic, semantic, syntactic levels) their structural features, similarities and differences are determined. The data and elements of the comparative analysis can be used in the theory and practice of translation and in the methodology of FLT.

2) *Analysis of immediate constituents*. Identifies and determines the ways in which words are related to each other. This method is based on the binary principle. Two components, which break up into smaller meaningful elements, are analyzed. For example: the word combination "a long-legged boy" is analyzed and the components (words, suffixes or endings) included in it are revealed, or the perfect time from which components it consists and what its functions.

3) *Distributive analysis* can include various methods: valence, environment (for example, "to make smth. " "to make smb. do smth. " the components of the "to make smth. " "to make smb. do smth. " combinations have different environments and have different meanings, the first example means "doing something", the second one "getting someone to do something") and distribution models (they determine the distribution models, but do not explain the use of specific words, for example, "to talk" "to say" "to speak").

Distributive analysis can reveal different lexical meanings in different distributive models.

4) *Transformation analysis*, based on the relationship of the language structures and their content. This analysis is used to study syntactic and word-building models, as well as for analysis of other tiers of the language. For example, with the help of transformational analysis, it is possible to determine the word-forming relations between words or, when translating, syntactic constructions.

5) *Component analysis* proceeds from the fact that the unit of analysis is the element of the linguistic unit – the nominative-communicative and the structural. Identification of the essential characteristics of objects of reality, the means of nominating which is a word or phrase. The linguistic essence of component analysis is that although a potentially universal set of components can be used by any language, in reality, not every particular language uses the entire set as a whole, but the main thing is that in specific lexical units/speech models of each language item. The presence of these or other components is unique, peculiar and points to the peculiarity of the nomination in this language. For example, in Russian there are the verbs "идти", "ходить", in English these terms are expressed in one word "to go". These features are of great interest both in the theoretical plan and in the practice of language work.

6) *Context analysis* proceeds from the fact that a unit of the language is analyzed in a contextual environment in which a given language unit implements and actualizes its meaning. Context analysis is most often subjected to lexemes and word forms.

7) *The analysis of thematic groups* consists of the fact that, on the basis of a certain subject-thematic correlation, a set of words is selected and subjected to special study. For example, in lexicology on the topic "Structural and semantic features of idioms, which denote the parts of the body". Idioms are selected, where words related to "parts of the body" take place and their analysis is carried out in terms of component composition and semantics. Or, "Functional-semantic features of verbs that express movement. " The verbs of movement are selected, for example: *to go, to fly, to walk . .*

. and this row is considered as a lexicosemantic group functioning in one or another context.

8) *The etymological analysis* helps to reveal the history of words down to their ancient forms and values, based on the facts related languages. In etymological studies, great attention is paid to the characteristics of the oldest phonetic and morphemic structures of the word and the assumption of the initial motivation for the meaning of the word. Etymological analysis is aimed at the study of words, the history of their emergence, whose meaning in modern language is unmotivated, undergone by phonetic, morphological, word-formation and semantic changes. For example, analysis of lexical borrowings means that borrowed vocabulary is allocated to a special group and its desired origin, structure and meaning are established.

9) *The statistical method* is a sample of any material; its distribution is presented in the form of digital data (tables), graphs, etc., and also involves the calculation error and sampling adequacy, probabilistic and statistical interpretation of the results. For example, the researcher calculates how often the author uses a particular word in his written paper or literature, or the compilers of the dictionary select words in accordance with a frequency of its using in the speech by the native speakers.



What is the role of research methods?

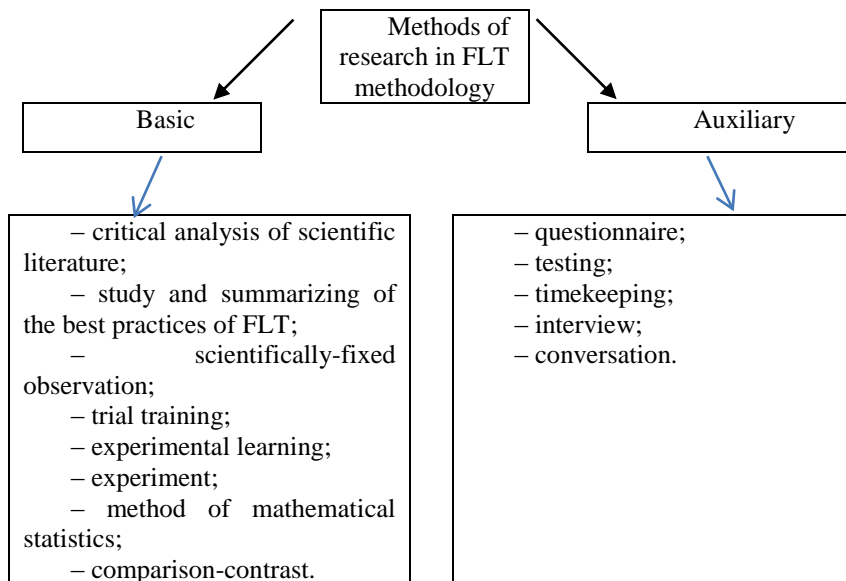
What linguistic research methods do you know?

What of them do you use in your thesis and how?

### **3. Research methods in methodology of FLT**

The modern methodology of FLT science distinguishes *basic* and *auxiliary/minor research methods* which are presented in the *Figure 4*.

**Figure 4. The research methods in Methodology of FLT**



***Basic research methods are:***

1) *A critical analysis of scientific literature* on the researched topic in the field of methodology, linguistics, psychology and pedagogy. Analysis of the scientific literature is necessary for the study and collection of scientific data having a direct or indirect relationship to the issue under study and the final choice of the research object. This method of the research requires certain skills: a critical attitude toward the read, the ability to analyze, synthesize, evaluate, separate and generalize.

2) *Study and summarizing of best practices of FLT.* During pedagogical or industrial practice, students attend lessons of teachers, where they get acquainted with various methods and forms of work. In addition, students can study and summarize the positive work experience presented in the pages of methodical journals, for example, in the journal “Foreign Languages at School”. Thus, the study of facts, their visual juxtaposition, comparison, deduction of inferences, and development of current classifications makes it

possible to formulate a certain idea of the educational process or to establish interrelationships of the current instructions or factors, or conditions.

3) *Scientifically-fixed observation* (at the empirical level) makes it possible to determine the development of the phenomena, the relationship of various aspects of the pedagogical process: age characteristics, level of knowledge of students, the purpose of learning, motivation of the proposed kinds of work, etc. In the process of observing (gathering data) the organization of FLT, the activity of a teacher and students, the effectiveness of the aids, the formation or development of speech skills for certain types of speech activity, various facts are collected and conclusions are drawn, which can form the basis of the methodology of language teaching proposed by the researcher. Observation can be carried out in different ways and in different forms (for example, observation of the sequence of the series of activities in the work on lexical material, observation during the analysis of the tests performed, etc.).

4) *Trial training*. Based on their personal experience and taking into account results of observations, one can come up with a kind of thought (for example, introduces certain methods or techniques into the educational process) and test them in the practice of teaching. To do this, it is necessary to put forward a hypothesis aimed at improving the fragment of the learning process and confirm its assumption.

5) *Experimental learning*. Conducting a mass survey based on materials obtained as a result of the primary developed methodology, which has already yielded a positive result and then turns into a regularity. The application of this survey is typical for fundamental research (in the scientific work of graduates this method is usually not used, but students must have an idea about it).

6) *Experiment*. As a result of a critical analysis of the scientific literature on this problem, the generalization of the data of the ascertaining cut and the positive experiment, the experimenter puts forward a hypothesis. The *hypothesis* refers to a research hypothesis put forward to explain some phenomenon and required mandatory

confirmation of the effectiveness of the proposed methodology, technology, tools, etc. experimentally.

***Auxiliary research methods are:***

1) *Questionnaire*. Drawing up questionnaires on interesting facts and fixing answers to learn some details.

2) *Testing*. Fixing the results of training for the purpose of instructional diagnosis, how effective are these or other methods and tools, etc.

3) *Timekeeping*. Analysis of the learning process fixed on the film in whole or on certain fragments (for example, to fix the time spent on training exercises, check the speed of reading for a certain period of time, etc.);

4) *The conversation* with the participants of the conducted research to find out the details of the facts, to instruct at baseline or to monitor the progress of the pilot study.

5) *Observation*. Analysis of lessons conducted by a teacher, evaluation educational tools by a researcher.

Auxiliary or secondary research methods are organically intertwined with the basic methods of investigation. For example, at the pre-experimental stage it is possible to conduct questionnaires of students, or teachers on the needed facts or conversation with students, etc.

Tests can also be mathematically processed, and interviews are usually recorded. The questionnaires are analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively.



What pedagogical research methods do we distinguish?

Why do researchers use these methods in FLT methodology?

Did you conduct experiment in you research?

#### **4. Experiment organization**

Thus, the *experiment* – is scientifically designed experiment based on a study of the state and dynamics of only one of the studied phenomena in conventional neutralizing all other relevant factors. The experiment requires the formulation of a hypothesis. The object

of research in the methodological experiment should be the learning process of FL. One of its main components is exercises/activities or instructions. For the experiment, experimental and control groups, materials, methods, stages and timing are selected.

The conditions under which the experiment is performed should be the same or different in the experimental and control groups. If they are the same we call them as *non-variable conditions*. Some components that differ, called *varying experimental conditions*. *Non-variable conditions* may be: the same material, the same language level of students, a teacher's qualifications.



Experimental training includes four phases:

- 1) *Organization* (development of a hypothesis, the collected material is analyzed and systematized to substantiate a working hypothesis, the goal of training and tasks for achieving the goal is determined, a methodology for teaching specific facts of the language is developed, etc.);
- 2) *Implementation* (developed training methodology is tested in the classroom);
- 3) *Verification/Ascertaining* (quantitative and qualitative characteristics of the results of the study – statistical processing of experimental data;
- 4) *Interpretation*, i. e. objective and thorough analysis of the results obtained (statistical indicators) and the proposal of relevant recommendations.

The experiment requires objective data; statistical analysis is used for this purpose. Experimenter needs to establish *the experiment's reliability*, i. e. statistically set the required number of subjects and the minimum number of homogeneous learning experiences to obtain reliable results. It is necessary to check *the validity of the experiment*, i. e. determine whether its results are actually the results of measuring what is expected. Finally, an attempt *to establish a correlation should be taken*, because the



researcher should be primarily interested in the relations, the relation with other phenomena, rather than the absolute number. These parameters: reliability, validity and correlation, are determined by means of mathematical statistics.

Formulas for determining the quality of the proposed teaching methods

Finding the coefficient of mastering the material

$$K = \frac{P - O}{N}$$

K - the coefficient of assimilation of the material  
 P - the number of correct answers  
 O - number of negative answers  
 N - the number of tasks.

Dynamics of material's assimilation

$$L1 < L2 < L3$$

$$L1 < L2 > L3$$

L - Averages  
 > - Falling scale  
 < - Rising scale

The sequence of setting the experiment:

- Identify the scope of the research and choose the problem;
- Get acquainted with the literature on this issue;
- Study and summarize the positive experience of teaching;
- Develop a hypothesis, to put forward the purpose and tasks of the experiment;
- Choose an adequate type of experiment;
- Plan the experiment, determine the timing, develop varying and non-variability conditions;
- Determine the methodology of the experiment, develop materials;
- Select subjects;
- Prepare teachers for teachers;
- Develop techniques for fixing the course and results (detailed protocol, tape recordings);
- Organize and conduct a pre-experimental section (needs analysis), experimental training, and post-experimental section;

- Process post-experimental data;
- Draw conclusions or findings.

To test the effectiveness of the proposed methodology, various methods are used. One of them is the characterological method, which consists of carrying out a number of control sections for certain time intervals. This kind of experiment makes it possible to establish the dynamics of the process of teaching and mastering certain skills and abilities. According to the results of the characterological experiment, the dynamic series characterizing the state of the quality of training for certain time intervals, for example, 1– slice – in half a year, 2– slice – in a year, 3– slice – in a year and a half, 4– slice – in two years.

The degree of effectiveness of the experiment is determined by comparing the average data for the above-mentioned sections. The average data output is rated by the formula  $R = P - O / N$ , where P – correct answers, O – wrong responses and N – number of the tested questions.

Mastering dynamics can be expressed as follows:  $L1 < L2 < L3$  or  $L1 > L2 < L3$ :

< – sign of increasing scale, and > – sign of decreasing scale. Dynamics can be expressed in the form of a scheme or diagram.

The geometric mean, representing the ratio of the subsequent indicator of the dynamic series to the previous one, can be used to determine the growth rate of the proposed technology.



What stages are in experiment conducting?

Why should a researcher use qualitative and quantitative approaches for confirmation of the research results or findings?

How can you calculate the results of testing?

### **Follow-up activities:**

**Activity 1.** The secret of success in the profession of teaching is to continually grow and learn. Action research is a way for you to continue to grow and learn by making use of your own experiences.

A. Watch the videos:

1) “Action Research in the Foreign Language Classroom”  
(<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=j-BQQONrtZo>),

2) “Exploratory Practice for English Learners”

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lfxj1p9yGno>,

3) “Teacher Reflective Practice”

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0glFJMYv1JY>.

What do we mean by Action research, Exploratory practice and Reflective practice?

What techniques are shown in the videos?

What is effectiveness of each of them in the pedagogical research activity?

B. Read explanations of exploratory and reflective practices given below. Find out similarities between action research, exploratory practice and reflective practice in the question domains “what”, “who”, “how”.

According to Allwright, 2003; Allwright and Hanks, 2009), **exploratory practice** is an ethical way of doing research that is ‘indefinitely sustainable’ which promotes the idea of ‘on-going’ rather than experimental classroom research. For example, data is collected with minimal or no disruption to normal classroom teaching and learning, and most importantly the aim of exploratory practice is to turn issues and problems into ‘puzzles’.

**Reflective practice** is, in its simplest form, thinking about or reflecting on what you do. It is closely linked to the concept of learning from experience, in that you think about what you did, and what happened, and decide from that what you would do differently next time.

The difference between casual ‘thinking’ and ‘reflective practice’ is that reflective practice requires a conscious effort to think about events, and develop insights into them.

<b>Question domains</b>	<b>Similarities</b>	<b>Differences</b>
what		
who		

how

C. Prepare PowerPoint presentation “Classroom-based research”. Choose any classroom problem and suggest ways of investigating it. The given points will help you:

- Possible ways to move from problems to solutions.
- Research designs and associated data analyses applied in the classroom.
- The importance of sharing the results of research and possible ways to disseminate the information
- Benefits of Classroom-Based Research.

**Activity 2.** Revise you obtained knowledge about research activity. Reflect on the questions:



✓ What kinds of students’ research work are practiced at a language university?

✓ Do you think that only teachers should be engaged in the research work or not?

✓ What methods of research exist in linguistics and which ones have you already use when writing course projects and qualification papers?

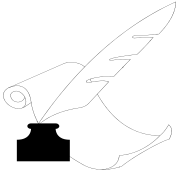
✓ Do you think that all methods used are teaching methods or not? Argument your answer.

✓ Why are the methods divided into basic and auxiliary?

✓ Should a critical analysis of literature also be used while a writing research paper on linguistics?

✓ What can you say about the experiment?

✓ Why do we need to carry out several control slices, why not to limit ourselves to one?



### Activity 3.

Read the instructions taken from the article “Advice for Students: How to Write Research papers that Rock!” ([www.lifehack.org/. . . /advice-for-s. . . that-rock.html](http://www.lifehack.org/. . . /advice-for-s. . . that-rock.html)). Using the given six steps try to write instructions in your field of study for your peers.

There are a lot of things you can do to help make research papers work for you – and get a decent grade in the process:

**I. Write a strong thesis.** Your thesis is your statement of intent: what do you intend to demonstrate or prove in your paper. Here’s some types of theses that will grab your (and your professor’s) attention:

1. *Challenge a misconception:* Use your paper to challenge the received wisdom, the stuff “everybody knows”. E. g. “Lots of people think [A] but really [not-A]”

2. *Find an unlikely connection:* Use an idea from science to illuminate a concept in literature, or vice versa. For example: “Neils Bohr’s theory of the structure of the atom provides one way of looking at the relationship between Hamlet and the play’s secondary characters.” The idea here is to find a surprising new way of looking at or thinking about a concept.

3. *Rehabilitate a villain.* Defend a historical personage or literary character widely assumed to have been “a bad guy”. The biologist Steven Jay Gould was a master of this, writing about people generally portrayed as the enemies of scientific progress – Lamarck, Bishop Usher, Pope Urban VIII – as exemplars of the cutting-edge science of their day. Make your reader take an unfairly (or even fairly) maligned character or person seriously. (Note: I’d avoid using this approach for Hitler; no matter how well you write, it’s unlikely anyone will appreciate your efforts to make Hitler seem like a good chap.)

4. *Reframe a classic work in light of today’s technology, social structure, or culture.* What kind of a woman would Cinderella or

Jane Austen's Emma be in today's corporate world? What could Newton or Julius Caesar have done with a MacBook Pro?

5. *Reframe today's world in light of the technological, social, or cultural context of a classic.* What would Julius Caesar think of Jack Welch or Bill Gates? What would Johannes Kepler make of string theory? What would Jane Austen think of today's career woman?

**II. Use yourself as a source.** Use your own life experiences to illustrate the points you're making. If you are writing about witchcraft and your grandmother was a Oaxacan healer, talk about that; if you are taking accounting 101 and your father ran a successful dry cleaning business, talk about that; if you are taking Poli Sci and you successfully ran for class president, talk about that. Use your own experiences to make your writing immediate and lively — and to keep yourself engaged in the act of writing. (Who doesn't like to talk about themselves?)

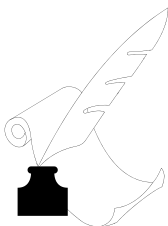
**III. Consult the experts.** The Internet makes it possible to directly reach people we'd have never thought possible even a decade ago. Google the leading voice in the field you're writing about: a professor of chemistry at MIT, a leadership guru, a corporate anthropologist at Intel, and so on — chances are you'll come across an email address, or at least a mailing address. Write to them, explain your project, and ask a few questions. The worst that can happen is they'll ignore your request (so write a few people for backup). An easy trade-off, though, for being able to back up your argument with a Nobel laureate's support.

**IX. Choose your audience.** Never, *ever*, write only for your professor. Write as if you were explaining your topic to a friend or family member, or to the President of the United States. Write as if your work was going to be a feature article in Time magazine, or as if you were submitting it to the leading academic journal in your field. Always choose an audience to write for, which will give you both a standard to evaluate your writing against (“would mom get this?”) and the incentive to write clearly and at the appropriate level. Writing as if your professor was the only one likely to read your

paper (even if s/he is) is the shortest path to stuffy, boring writing that will engage neither your professor, nor, most likely, you.

Writing a research paper is work, there's no getting around that. But it doesn't have to be a *chore* – it can be, with a little thought, work you enjoy pouring yourself into. The trick is to give yourself something to write about that reflects your interests and truly fascinates you, something that you would want to know more about even if you *hadn't* been assigned a paper.

The ideas above are a start – what tips do *you* have to share to help make writing less of a task to get through and more of an experience to enjoy?



**Activity 4.** Go to the site <http://www.gramota.net/recenzia.html> and read instructions how to write review of the research paper which presented in the Russian language. Choose one of the article in the local journal and write a review on it following to the given instructions and phrases recommended by the author of the article and present it in the PowerPoint format.

**Activity 5.** Suppose you want to conduct research into the writing done in a particular setting to ensure you are providing your students with appropriate preparation for the tasks that face them. To what extent would (1) questionnaires and (2) interviews be appropriate methods of investigation? What other kinds of data might you also need? Answer these questions in the written form.

**Key reading:**

1. “Action Research in Education”

<http://www.edu.plymouth.ac.uk/resined/actionresearch/arhome.htm>

2. Advice for Students: How to Write Research papers that Rock! ([www.lifehack.org/.../advice-for-s...that-rock.html](http://www.lifehack.org/.../advice-for-s...that-rock.html))

3. “Exploratory Practice: rethinking practitioner research in language teaching”

<http://ltr.sagepub.com/content/7/2/113.short?rss=1&ssource=mfc>

4. “What is Classroom Research?”  
<http://www.kirkwood.edu/site/index.php?p=281>
5. Сейтхалилов Э., Ибрагимова Г. Методология педагогического исследования в схемах и рисунках. Учебно-методическое пособие. –Т.: Ozbekiston Milliy Ensiklopediyasi, 2010.
6. Бакиева Г. Х., Махкамова Г. Т. и др. Бакалавр битирув малакавий ишлари ва магистрлик диссертацияларини тайёрлаш методикаси. Методика подготовки выпускных квалификационных работ и магистерских диссертаций: Методическое пособие для студентов бакалавров и магистрантов. – Т.: Филолог, 2006.
7. Как писать рецензию. <http://www.gramota.net/recenzia.html>

## **THEME 9. TEACHING THE PRACTICAL COURSE OF ENGLISH AT HIGHER SCHOOLS**

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**Objectives of the lecture** are to familiarize students with features of teaching practical language course at linguistic and non-linguistic higher schools, to develop instructional skills in the aspect of the technology of teaching language at linguistic and non-linguistic higher schools.

**Learning outcomes of the lecture:** By the end of the lesson students will be able to

- have an idea about features of language teaching at linguistic and non-linguistic higher schools;
- identify and integrate the approaches, methods, techniques, activities in teaching language at linguistic and non-linguistic higher schools;
- select material and design lesson plans for English classes at linguistic and non-linguistic higher schools;



– design activities for development of receptive and productive skills and for organizing independent work.

### **Questions to be discussed:**

1. Difference between practical course of EL at linguistic and non-linguistic profiles of education.
2. EAP teaching.
3. Aim and content of teaching a practical course of the EL at the higher education level.
4. Approaches to organization of practical lessons.
5. Material selection and organization at non-linguistic higher schools.

### **Spark:**

Look at the picture and think how do we usually organize practical lessons at linguistic and non-linguistic universities?



Create a mind map of the concept “ESP”.  
What types of ESP teaching do you know?

### **Input material:**

#### **1. Difference between practical course of EL at linguistic and non-linguistic profiles of education**

The main goal of practical lessons is forming/developing all components of the communicative competence. The most important difference between a practical course at linguistic and non-linguistic institutions lies in learners and their purposes of learning English.

ESP students already have some acquaintance with English and they learn the language in order to communicate with obtained professional skills and to perform particular job-related functions. An ESP program is therefore built on an assessment of purposes and needs and the functions for which English is required.

However, FLT at linguistic and nonlinguistic contexts diverge not only in the nature of learners, but also in the aim of instructions. While in EL all four language skills (listening, reading, speaking, and writing) are stressed equally, in ESP it requires an analysis that determines which language skills are most needed by students, and the syllabus is designed accordingly learners needs. An ESP program, for example, the attention is focused on the development of reading skills if they are preparing for graduate work in business administration; or it might promote the development of spoken skills of students in order to become tourist guides.

At non-linguistic universities the course of practical EL consists of 1) General English and 2) English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). ESP is traditionally associated with profile education and correlates with specialized subjects.

The interdisciplinary links depend on the profile of university/institute (e. g. humanitarian or technical). Students learn FL to obtain the additional information for future professions, that's why the FL links with the profession-oriented subjects.

FL teaching at non-linguistic universities can be defined at the micro level (in terms, for example, of vocabulary and profession-oriented information) and at macro level – the professional communicative tasks, the genre of formats of those communicative tasks, and the modalities through which they are enacted. For example, the EL teaching curriculum for Medical institutes is based on the main language tasks and language skills that the future health care providers would need to be successful in this field. The acquired language skills as a result of education at a Medical college include areas of informational use of English in interaction with patients and their families (such as offering reassurance) and in interaction with colleagues (completing routine forms, charts, and instructions). The

skills also touch upon documented interpersonal usage of English that medical workers would need (such as expressing empathy, etc.).

ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. It covers subjects varying from accounting or computer science to tourism and business management. The ESP focal point is that English is not taught as a subject separated from students' real world (or wishes); instead, it is integrated into a subject matter area important to learners.

ESP combines subject matter and the English language teaching that highly motivates students to apply what they learn in their English classes to their main field of study, whether it be accounting, business management, economics, computer science or tourism. Being able to use the vocabulary and structures that they learn in a meaningful context reinforces what is taught and increases their motivation.

Students' abilities in their subject-matter fields, in turn, improve their ability to acquire English. Subject-matter knowledge gives them the context they need to understand the English of the classroom. In the ESP class, students are shown how the subject-matter content is expressed in English. A teacher can make the most of students' knowledge of the subject matter, thus helping them learn English faster.

Thus ESP is considered as an approach to study through a field that is already known and relevant to them. This means that they are able to use what they learn in the ESP classroom right away in their work and studies. The ESP approach enhances the relevance of what students are learning and enables them to use the English they know to learn even more English, since their interest in their field will motivate them to interact with speakers and texts.

ESP assesses needs and integrates motivation, subject matter and content for teaching of relevant skills.



What is the goal of ESP?

What is the goal of teaching language as specialty?

What are differences between teaching language at linguistic and non-linguistic schools?

## 2. EAP teaching

There is also EAP (English for Academic Purpose) which can occur at linguistic and non-linguistic schools. An EAP program focuses instruction on skills required to perform in an English-speaking academic context across core subject areas generally encountered in a university setting. Programs may also include a more narrow focus on the more specific linguistic demands of a particular area of study, for example business subjects.

In common with most language teaching, EAP instruction teaches vocabulary, grammar and the four skills (reading, writing, speaking including pronunciation and listening), but usually tries to tie these to the specific study needs of students; for example, a writing lesson would focus on writing essays rather than, say, business letters. Similarly, the vocabulary chosen for study tends to be based on academic texts. In addition, EAP practitioners often find that, either directly or indirectly, they are teaching study skills and often having to tackle differences in educational culture, such as differing attitudes to plagiarism.

There is some debate amongst EAP teachers as to the best way to help students with academic English. On the one hand, students might be taught particular conventions but not expected to understand why they need to adapt their writing; a pragmatic approach. On the other hand students might be encouraged to challenge writing conventions and only adopt them if they seem justified; a critical approach. Recently attempts have been made to try and reconcile these opposing views. A critical pragmatic approach to EAP encourages students to develop writing conventions required by universities while also encouraging them to think about the reasons why these conventions exist.



What is the goal of EAP?

How is EAP organized at your university?

What kind of courses can be organized within EAP?

### 3. Aim and content of teaching a practical course of the EL at the higher education level



At linguistic universities the practical course of the language of specialty proposes aspect organization in accordance with the language system (vocabulary and grammar lessons, practical phonetics) and speech activities (speaking, listening, reading, writing) and integrated skills, as well as discourse analysis. The main goal of education at linguistic universities within practical course of the language as specialty is development of professional communicative competence at the level C1 but at non-linguistic institutes, students should achieve B 2 level of the language proficiency.

As part of the practical course in general, students should be taught the verbal actions that are related to the functions of language and speech, and which are culturally conditioned: 1) informative (expression of the message, request for information); 2) modal (expression of the speaker's relationship to the subject (content) of the utterance); 3) expressive (transmission of emotional state, feelings); 4) volitional (an expression of the will of the speaker: an order, requirement, please, offer, advice, etc.); 5) contact-fixing (establishing and maintaining contact with the interlocutor: greeting, identification of the source, to attract attention, expression of consent, approval, etc.).

In order to hone the entire complex of speech acts, it is necessary to give consideration to each of the skills listed below:

Skills provide textual activity: production and reception skills, in particular:

1. Skills needed to produce statements (for speaking and writing):

➤ The ability to navigate the situation of communication, i. e., to be aware of: what is being said, whom it is addressed to, under what circumstances, why it is created.

➤ The ability to plan the content of the statements: be aware of the subject and the basic idea; chalk out the course of development ideas, possible micro-threads, their sequence, approximate content of each part of the future of the text.

➤ The ability to implement its plans, i. e. disclose the subject matter and to develop the basic idea, formulating every thought. At the same time comply with the norms of the literary language; choose the means given the task of speech, the destination of communication conditions, the main idea and the contents of this part of the text; to ensure the development of thought from sentence to sentence and link individual sentences and parts of text between them; guided by the norms of verbal and nonverbal behavior of native speakers.

➤ The ability to monitor compliance with the plan statements, the situation of communication, i. e., evaluate the content in terms of themes, problems of speech, the main idea of presentation sequences of used language means in terms of the speech problem, the basic idea, the requirements of speech and ethical side of verbal behavior; if conditions permit, it is necessary to make corrections in one's statement.

2. The ability required for the perception statements (for listening and reading):

➤ The ability to be aware of their communicative task.

➤ The ability of guessing the general nature of the message, its subject, purpose, continuation from the title, as well as other external signs.

➤ The ability to understand the meaning of words, meaning of the forms of words, designs, intonation; highlight elements of statements: certain facts, information, micro-threads on them to determine the overall theme of the text; distinguish between the basic information and the subsidiary, known and new to him, especially important, etc. ; understand the course of the author's

thoughts, his/her basic idea, the task of speech; in the course of communication to respect the rules of conduct.

➤ The ability to recognize the degree of understanding of the text, the penetration depth of its meaning, the understanding of the author's position, attitude towards it; use methods of improving the understanding of the message.

Due to the psycholinguistic nature of origination (operations and actions of the function sign) and speech perception (operations and actions of the function symbol's acquisition) can make the selection of speech acts and operations with linguistic signs of studied language, define a typology of the difficulties of mastering them and establish the sequence of their execution for achieving a certain goal.



The system of instructions or activities focuses on a situation that requires not only the semantic relatedness, but also status, regulatory scale that determines the choice of speech means. Because at linguistic higher schools students acquire language as specialty, they are engaged in textual exercises, i. e. deep study of different discourse genres (structure and content). Textual exercises propose the purpose to explore genre, style of the author, techniques and figures of speech that demand to focus on the text elements which present interest for philologists in the aspect of language and style. Moreover, the following exercises must be used by a teacher: translation, paraphrase, synonyms, antonyms, polysemy, world-building, etc.

Besides at higher schools we should also develop students' critical thinking. For example, for teaching critical reading we can follow the following steps:

1. Identifying facts, in which a reader tries to clearly recognize what the author is saying. Examining the source, during which a reader critically looks at the author and his/her competence, reliability, and probable viewpoints or biases.

2. Analyzing the material by examining the author's assumptions and the logic and accuracy of these assumptions and conclusions; recognizing the inferences that a reader is supposed to make.

3. Detecting the implications present in the author's diction, style, or tone; and by recognizing the author's use of propaganda tricks, fallacious thinking, statistical slips and emotional appeals.

4. Comparing a selection with other sources that may present conflicting viewpoints. This fourth step is especially necessary in such areas as political science, sociology, psychology, history, law, journalism, as well as in literary criticism, essays, biography, and much expository material.

Written assignments may call for critical thinking either explicitly or implicitly. Explicit types of critical writing are generally known as critical reviews. These assignments directly ask students to evaluate some aspects of

- A literary text or art work
- A research article
- An argument or interpretation of an issue, text or art work.

*While it will be necessary to summarize the ideas of the original text, students will also need to*

- select sections of the text (e. g. thesis/ methodology/ conclusion) which are open to questions)
- comment (if possible from both positive and negative perspectives) on the section
- draw on other sources to back up their comments
- come to a conclusion on the overall worth/ validity, etc. of the original text

*Key instruction words for critical reviews include*

- Critically analyze/ evaluate...
- Comment on the argument that. . .
- Review the article "..."
- Write a critical review of the article "..."
- Critique. . .

*Implicit types of critical writing*



At undergraduate level, critical writing typically refers to the genre of the persuasive essay in which a logical argument to a stated position/ issue is developed and presented.

*General Strategies for critical writing*

– Read critically (e. g. check validity of references used in source text)

– Be fair. Take into account accepted standards of judgments used in the particular discipline or field.

– Use evidence taken from sources which are considered authoritative in the field

– Consider viewpoints from a range of perspectives (e. g. male and female, different socioeconomic and ethnic groups)

– Use inclusive language (e. g. non-gender specific, non-absolute terms such as ‘often’ and ‘could’ rather than ‘always’ and ‘is’)

Moreover the more attention is paid to text analysis and teaching compression of the text as abstract, synopsis, etc. and all types of academic writing and public speaking. Besides, a teacher designs his/her syllabus integrating professionally-oriented topics, situations and activities into all lessons. For example, selection of the material, designing exercises for development of certain language skills, etc. Thus language skills are integrated with instructional skills (See: the module “Professional language development”).

The situation contributes to the speech intentions and the choice of the corresponding speech acts and they represent:

- social characteristics of the communication partner;
- pragmatic purpose statements;
- communicative intent specifying the target;
- position of speaking (formal, informal, familiarity);
- object of the talk (threads spread);
- conditions in which the communication process takes place (place, time);
- indication of the method of communication (kind of speech act);
- the presence of the necessary linguistic and non-linguistic means (verbal formulas, facial expressions, gestures, etc.).

Construction of artificial and real situations of intercultural communication is carried out by immersing students in quasi-foreign language speech activity that simulates the substantive content of the professional activity (speech), as well as some aspects of its technological, social and role-based content. As the result of this activity the formation of a secondary language personality as a mediator of cultures serves.

One of the conditions for interaction between types of speech activity is to transfer skills from one speech activity to another. Under the interaction of various types of speech activities transferring can occur in the process of assimilation of linguistic and cultural material in the process of cognitive actions and operations. The main activities are communicative, interactive and reflective activities (tasks for comparison, showing the similarities and differences, the development of the course of events, the disclosure of the missing features, advice, problem solving); social interaction (talking and discussing dialogue, improvisation, games, debates).

During working on the text two ways of communicative data-processing are used. The first method is called top-down perception, where it is possible to have a general idea of the text, its content, style, genre, and the second determines the course of piecemeal assimilation of the functional language system, i. e., it forms the basic language skills and speech mechanisms of text perception and understanding.



What is specificity of teaching language as specialty within practical course?

What do we mean by “textual activity”?

What skills are necessary to provide the textual activity?

What exercises or activities are used in the teaching practical course at linguistic and non-linguistic higher schools?

Why should we focus on teaching critical thinking?

#### 4. Approaches to organization of the practical lesson

In methodology of FLT the different lesson organization approaches so called as “teaching models” are used: 1) Presentation -> Practice -> Production (PPP); 2) Engage -> Study -> Activate (ESA); Test -> Teach -> Test (TTT); 4) Task-based approach (TBA).

1) **PPP** has three sequential stages (see: [www.scripgroup.com/limba/engleza/91/HOW...](http://www.scripgroup.com/limba/engleza/91/HOW...)) . **Presentation stage** represents the introduction to a lesson, and necessarily requires the creation of a realistic situation to be learned that can be achieved through using pictures, dialogues, imagination or other stimuli. A teacher checks to see that students understand the nature of the situation and then he/she builds the “concept” underlying the language to be learned using small chunks of the language that students already know. Having understood the concept, students are then given the language “model” and engage in choral drills to learn statement, answer and question forms for the target language. This is a very teacher-orientated stage where error correction is important.

It is necessary to take into consideration that at the presentation stage of the lesson *eliciting* is a useful way of involving the class by focusing students’ attention and making them think; it establishes what students know and what they do not know; and it encourages students to make guesses and to work out rules for themselves. For example, eliciting can be organized on the basis of a picture, or a headline of the text as a pre-reading activity.

**The second stage – Practice** usually begins with what is termed “mechanical practice” – open and closed pair-work. Students gradually move into more “communicative practice” involving procedures like information gap activities, dialogue creation and controlled role-plays. Practice is seen as the frequency device to create familiarity and confidence with the new language, and a measuring stick for accuracy. Thus, learners have **practice** making sentences with new words and structures. A teacher still directs and corrects at this stage, but the classroom is beginning to become more learner-centered.

**The third stage – Production** is seen as the culmination of the language learning process, whereby learners have started to become independent *users* of the language rather than *students* of the language. A teacher's role here is to somehow facilitate a realistic situation or activity where students instinctively feel the need to actively apply the language they have been practicing. A teacher does not correct or become involved unless students directly appeal to him/her to do so. At the stage of **production**, learners talk more freely about the known and unknown information/situation. This model is effective for teaching a simple language at low levels.

The PPP approach is relatively straight forward, and structured enough to be easily understood by both students and new or emerging teachers. It is a good place to start in terms of applying good communicative language teaching in the classroom. It has also been criticized considerably for the very characteristic that makes it the easiest method for 'beginner' teachers, that is, that it is far too teacher-orientated and over controlled.

2) **ESA** (Engage ->Study-> Activate) based on surveys which have shown that the conditions for successful LL are motivation, exposure to language and chances to use it.

In the **Engage** stage, a teacher motivate learners and arise their interest by involving their emotion through using games, music, discussions, stimulating pictures, dramatic stories, anecdotes, etc. Other ways of encouraging learners are: asking them what they think about a topic (predicting, guessing) before reading the text. If learners are engaged they learn better.

In the **Study** stage a teacher focuses on vocabulary and constructions or information. Successful language teaching/learning depends on the degree of quality language acquisition (getting language knowledge or skills through listening and reading), for example, and study activities organized by a teacher.

**Activate** is the stage where learners use the language knowledge and skills in given situations. These three stages can be varied, they are not constant. Variation is even recommended for effective teaching/learning EL.

**3) Model «Test -> Teach -> Test»** ([www.erinearticles.com/?ESL-Lesson-Plans;-Types-...](http://www.erinearticles.com/?ESL-Lesson-Plans;-Types-...)). During the (first) **test phase** that corresponds to the production phase in the PPP approach, learners are more or less abruptly asked to communicatively produce a language concept based on their existing knowledge and without any prior guidance from a teacher. A teacher will then assess students' level of competency in the particular language area, determine their needs, and proceed with the teach phase (which corresponds to the presentation phase in the PPP approach) based on an overall assessment. **The teach phase** allows to discuss problem areas and guide learners towards the correct use of the language concept. **The final stage** of the TTT approach is the **second test** that aims to check how students have absorbed the new inputs from a teacher. The logic of this sequencing is for students to learn the new language concepts better by differentiating its invalid uses (most likely to be committed during the first test phase) from correct usage (likely to be accomplished after a teacher presented the language concept during the teach phase).

TTT approach is a good way for teachers to determine the specific needs of students in different language areas. With this knowledge, educators can optimize their teaching strategies to produce optimum learning outcomes. It is best used at intermediate and higher competency levels, as well as in classes where students have mixed language proficiencies.

**4) Task-based model /approach.** In TBA-structured classes, teachers do not predetermine the language specifics to study but base their lesson strategies on how a central task is completed by learners. TBA follows a sequential progression: 1) a pre-task introduction to be conducted by a teacher; 2) learners' completion of a central task involving a particular language aspect; 3) reporting, analysis and feedback to be performed by a teacher concerning how learners accomplished the central task; and 4) practice sessions to hone learner proficiencies in the language area.

Teachers have great opportunity to use modern educational technologies in teaching practical course (See the course-book:

Makhkamova G. T., Alimov Ah. S., Ziyayev A. L. Innovative pedagogical technologies in the English language teaching. 2017).



What approaches for lesson organization do you know?

What is new for you?

What approaches do you usually use in language teaching?

### **5. Material selection and organization at non-linguistic higher schools**

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) considered ESP a multi-disciplinary activity in that the specificity in the ESP teaching practice is to be based on the insights of researchers of the disciplines or professions ESP serves. That's why they proposed a multidisciplinary approach to ESP that has two main aspects: 1) ESP teachers must be willing to deal with other disciplines and, 2) the teachers need to draw on the insights of researchers in other disciplines. Some studies help to understand the use and function of spoken and written texts in the particular disciplines and professions. In case of English for Business texts on the human resources management and management training, indicate what are common thought patterns, communication and cognitive styles of people in business. At the same time cultural differences have to be accounted for, thus elements of cross-cultural communication training can be applied also in ESP teaching. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), ESP has had its impact on other disciplines. Thus, the content of teaching at non-linguistic higher schools takes into consideration interdisciplinary links with students' profile of study as indicators shown in the *Table 17*.

*Table 17. Types of interdisciplinary links at non-linguistic institutes*

<b>Types of interdisciplinary links</b>	<b>Realization of interdisciplinary links</b>
1. content-information	- professionally-oriented topics in correspondence with the profile of education;

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- specialized texts and situations;</li> <li>- specialized vocabulary.</li> </ul>
2. operation-action	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- incorporation of language and communicative knowledge and skills for conducting professional activity;</li> <li>- incorporation of language and communicative knowledge and skills for searching professional value material or information.</li> </ul>
3. organization-instructional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- construction of system of methods, techniques, forms for teaching FL and communication within professionally-oriented topics and interaction moods;</li> <li>- enlarging professional knowledge via target language</li> </ul>

Meeting specific needs requires a selection of methods and approaches. Xiao-yun et. al. (2007, p. 1) stressed that “eclecticism in language teaching holds that although no single language teaching method manages to meet all the teaching and learning needs, many methods have valuable insights that should be drawn on”. It has become an additional load for ESP practitioners to understand and exhaust different language teaching instructions to sort out appropriate components by using eclectic approach because one single method or approach suits diverse and specific learners and teaching contexts (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

Hutchinson (1998) has pointed out that the ESP teaching to cater for the individual needs of ESP learners. Information transfer, information gap, jigsaw, task dependency and correction for content have been identified as five principles to justify the problem-solving and task-oriented nature of communicative exercises (Johnson, 1982). ESP teaching also requires diverse approaches and tasks in accordance with needs of specific learners. These tasks and techniques include gaps, prediction, integrated methodology (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987), role play and case studies (Huckins, 1988).

However the main approaches on the basis of which the ESP teaching is organized are the followings:

**Content-based Learning** is an instruction in which teaching is arranged around the content of information that students will acquire. It joins language learning to content/subject matter and engages them both concurrently.

**Task-based Learning:** This type of learning proposes tasks as useful vehicles and instruction in LT. This could be a problem solving activity or a project, but the task should have a clear objective, appropriate content, a working/application procedure, and a set range of outcomes. As learners work to complete a task, they have abundant opportunity to interact. During interaction they facilitate language acquisition, they get to listen to the language which may be beyond their present ability, but which may be assimilated into their knowledge of the target language for use at a later time.

Content and language integrated learning presupposes to enhance learners' linguistic competence thanks to a higher amount of a target language exposure. Among most favorably influenced by this kind of learning is learners' lexicon. Through receiving FL input in different content subjects learners acquire more profound knowledge and specialized terminology for their future profession. But we should take into consideration that at vocational colleges we teach 1) general English and 2) specialized English. At the same time content-based instruction is aimed to use of socially oriented themes, represents an effort to link students with the world in which students live.

The main concept behind the skills-centered approach is "that underlying all language use there are common reasoning and interpreting processes, which, regardless of the surface forms, enable us to extract meaning from discourse" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987: 13). With this approach to ESP focus shifted from the language form to cognitive processes that underlie language use. As a consequence, interest in subject registers was abandoned, because these universal thinking processes were not found to be specific to registers. The focus was on teaching strategies that enable learners to cope with surface forms, such as using context to guess the meaning



of a word (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The skills-centered approach must focus on all types of speech activities.

Another approach that focuses on skills and strategies is the instrumental approach which aims to teach language as a means of communication, in order to enable learners to carry out certain activities in the FL.

Selection of the content of ESP should be organized under the discourse approach. So discourse can be divided into many distinct genres with their own rules and lexicon (Demet, 2011: 121). Without doubt, genre analysis helps to define the specialized language and situations for teaching at technical institutes. Besides, study of genres makes language learning and material more relevant to the needs of future specialists in the technical field. Thus, the assessing and selection of the teaching material and design of instructions are built upon the genre research.

Language teachers need to not only have a strong foundation in language learning theory, to be effective users and developers of language materials, they also need to understand various functions that materials have in support of language instruction. There are four principal roles that materials play in language instruction (Hyland, 2006), which must be presented below:

1. To provide language scaffolding to support learners' understanding of how language is used. Materials are designed to provide learners with the opportunity to discuss, analyze and manipulate language, and get constructive feedback on their efforts in support of their language development.

2. To serve as a model. Materials provide representative samples that illustrate particular features, structures or functions of the language being studied. Materials that offer models to guide student work help them focus on characteristics of language use that are important for the context and purposes vary in their language and structures.

3. To serve as a stimulus. This occurs when materials provide ideas and contexts that stimulate and promote discussion and writing, encouraging students to make connections to their own experiences, articulate their ideas, and interact with others.

4. Materials as a reference. Reference materials (such as grammars and dictionaries) are more directed toward information about language than the practice of language. It is essential that language teachers understand the purpose of the materials they are using while keeping in mind that a particular set of materials can serve a combination of the roles outlined above.

The content of teaching: 1) micro-level: terms and specialized texts; 2) macro-level: professionally-oriented situations, discourse genres, modes of interaction

It is necessary to present the basic principles for working specialized language. They are:

- Students acquisition of a new terminology or new structure requires the presentation of these items in the contexts, not in a list of isolated items.

- Students are engaged in hands-on-activities that involve talking about concepts to acquire the language of their specialty.

- Simultaneously, language in general will develop from the communicative context (vocationally-oriented) in which it is used.



What types of interdisciplinary links must be taking into consideration when we design a syllabus for ESP?

What problems do we face in language teaching at non-linguistic higher schools?

What approaches are used in ESP context?

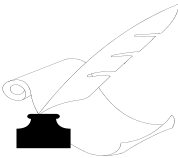
### Follow-up activities:

#### Activity 1.

A. Oshepkova (2005:14-21) gives a set of techniques for learning different reading strategies. Study them and decide where and how we can use them in teaching students.

Asking-answering	Picture/scheme completion
Categorization	Prediction
Correction	Quiz
Finding differences/similarities	True/false statement
Information transfer ( e. g. form-filling, describing diagrams)	Table-filling

Matching	Mind mapping
Mental-rotation	Diamond
Expressing ideas	Discussion
Summarizing	Case-study
Listing	Outlining
Recording	Cause effect
Know/want/learn chart	Knowledge chart
Writing an argumentative essay	Writing documentation (a letter of referral, a case report)
Writing definitions, writing a paragraph, describing a process, describing an event focusing on cause and effect	Writing a summary



B. Study the Bloom's Taxonomy of Cognitive level verbs. Select the text and design activities to it for the 3-d year students.

<b>Knowledge:</b> Reading the text	List Match Identify Record	Define Name Find Label	Write Recall Who What When Where
<b>Comprehension:</b> Understanding the text	Summarize Describe Recognize Explain	Give examples of Show Conclude Generalize	Rewrite Reword Retell Restate Express in other terms
<b>Application:</b> Using the information from the text	Apply Collect Inform Construct	Demonstrate Experiment Perform Practice	Modulate Put to use Solve Calculate
<b>Analysis:</b> Examining specific parts of information from the text	Compare and contrast Deduce Draw	Discover Examine Infer Uncover	Formulate Diagram Determine Analyze

	conclusions Form generalizations		
<b>Synthesis:</b> Doing something new and different with the information from the text	Create Combine Design Devise	Organize Produce and present Invent Build	Imagine Prescribe Predict Generalize
<b>Evaluation:</b> Judging the information from the text	Argue Defend Evaluate Grade	Criticize or critique Judge or justify Validate or verify Support	Rank/rate Recommend Assess Interpret

**Activity 2.** Analyze the lesson samples of teaching English at the ecological (A) and medical (B) departments.

Algorithm of the given lesson samples designed focusing on development reading and vocabulary skills. Find positive and negative sides of these samples in the aspect of 1) material efficacy and relevance to the professional development; 2) using modern technologies.

The given chart demonstrates the reading stages and steps which help you to analyze relevance and sequence of teaching.

1	Theme, Goal and objectives, Learning outcomes.
2	Communicative task for pre-reading stage: A. Working on terms and grammar constructions. B. Generalization of ideas for anticipation the content of the special text.
3	Communicative task for while-reading stage (reading strategy)
4	After-reading stage: A. Reflection. B. Fixing and training for obtaining language and speech material. C. Production activities

1. Read and remember the following words. Predict the key idea of the text on the basis of these new words. Divide the words into categories according to 1) the parts of speech, and 2) semantic features

Global warning – глобальное потепление  
devastating – пострадавшие, бедствие  
threat – угроза  
conservation – сохранение, консервация  
natter-jack toads – маленькая жаба с ярко желтыми полосками на спине  
a great crested newt – зоол. большой гребешковый тритон  
endangered species – безопасный вид  
amphibian – земноводное  
The Amphibian Survival Alliance – Альянс по сохранению земноводных  
disease management – регулировать, контролировать болезнь  
captive breeding of amphibians – размножение амфибий в искусственно созданной среде  
the Herpetological Conservation Trust – (herpetological – область зоологии, занимающаяся рептилиями и земноводными) – организация, занимающаяся сохранением популяции рептилий и земноводных  
decline – спад  
vulnerable – уязвимый  
extinct worldwide – всемирно вымершие  
biodiversity crisis – кризис биоразнообразия  
hit – поражать  
vertebrate species – позвоночные виды.  
a fungus that causes an infectious disease – грибок, ставший причиной инфекционной болезни  
wiped out – уничтожены  
habitat destruction – уничтожение естественной среды обитания

2. Look through the text and underline the key words (terms) of the text.

### ***Extinction threat faces Britain's frogs and toads***

*Global warming, urbanization and pollution are devastating frog and toad populations around the world, with almost a third of species under threat.*

*In Britain, the common toad population is 'seriously threatened': natter-jack toads have declined by 75 per cent in the past century, and since the 1960s the number of great crested newts in the country has dropped by 60 per cent.*

*Now, 50 leading researchers are campaigning for £200m to protect endangered species. The Amphibian Survival Alliance would involve monitoring, research, disease management and captive breeding of amphibians.*

*Tony Gent, the chief executive of the Herpetological Conservation Trust, said decline in amphibian population was often seen as an early indicator of environmental change, because the creatures rely on two habitats, leaving them vulnerable because they can be affected by changes both on land and water.*

*Since 1980, up to 122 species of amphibian have become extinct worldwide. Another 32 per cent of the world's amphibian species are considered at risk.*

*Amphibians have existed for more 300 million years, predating the dinosaurs, and their dramatic decline has alarmed many researchers. Professor Andrew Blaustein, from Oregon State University in the US, one of the first experts to document amphibian decline 20 years ago, said: "This is a part of an overall biodiversity crisis, and amphibians seem to have been hit the hardest of all vertebrate species".*

*A key problem is a fungus that causes an infectious disease called chytridiomycosis. In places where it has appeared, amphibian populations may be wiped out within six months, the researchers said in the report published in Science. Global climate change and population are thought to increase the fungus's spread.*

*Victoria Micklewright of Frog life, a charity concerned with conservation of amphibians, said that the natter-jack toad, which previously inhabited all coastal areas of the UK, was now the rarest amphibian in the country and could now only be found in Norfolk,*

*the north-west England and in north Wales. "It is coastal species that tends to live near sand dunes, but habitat destruction means that it can now only be found in isolated areas in the country," she said.*

*(The Independent newspaper)*

Are there any words formed with the help of affixation, compounding? Fill in the table and explain their structural-semantic features.

suffixation	prefixation	compounding

3. Retell the text focusing on the thesis “decline in amphibian population was often seen as an early indicator of environmental change”. Write the recommendations to prevent of wiping out amphibians.

## **B. Theme: COLD AND FLU**

### **Pre-Reading Activities**

#### **A: What Do You Think?**

*Work alone and answer questions 1–3.*

1. Which things on the list below are usually signs and symptoms of a cold and which are signs and symptoms of influenza (flu)?

**Signs and symptoms:** fever and chills; scratchy throat; sore throat; body aches; stuffy nose; upset stomach; runny nose.

2. What kind of things do you do in your everyday life to try and avoid catching a cold?

3. What do you do if you have a cold? Do you do anything special to try and make it go away faster?

*Now work in pairs and compare your answers to questions 1–3.*

#### **B: Test your Medical Knowledge**

*Work in pairs and decide whether these statements are True, or False. (You will be able to check your answers later when you read the article).*

1. There are vaccines available that can prevent people from catching flues and colds.

2. There are more than two hundred viruses that can cause the flu.
3. Washing your hands can lower your chances of catching a cold.
4. It is easy to tell whether or not a small child has the flu.
5. Aspirin will help take away any aches and pains and is suitable for everyone.
6. Children with the flu usually have higher fevers than adults.

### **Reading Activities**

#### **A: Finding the Main Idea**

*Here is the headline of today's article but some of the words have been mixed up.*

*Read the first paragraph of the article and then try to put the words in the headline into the correct order. Write your answer on the line provided. (The first two words are given to you as an example).*

**Headline:** Nose Stuffy? Flu if or to Tell It's Cold a How

**Your Answer:** Stuffy Nose?

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NEW YORK, Monday, January 14 (Reuters Health) – Scratchy throats, stuffy noses and body aches all spell misery, but being able to tell if the cause is a cold or flu may make a difference in how long the misery lasts.

The American Lung Association (ALA) has issued new guidelines on combating colds and influenza, and one of the keys is being able to quickly tell the two apart. That's because the prescription drugs available for the flu need to be taken soon after the illness sets in. As for colds, the sooner a person starts taking over-the-counter therapies, the sooner relief will come, according to the ALA.

The common cold and the flu are both caused by viruses. More than 200 viruses can trigger cold symptoms, while the flu is caused by three viruses – influenza A, B and C. There is no cure for either illness, but the flu can be prevented by the influenza vaccine – and is, for most people, the best way to fight the flu, according to the ALA.



And in general, flu symptoms including fever and chills, sore throat and body aches come on suddenly and are more severe than cold symptoms. Contrary to popular belief, upset stomach is rarely a symptom of the flu, according to the ALA.

The group notes that it may be particularly difficult to tell when infants and preschool age children have the doctor if their small children have flu – like symptoms.

If patients see a doctor within 2 days of symptom onset, the flu can often be treated with one of four drugs that have been shown to shorten the duration of symptoms, the ALA adds. These drugs are: oseltamivir (Tamiflu), zanamivir (Relenza), amantadine (Symmetrel) and rimantadine (Flumadine). Some can be given to children older than one year.

But if the flu does strike, quick action can help. Although the flu and common cold have many similarities, there are some telltale signs to look for.

Cold symptoms such as stuffy nose, runny nose and scratchy throat typically develop gradually, and adults and teens often do not get a fever. On the other hand, fever is one of the hallmarks of the flu for all ages; children's fevers tend to be higher, ranging from 103 to 104 degrees Fahrenheit (39 – 40 degrees Centigrade), the ALA points out.

Both cold and flu symptoms can be eased with over-the-counter medications as well. However, children and teens with a cold or flu should not take aspirin for pain relief because of the risk of Reye syndrome, a rare but serious condition of the liver and central nervous system. There is, of course, no vaccine for the common cold. But frequent hand washing and avoiding close contact with people who have colds can reduce the likelihood of catching one.

### **B: Scanning**

*Here is the list of symptoms from Pre-Reading Activity A.*

*Read the next part of today's article. Which signs and symptoms does the article mention in connection with colds and influenza? Write them down under the appropriate heading. Are there any that are not usually symptoms of either a cold or flu? Write them down under the Neither Cold nor Influenza heading.*

**Fever and chills; scratchy throat; sore throat; body aches; stuffy nose; upset stomach; runny nose**

Cold	Influenza	Neither Cold nor Influenza

**C: True or False**

Now go back to Pre-Reading Activity B and do the following things:

1. Check to see if your answers are correct according to the article.
2. Change your answers if they are incorrect.
3. If a statement is false, change the false statement to make it true.

**D: Check Your Understanding**

*Here is a paragraph summarizing the message of today’s article. Fill the gaps in the sentences with information from the article. (Put only one word in each gap).*

Cold and flu symptoms are similar but \_\_\_\_\_ symptoms are more serious and develop faster. If you are able to tell that you have the \_\_\_\_\_, and see a doctor, you may be treated with one of \_\_\_\_\_ length of the symptoms. These medications, however, must be taken within \_\_\_\_\_ days of the flu starting, so it is important that you try to work out which illness you have and then go and see a \_\_\_\_\_ if you have the flu.

**Post-Reading Activities**

(We may do one or more of these).

**A. Language**

1. *The article contains a lot of information written in the present simple tense. For example, “upset stomach is rarely a symptom of the flu, according to the ALA.”*

*Why are sentences like this one in the present simple?*

2. *Students sometimes confuse present active with present passive sentences*

*(Subject + be verb + past participle of the main verb). Look at these sentences from today's article. Change the verbs in brackets (which are in the infinitive form) into the correct form (present active or present passive sentences).*

a. Scratchy throats, stuffy noses and body aches all \_\_\_\_\_ **(to spell)** misery.

b. The common cold and the flu \_\_\_\_\_ **(to cause)** by viruses.

c. The flu \_\_\_\_\_ **(to cause)** by three viruses – influenza A, B and C.

d. There \_\_\_\_\_ **(to be)** no cure for either illness.

e. Cold symptoms such as stuffy nose, runny nose and scratchy throat typically \_\_\_\_\_ **(to develop)** gradually, and adults and teens often do not \_\_\_\_\_ **(to get)** a fever.

f. On the other hand, fever \_\_\_\_\_ **(to be)** one of the hallmarks of the flu for all ages.

g. There \_\_\_\_\_ **(to be)**, of course, no vaccine for the common cold.

h. But frequent hand washing and avoiding close contact with people who \_\_\_\_\_ **(to have)** colds reduces the likelihood of catching one.



### **Activity 3.**

The specialized text and vocabulary are given to students as linguistic items of teaching at technical institutes. Design activities for PPP lesson organization in obtaining the specialized terms and information.

#### **Text:**

Engineers have to know the best and most economical materials to use. Engineers must also understand the properties of these materials, and how they can be worked. There are two kinds of materials used in engineering – metals and non-metals. We can divide metals into ferrous and non-ferrous metals. The former contain iron and the latter do not contain iron. Cast iron and steel, which both are alloys, or mixtures of iron and carbon, are the two

most important ferrous metals. Steel contains a smaller proportion of carbon than iron contains. Certain elements can improve the properties of steel and are therefore added to it. For example, chromium may be included to resist corrosion and tungsten to increase hardness. Aluminum, copper, and the alloys, bronze and brass, are common non-ferrous metals.

**Vocabulary:**

properties, ferrous, iron, steel, aluminum, copper, brass alloy, carbon, chromium, corrosion, tungsten,

Elements of world building:

non-, -less

**Activity 4.** Design lesson plans including independent work for the 1 and 3 courses of linguistic higher schools using innovation technologies and present them for peer evaluation.



**Activity 5.** Study the sample of the lesson and write advantages and disadvantages of this lesson. To prevent weak points what supplementary material can you suggest?

## STUDENT WORKSHEET

Unit: Pumps

Section E: Group Work — Pump Mechanisms

Work in groups of 3 or 4.

Step 1: Each member of the group has a picture of a certain type of pump. Study your picture carefully.

Step 2: In your group, discuss:-

what components the pump consists of

How it works

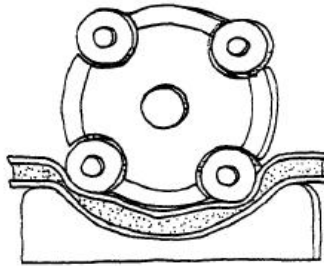
What advantages and disadvantages it has

What sort of jobs it might be used for.

Step 3: Draw a large-scale diagram of the pump. Label it and use arrows to show the flow of the fluid and the direction of the moving parts.

Step 4: Prepare a report, describing the pump. Consider all the points you discussed in Step 2 and put this information in your report.

Step 5: Using the diagram you have prepared, present your report to the class.



**Activity 6.** Imagine you have the first lesson with a group of adults. You know their age and profession. What will you pay attention to? Why? – write an essay (500 words).



### **Activity 7.**

A. Watch the video (<http://yandex.ru/video/search?text=english+for+academic+purposes>) and write an essay (1000 words) about forms and techniques of EAP teaching.

B. Design a mini module for EAP teaching in your university (10 hours).

### **Activity 8.**

Read information about medical writing (taken from: [www.infospaze.com/medical](http://www.infospaze.com/medical) writer). Design activities for teaching writing skills of medical personnel for four genres of medical writing.

A medical writer, working with doctors, scientists, and other subject matter experts, creates documents that effectively and clearly describe research results, product use, and other medical information. The medical writer also ensures that their documents comply with regulatory, journal, or other guidelines in terms of content, format, and structure. Medical writing as a function became established in the pharmaceutical industry, because the industry recognized that it requires special skills to produce well-structured documents that present information clearly and concisely. All new drugs go through the increasingly complex process of clinical trials and regulatory procedures that lead to market approval. This demand for the clear articulation of medical science drives the demand for well written, standards-compliant documents that medical professionals can easily and quickly read and understand. Similarly, medical institutions engage in translational research, and some medical writers have experience offering writing support to the principal investigators for grant applications and specialized publications.

Medical writing for the pharmaceutical industry can be classified as either regulatory medical writing or educational medical writing. Regulatory medical writing means creating the

documentation that regulatory agencies require in the approval process for drugs, devices and biologics. Regulatory documents can be huge and are formulaic. They include clinical study protocols, clinical study reports, patient informed consent forms, investigator brochures and summary documents that summarize and discuss the data a company gathers in the course of developing a medical product.

Educational medical writing means writing documents about drugs, devices and biologics for general audiences, and for specific audiences such as health care professionals. These include sales literature for newly launched drugs, data presentations for medical conferences, medical journal articles for nurses, physicians and pharmacists, programs and enduring materials for continuing medical education.

Other types of medical writing include journalism and marketing, both of which can have a medical writing focus. Regardless of the type of medical writing, companies either assign it to an in-house writer, or "outsource" it to a contract medical writer or medical writing service.

In order to guide medical students to writing, teachers may prepare efficient activities. Labeling a picture of one of the systems in the body is a typical activity for writing. It is particularly useful as a pre-reading task and students of all levels of proficiency seem to find it exciting. Model writing is another common writing task, e. g. definitions, writing a paragraph, describing a process, describing an event focusing on cause and effect. Occasionally tasks of the information transfer type are suggested, e. g. form-filling, describing diagrams. Some of the writing tasks concentrate on typical medical documentation, e. g. a letter of referral, a case report. Writing tasks that are primarily related to academic writing have also been included, e. g. writing a summary; for more advanced students: writing an argumentative essay; writing for the portfolio at the end of each unit. The aim of the portfolio is to bridge the textbook with extended extracurricular work and home assignments and it often encourages students to do research on the Internet, to work in pairs or small groups. While developing their portfolio

students search different websites, create their own materials and thus improve their autonomous learning skills.

**Key reading:**

1. Hutchinson T., Water A. English for Specific Purposes. – Cambridge: CUP, 1987.
2. Jordan R. R. English for Academic Purposes. A guide and resource book for teachers. – CUP. Online publication: November 2010. [http.: dx. doi. org/10. 1017. CB09780511733062](http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CB09780511733062).
3. Jalolov J. J., Makhkamova G. T., Ashurov Sh. S. English Language Teaching Methodology. –Tashkent: Fan va texnologiya, 2015.
4. Makhkamova G. T., Alimov Ah. S., Ziyayev A. L. Innovative pedagogical technologies in the English language teaching. –T.: Fan va texnologiya, 2017.
5. Salas S., Mercado L. A., et. al. English for specific purposes: Negotiating Needs, possibilities, and promises. //English Language Forum. N. 4. 2003. –Pp. 1219
6. [http://www. academia.edu/8519119/English\\_for\\_Specific\\_Purposes\\_Its\\_Definition\\_Characteristics\\_Scope\\_and\\_Purpose](http://www.academia.edu/8519119/English_for_Specific_Purposes_Its_Definition_Characteristics_Scope_and_Purpose).
7. [http://www. ehov. com/list\\_7251710\\_approaches-teaching-english-second-language. html](http://www.ehow.com/list_7251710_approaches-teaching-english-second-language.html).

## **THEME 10. ASSESSMENT AT HIGHER SCHOOLS**

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**Objectives of the lecture** are to familiarize students with types of assessment tools for theoretical and practical courses at the higher level of education, to develop analytical and constructive skills for designing assessment tools.

**Learning outcomes of the lecture:** By the end of the lecture students will be able to:

- understand modern requirements for assessment;



- identify functions, types, different approaches and techniques of assessment and ways of the oral and written feedback
- determine assessment tools on the basis of syllabus goals, objectives and learning outcomes;
- identify the international standards, forms of examination;
- use and design various assessment assignments and criteria of evaluation;
- analyze and use portfolio in the practice of study and teaching.

### **Questions to be discussed:**

1. Modern assessment requirements.
2. Assessment in theoretical and practical courses.
3. International standards.
4. Testing and its types.
5. Alternative assessment.

**Spark:** Discuss in the group innovations in the field of assessment taken place in educational system of Uzbekistan.

### **Input material:**

#### **1. Modern assessment requirements**

The term “assessment” can refer to the process that allow to grade students’ course assignments, to standardized testing imposed on institutions as part of increased pressure for external accountability, or to any activity designed to collect information on the success of a program, course, or curriculum. These varied uses have, unfortunately, moved us away from a focus on the central role that assessment should play at educational institutions – gathering of information to improve institutional practices.



Therefore, assessment is the systematic collection and analysis of information to improve students’ learning. Assessment links students’ performance to specific learning outcomes in order to provide useful feedback to an instructor and students about how successfully students meet these outcomes.

An effective instructor understands that it is not enough to present course material to students and hope that they get it, assuming that some will and some will not. Learning occurs when there is interplay between a teaching process and the outcome. When assessing learning, an instructor identifies specific goals and objectives for each course, systematically gauges the extent to which these anticipated outcomes actually occur and determines to what degree learning takes place.

It is important that learners know the criteria upon which their performance is being judged – whether this be communicative success, appropriate to context, accuracy in formal terms, or a combination of all these. The feedback provided by a teacher should aim to be relevant to the type of tasks in which learners are engaged.

The assessment directed to monitor students' progress under a learner-centered and communicative approaches should follow the given below requirements:

- monitor whether students are learning what they are being taught, and are able to perform communicative activities successfully at a level appropriate to their aspirations, achievements, and apparent potential;
- monitor the outcomes of students' own self or group-directed assignments;
- monitor students' language development;
- monitor the process by which a learner is learning.

Under suggested conditions the appropriate decisions should be made as how best to proceed an assessment.

Modern requirements to the levels of language proficiency according to the State Educational Standard (2013) demand a modern approach to the assessment which can cover not only the cognitive aspect of learning, but also invite learners to express how they feel about what they have been doing. At the result of reflecting their learning experience, they are expected to learn how to go about their learning tasks better, i. e. **to learn how to learn**. So, there is an emphasis on peer-evaluation and self-evaluation. There are certain

benefits of assessment for an instructor and students at higher schools (See the *Table 18*).

**Table 18. Benefits of assessment for students and an instructor**

<b>Benefits of Assessment for Students</b>	<b>Benefits of Assessment for an Instructor</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ clarifying their instructors' expectations for them</li> <li>■ focusing more on learning as they come to see the connection between learning and course content</li> <li>■ becoming more self-reflective learners</li> <li>■ understanding their own strengths and weaknesses as students</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ provide a more learning-centered, student-responsive classroom environment</li> <li>■ employ a variety of assessment techniques to stay on top of students' learning as it occurs</li> <li>■ adjust a teaching process to accommodate gaps in learning that can be tied to methods of instruction</li> <li>■ become more student-responsive in terms of facilitating learning and acquisition of knowledge</li> </ul>



What does assessment mean?

What are the functions of assessment?


Is it necessary to gather information about student-learning achievements?

What are benefits of assessment for students and teachers?

Why does the summative and final assessment give us evidence about the FLT results?


## **2. Assessment in theoretical and practical courses**

Lecture course-based assessment refers to methods of assessing students' learning within the classroom environment, using course goals, objectives and content to gauge the extent of the learning that is taking place (See: [www.umass.edu/. . ./course\\_based.pdf](http://www.umass.edu/. . ./course_based.pdf)).

	<p>At its most basic, the assessment process can be broken down into three parts:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. establishing student-learning goals and objectives for the course</li> <li>2. measuring whether these goals have been met</li> <li>3. using the results to improve teaching and learning in the course</li> </ol> <p>In formal assessment, these steps become more systematic and detailed to ensure clearly articulated links between what a lector wants students to learn and what students actually do learn</p>
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The most important is the stage “Identifying and Reviewing Existing Assessment Techniques” (taken from: [www.bqsha.ru/files/docs/faculties/izkim/pro](http://www.bqsha.ru/files/docs/faculties/izkim/pro)). This stage presupposes to identify what information a lector already collects about students’ progress and how these measures tie to the lector intended learning goals and objectives. Consider the following:

1. *What information on student-learning/performance do you currently collect (e. g., first-day surveys, class assignments, tests, etc.)?*
2. *How informative are each of these to understanding the student-learning process?*
3. *How do these data sources relate to your newly articulated goals and objectives?*
4. *Are there gaps between the information you collect and your course objectives?*
5. *What other information do you need to have to understand whether students are meeting these objectives?*

	<p>Lectors should keep in mind that existing assignments can be made more valuable by self-consciously linking them to the objectives they are designed to assess. For example, the grade for a final exam can be made more meaningful in determining the extent of student-learning if each construct or section of the exam is tied to specific,</p>
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	identified learning objectives for the course and a discrete score for each of these constructs is recorded separately.
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At this point in adapting a course to include classroom-based assessment a teacher has developed specific course goals for student-learning, outlined action-based course objectives to help a lector measure a student’s knowledge, behavior, and skills, and identified current assessment techniques.

The course syllabus is one of the first lines of communication between an instructor and students. The instructor will not be able to accurately assess student-learning without an effective syllabus that details course goals, expectations and requirements. These elements of the syllabus will serve as a starting point for implementing classroom assessment in the course.

For example, chances are that if the original syllabus does not state course goals, it may not be entirely clear to students how course goals and their own learning connect in the course. A good place to start is to develop a course skeleton that lists course goals and objectives and how each assignment will contribute to successful learning outcomes. The instructor should define when and how to assess. For this purpose he/she should answer the given in the chart below questions (taken from the [www.umass.edu/course\\_based.pdf](http://www.umass.edu/course_based.pdf)).

Classroom assessment can be conducted over the course of a semester or it can be done at a key moment during a specific part of class. Whether you assess student-learning on a longer-term basis or “at-the-moment” really depends on what you are trying to evaluate and learn. (As is true in research generally, the inquiry method you use is dependent upon the questions you want to answer.) Think about what you want to learn from assessment results. Key questions to consider are presented in the chart. Tick Yes or No.

1. Am I trying to gauge student-learning of class content in general?	Yes	No
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2. Do I care about the knowledge students bring into the classroom with them at the start of the semester compared to the learning they will take away with them at the end?	Yes	No
3. Does the extent of progress or improvement over a period of days or weeks matter?	Yes	No
4. Do I want to assess the level of students' reflective thinking about a particular reading assignment	Yes	No
5. Am I interested in specific areas of learning that I have identified as particularly relevant or important?	Yes	No
6. Am I concerned about how well students understand a complicated lecture?	Yes	No

A good starting point for classroom assessment is to gauge the level of knowledge and understanding that students bring into the classroom at the start of the course. A *background knowledge probe* asks students not only basic questions about previous coursework and preparation but also focuses on identifying the extent to which a student may or may not be familiar with key concepts that will be discussed in the course. Use the background knowledge probe at the beginning of the course, at the start of a new unit, or prior to introducing a new topic.

Data collected from the background knowledge probe can help the instructor:

- understand the difference between students' preparation and instructor expectations
- plan and prepare for upcoming topics or units to be covered in the course
- point out for students important areas in which they may lack basic knowledge and identify resources that they can access to improve their level of understanding

Knowing what a student brings to a course or a unit is important. Knowing what learning is taking place at a specific moment in class is equally valuable. Every instructor can identify key concepts within a course. Assessing the extent to which students understand these key concepts can be especially helpful in gauging whether students are “getting” course content, or moving through the semester without a solid base of understanding important fundamental concepts. This information can also help an instructor

to know whether to slow down, move faster or adjust his/her syllabus to accommodate disparities in learning. Assessment methods to gauge students' understanding of core concepts include primary trait analysis which can be organized through the following techniques:

- Chain Notes
- Classroom Opinion Polls
- Reading Reaction
- Paper Reaction
- Punctuated Lectures

Let's deal with these techniques in the detail (adapted from Angelo & Cross, *Classroom Assessment Techniques*, 1993).

### **1) Chain Notes**

To respond to Chain Notes, students in a lecture course pass around a large envelope on which a teacher has written one question about the class and/or teaching of the class. Students have all been given index cards beforehand. When an envelope reaches a student, he/she spends less than a minute writing a response to the question, then drops the card in the envelope and passes it on. This assessment technique results in a rich, composite record of each individual student's reactions to the class in action. In this way, Chain Notes allow teachers a view of their class through all their students' eyes. This technique is most useful in large lecture or lecture-discussion classes where many students have little direct contact with a teacher. When a lecturer reviews the cards in the envelope, he should categorize them into relevant groups: engaged/not engaged; interested/not interested; question/praise/neutral comment, etc. Then tries to detect patterns in responses and suggests discussing these patterns in students' feedback.

### **2) Classroom Opinion Polls**

A teacher may already use de facto opinion polling in his/her classes when a teacher asks students to raise their hands to indicate agreement or disagreement with a particular statement. An instructor should create a short survey (one or two questions) and ask students to complete it and hand it in. By making the Classroom

Opinion Polls anonymous, students can provide more honest and accurate results for a teacher.

Classroom Opinion Polling can help you discover students' opinions about course-related issues. In this way, you can better gauge where and how to begin teaching about issues that come up in students' responses, and where potential conflicts or divisions may arise. Students also learn about their own opinions, compare those opinions to others', and test their opinions against evidence and expert opinion. A number of universities use "class talk" to gather this type of information.

This technique is particularly useful in large lecture classes where there is only limited opportunity for students to express their thoughts, in preparation to discuss a controversial issue, or to assess students' opinions after you have presented class material. Use the Classroom Opinion Poll to evaluate student- learning over a period of time or over the course of a semester by creating a pre- and post-assessment poll. This assessment method will help a lector determine whether and how students' opinions have changed in response to class discussions and assignments.

### **3) Reading Reaction**

We often ask students to read and synthesize a wide variety of material during a course. Because the reading for one course is only part of the entire reading load a student may carry, the reading is often done in a hurry with the main purpose not to learn but "to get through it." This poses two problems:

1. A student is not reading to understand and gain knowledge, but reading to complete an assignment.
2. A student may not have the time or inclination to think critically about the reading, to judge its validity, or to evaluate its worth.

The reading reaction paper forces students to slow down the reading process and asks them to actually think about what they have read. It may be administered as a short homework assignment to be completed after the reading has been done or as an in-class assignment to stimulate class discussion. Typically, a reading reaction paper asks students to respond (or react) to the reading (i. e.,



what did the author say, did you agree with what was written, why/why not, etc.) in one page or less (typed or handwritten). Part of the class that day can be used to discuss students' reactions to the reading, or the papers can simply be passed in to provide feedback on students' levels of understanding. Either way, it is a good idea to record at least a pass/fail grade for these exercises to ensure students' commitment to the task.

The reading reaction paper helps students learn by:

- building skills needed for critical thinking and argument construction.
- encouraging students to take charge of a reading assignment and to judge its worth-asking students to “think” instead of simply taking in the words as they read.

#### **4) Paper Reaction Exercise**

In addition to asking students to analyze assigned reading, we can ask them to think critically about their own writing. The paper reaction exercise asks students to reflect back on a paper they have just written for course credit. It is usually administered during class just prior to when students turn in the paper and are attached to the paper for an instructor's information and feedback. To complete this activity, students might be asked to:

- think about and write a few sentences on what they really like about their papers
- write what they do not like about their papers and what they would change if they had the time
- reflect on one or two things about the subject that are still unclear even after writing their papers

This technique can be particularly effective when a lecturer has clearly stated objectives/grading criteria of the paper and ask students to evaluate their own paper using these criteria. The purpose of the paper reaction task is to:

- assess students' ability to reflect on what they have learned and how well they have transferred that learning into their own words
- allow an instructor greater insight into students' thinking processes as they relate to reading, writing and interpretation skills

– open up the opportunity for discussion about the assignment in general, the papers in particular and students’ response to it.

**5) The Punctuated Lecture** technique provides immediate, on-the-spot feedback on how students are learning from a lecture or a demonstration, and how their behavior may be influencing the process. It also encourages students to become self-monitoring listeners and self-reflective learners. This technique is designed for use in classes where lectures or lecture-demonstrations are a primary method of instruction.

This technique requires students and teachers to go through five steps:

1. Listen – students begin by listening to a lecture or demonstration
2. Stop – after a portion of the presentation has been completed, a lecturer stops for students’ reflection
3. Reflect – students reflect on what they have been doing during the presentation, and how their behavior may have helped or hindered their understanding of the information
4. Write – students write down any insights they have gained
5. Feedback – students give feedback to a teacher in the form of short anonymous notes

Punctuated lectures can be used to monitor student-listening skills throughout the course by asking students to save their written reflections in folders. After they have done several of these self-reflection assignments, a teacher asks students what they have written, looking for patterns and changes over time.

**6) Misconception/Preconception Check** is a way to assess what students bring with them into class, or how they are processing information at various points in the course. Used at the start of a course, the misconception/preconception check is a short survey, questionnaire or essay-type evaluation that asks students to comment on information and key points relevant to course content. Student answers provide the instructor with an understanding of the extent of “real” understanding or knowledge that students bring with them on the first day of class. It also offers information about misconceptions

students may also have, misconceptions that the instructor can subsequently address and clear up during class.

The misconception/preconception check can also be used at various points in the course to help assess whether: 1) misconceptions are clearing up or growing; 2) preconceptions are being reshaped; 3) students are improving in their ability to assess relevant course content and filter out untruths or inaccuracies

**7) Primary trait analysis**, adapted by Walvoord and McCarthy (cited in Walvrood & Anderson, 1998) combines traditional grading practices with class-room-based assessment. This technique asks the instructor to link specific goals and objectives outlined for a particular course assignment to varying levels of achievement (e. g., excellent, good, fair, poor). These levels are based on the degree to which the student has met the identified learning outcomes for the assignment. To conduct this activity, the instructor: 1) breaks down individual components, or primary traits, of an assignment that are key to successfully meeting assignment requirements; 2) identifies levels of achievement for each trait; 3) constructs a grid (rubric) on which student achievement is scored.

For example, an essay for an English course might be analyzed for primary traits and levels of achievement as follows:

**Primary trait analysis: 5-Excellent 4-Good 3-Adequate 1-Poor** Argument Grammar Conclusion **Trait 2-Weak** Introduction Tone.

The instructor would then check off the score for each of the five primary traits listed as important for the assignment, with a minimum total score of 5 (poor) and a maximum total score of 25 (excellent). In this way, this activity can reduce some of the subjectivity in grading and facilitate more reliable tracking of student progress on important course objectives throughout individual assignments.

**8) Minute paper** is one of the most widely-used and accepted methods of classroom assessment. This method offers a quick and easy way to assess student learning at a particular point in time. Credited to Angelo & Cross (1993), the minute paper not only provides helpful feedback but requires little time or effort to

administer. Several minutes before the end of class, the teacher might stop his/her lecture or end the discussion to ask students to take one or two minutes to answer, in writing, several questions about the day's work. These questions might include "What is the most important thing you learned in today's class?" or "Do you still have questions about the material we covered today?" Students respond on a sheet of paper and hand them in before leaving.



Assessment in a large lecture class can be approached through:

- devising strategies to increase students' involvement and make the class more interactive, thus providing increased opportunity for assessment and evaluation
- adopting assessment techniques designed to give a lector and students quick, effective and constructive feedback on the teaching and learning process.

Breaking a lecture class into interactive, self-directing groups is another strategy that can make even large classes more participatory. If the chairs are bolted to the floor in rows or if there is auditorium-style seating, students can still talk in pairs. Many teachers use *intermittent small-group interaction* to break up the lecture and to allow time to assess student-learning at a more personal level. For example, some teachers stop their lecture several times during the class to ask students to compare and rework their class notes. Another strategy is to write questions on the overhead projector and then ask students to form pairs to discuss the question. The lector may ask some pairs to report to the entire class.

The next strategy for making large classes more interactive and, thus, facilitating the assessment process is to give *formative, ungraded quizzes* to determine how students comprehend course material. Using the kinds of questions that students might see on your exams, place questions on the overhead, and then give students a few minutes to respond. If the question entails multiple choices,

break the question down into components that students can quickly answer. The preview of students' answers can help you determine students' understanding of the course content and show students' problem areas that warrant further study.

The last strategy for making large lecture classes more interactive, and creating more opportunity for assessment, is to build **in tasks that ensure students come prepared to a lab or discussion section**. Time can be taken during lecture to ask students to complete a few questions, talk with a neighbor, or sketch out a lab procedure to prepare them for the lab or discussion to come. Another device for interactive learning in a large class is for a lab instructor or discussion leader to collect a "ticket" from each student before a student is allowed into class. The "ticket" might be a short statement of basic principles a student should have learned from reading or at the lecture, thus showing the instructor that a student is prepared.

Feedback in the practical language courses has two main components: assessment and correction. In assessment a learner is simply informed how well or badly he/she has performed. In correction, some specific information is provided on aspects of a learner's performance: through explanation, or provision of better or other alternatives, or through elicitation of these from a learner. Note that in principle correction can and should include information on what a learner did right, as well as wrong, and 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 (Ur 1991: 242).

On the whole, we give feedback on oral work through speech, on written work through writing; and although there are occasional situations where we might do it the other way round (for example, discuss an essay with a student in a one-to-one tutorial, or write a letter providing feedback on speech) these are very much the exceptions and will not be dealt with in this unit and the next.

There are some situations where we might prefer not to correct a learner's mistake: in fluency work, for example, when a 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 (Ur P. A Course in Language Teaching Pedagogy: Practice and Theory. – CUP, 1991).

A teacher needs a clear idea of what they are measuring in the performance, and students should be given feedback that they can understand.

Some ways to provide better feedback in direct assessment include:

- using a scoring rubric,
- sharing the rubric with students before the test,
- having students use the rubric to rate their own or peers performance,
- having students design the rubric, and
- rating selectively rather than providing feedback on everything. Rubrics

Rubrics or scales are commonly used in direct assessment. Teachers may design their own rubrics, have students develop them, or adapt rubrics found elsewhere. It is important to be very conscious of the criteria and language features in a rubric. They should match what has been covered in the class and what you think language is. If points are given for each feature in the rubric, analytic scoring, this distribution should make sense.



What steps are considered by instructors for planning assessment tools?

What techniques can be used during lecture course?

Why should we pay more attention to fluency than accuracy (language correctness) in the English classrooms?

What forms of assessment are used in the English language classrooms?

Why should students know the criteria of evaluation?

What is specificity of our rating system?

### **3. International standards**

The testing industry has become more popular nowadays, especially, under implementation of the international standards of

evaluation the level of FL proficiency; in our conditions it is CEFR standard adapted to the national context. It is important to understand how large-scale standardized tests fit within the larger category of assessment. Tests are tools used to assess knowledge, skills, and abilities, and different tests have different purposes (Derrick, 2013), as indicated below:

1) Classroom tests allow teachers to assess students' knowledge or abilities, usually in relation to content covered in the class, and to design grades to students. Test and test items (questions on the test) can take many forms: multiple choice, fill in the blanks, cloze exercises, short answers and essays, to name a few. Other types of alternative classroom assessment include portfolios, interviews and surveys.

2) Program and institutional tests are generally given for admission to special programs, for placement within programs, for monitoring students within a program, or for exiting students from a program. These tests extent beyond the boundaries of the individual classroom but rarely have any significance or recognition beyond the program itself.

3) Finally, there are the large-scale, standardized tests, such as the TOEFL, TOEIC, IELTS, PTE, and Cambridge exams (KET, PET, FCE, etc.) These tests are considered to be high stakes in that the results are often used to make decisions that can significantly impact a test-taker's education, career, or life.

IELTS – International English Language Testing System
TOEIC – Test of English for International Communication
TOEFL – Test of English as a Foreign Language
PTE – Pearson Test of Academic English
Cambridge English Examination: KET– Key English Test. PET– Preliminary English Test. FCE– First Certificate in English. Upper-intermediate level.



They are all criterion-referenced exams, which mean that the test-takers are compared against common criteria or a set of standards rather than against one another, as in norm-referenced exams. Scores from these tests are generally recognized by several institutions or universities. The tests themselves are all based on research that is available to the public and are informed by advances in the field of SLT/FLT by input from applied linguistics experts, and by cutting-edge methods of test development.



What international standards do you know?  
What do we mean by standardized tests?  
What is specificity of CEFR assessment?

#### **4. Testing and its types**

A language test is a tool for measuring language performance in learners (Bachman and Palmer 1997: 8). A fundamental principle in language testing is “correspondence between language test performance and real world language use” (Bachman and Palmer 1997: 9-12).

According to Penny Ur (2003:34), test may be defined as an activity the main purpose of which is to convey how well students know or can do something. Role of tests as means of teaching is very useful and important, especially in FLT. Teachers use different techniques of assessment during teaching process including the self-evaluation technique which is liked and favored by students very much. But at present the key place in summative and final assessment is taken by tests.



There are many types of tests in English:

- Inaccurate tests;
- Diagnostic tests;
- Placement tests;
- Progress test;



- Achievement tests;
- Proficiency tests and others

**Proficiency tests** measure learners' language ability regardless of the training they may have had or the vocabulary and topics they may have studied. Proficiency tests are not based on the contents of a language course but rather on the general knowledge of the target language and culture. **Achievement tests** are directly related to the language courses taught to the examinees. The purpose of achievement tests is to judge upon the success of individual learners or groups in achieving the objectives of the language course. Achievement tests are always "course related" meaning course contents and objectives. **Diagnostic tests** identify students' strengths and weaknesses. They provide teachers with the information on what further teaching is necessary and what problems students might have in coping with the instruction demands. **Placement tests** provide information that helps to place students at the most suitable stage of the teaching curriculum, bearing in mind their level of the language achieved so far (Adapted from Hughes, 1996: 9-21).

Students are usually given formal tests and examinations from time to time. A teacher gives regular informal tests to monitor students' progress. They also motivate students to learn better. Tests often focus on linguistic material, but it is necessary to test skills as well as knowledge of the language.

Today the often posed question is whether tests should be mirrors of reality.



For that purpose while organizing communicative activities for development of language skills and testing within Communicative language learning the following features should be taken into account:

- the interaction-based nature of communication;
- the behavior-based nature of interaction.
- context (extra-linguistic);
- purpose, intentions;
- authenticity.

Text qualities include among others reliability, validity, consistency and practicality. **Reliability** is permanence of the measurement results produced by a test. Testing productive skills such as speaking and creative writing is less reliable than testing listening and reading. E. g. there is always more room for subjectivity in assessing an essay than a dictation. “Reliability” is the opposite of “randomness” in the marking given by teachers or examiners. **Consistency** is agreement between parts of the test. All the tasks in a consistent test have the same level of difficulty for learners. Some tests are more difficult to make consistent than others, e. g. a dictation will contain the words with a different level of difficulty for spelling. **Construct validity** pertains to whether the text measures what it claims to measure. If a test claims to measure such “construct” as “oral” skill, then a valid test should measure exactly an “oral skill” but not other “constructs” such as the “knowledge of grammar”. **Concurrent validity** is the coincidence of the test scores with other measures of learners’ language performance, e. g. a teacher’s marks (Alderson, et. al., 1996: 286). **Practicality** is the degree to which a test can be used as a convenient tool for measuring language performance. If a test needs much preparation time, or requires too long time at the lesson, it will be perceived as “impractical” (Bachman & Palmer, 1997:19-42).



What is testing?  
What format of tests have you learned?  
What do we mean by the communicative tests?

## **5. Alternative assessment**

Alternative assessment is a useful means of gathering evidence regarding how learners approach, process, and complete real life tasks in the target language. Labels such as performance, authentic, informal, and situated, have been used to describe alternative assessment. Despite different labels, what is common among these types of assessment is that they do not adhere to the traditional testing criteria of objectivity, machine scorability, standardization, or cost-effectiveness.

Alternative assessment uses a wide variety of formats, such as checklists, journals, reading logs, portfolios, and video of role-plays, audio-tapes of discussion, self-evaluation questionnaire, teacher-observations, and anecdotal records to assess the performance of students. These formats show what students can actually do rather than what they are able to recall. Alternative assessment reflects the curriculum being taught and provides information on the strengths and weaknesses of each student. Furthermore, it provides multiple ways of determining the progress of students and can be more culturally sensitive and free of the linguistic and cultural biases inherent in traditional testing.

According to Ghazi Ghaith (2002:26-27), alternative assessment is closely intertwined with classroom instructions. It does not require a separate block of time to be administered because it is based on day-to-day instructional activities. Finally, alternative assessment provides valid and reliable documentation of students' achievements and progress. This is because it utilizes multiple sources of evidence based on students' products and performance tasks.

One of the most important attributes of successful learning is self-awareness – the ability to reflect on own learning and so gradually improve and develop own language skills. In this case Language

Portfolio is considered an innovative technology in the system of FL teaching and assessment. The basic idea of a language portfolio is to provide a much wider range of evidences of the language skills of a student. Language portfolio involves scoring a wide range of students' works based on predetermined criteria. All students can have benefits from this type of self-assessment, because it offers students an opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned and experienced with the target language.

The portfolio process reviews a comparatively large body of a learner's work, rather than a one off performance, to evaluate performance over a course of study. In other words, this is a qualitative – rather than quantitative – assessment tool which we can use to identify 'progress' and 'development' during the time frame represented by the work in the portfolio.

In ELT, research indicates that the portfolio process is beneficial when compared to traditional assessment, because its emphasis is on students' strengths as opposed to their weaknesses. The portfolio process is considered a more holistic and equitable approach than traditional quantitative testing methods, which receive criticism as the sole criterion for evaluating performance, in that it encourages self-esteem and the motivation to continue developing.



Unlike traditional testing methods, alternative assessment techniques are in general performance-based reviews that focus on real-world tasks to display abilities. Students are evaluated based on observing performance of activities that demonstrate essential skills or knowledge. In other words, there is a practical point to evaluating the extent to which a learner can do the task.

Methods such as utilizing learners' portfolios rely on direct observation, using checklists and rubrics. This can, therefore, be thought of as authentic assessment, in that this is a more individual evaluation approach that replicates the real world. Furthermore, we, in our role as the assessors, are able to avoid communication problems that arise in traditional testing modes.

Alternative assessment methods such as portfolios by and large necessitate the active participation of learners in the evaluation process. This naturally translates into greater interaction between learners and teachers. Another benefit is that learners become more engaged in the learning process, as well as building up a more intimate understanding of the particular skills and critical knowledge being appraised.

By increasing the involvement of learners in the evaluation process, they gain a better understanding of their personal strengths and weakness.

As we're aware, we constantly feel the need to evaluate our learners' performance. The good news for those of us who love gap fill is this: don't ditch them! The use of both alternative assessment and traditional evaluation methods can provide educators a more wide-ranging and all-inclusive representation of a learner's ability than either testing method might provide if used alone.

When deciding which category of assessment to use, it is important for teachers to remember that there is no definitive right or wrong assessment tool. Instead, use of alternative and traditional assessment methods should be based on the needs of our particular students.

Let's touch upon portfolio more details, because portfolio analysis is becoming an increasingly popular method of assessment, both at the classroom and the program level. Portfolio analysis looks at students' work during a period of time and evaluates the extent of learning based on the progression of the work from the first assignment until the last. At the classroom level, this might include a series of writing assignments of increasing difficulty or all work that a student has produced for a particular course. At the program level, the portfolio might include all key pieces of work that a student has completed for the major.

The advantages of the portfolio as a method of longer-term assessment include:

- A visual representation of student-learning from beginning to end;

- A concrete way to track and document students’ progress over a period of time;
- A hard copy record of tasks and output for students to retain for future reference and use;
- A systematic progression of tasks that can be linked to course goals and objectives and interpreted in the context of whether each was accomplished;
- An opportunity for students to reflect on their own progress as they review their portfolio.

A key piece in portfolio work is getting students to analyze and reflect on their portfolio – what they can see that they’ve learned, what doesn’t it tell them about what they’ve learned, and how they can document the progression of their ideas and work from the beginning of the course until the end.

Portfolio work offers not only an opportunity for an instructor to see the progression of students’ performance over time, but can also help students see the value of reflecting back on their own work.



What is an alternative assessment?

What forms of an alternative assessment are used in teaching at higher schools?

Why is the language portfolio considered as an innovative technology? Give your arguments.

Why is an alternative assessment more successful in comparison with traditional assessment?

**Follow-up activities:**

**Activity 1.**

A. For testing speaking skills ask your partner to explain to you how to make a nice omelet. In assessing fluency use the following grades. Reflect on this tool for assessment.

5. Speech is as effortless and smooth as a native speaker’s
4. Speech is effortless and smooth but non-native in evenness
3. Speech is frequently hesitant and jerky
2. Speech is very slow and uneven except for routine sentences

1. Speech is halting and fragmentary, making conversation impossible

A speaker has a plan of the room. A listener (an examiner) has a blank sheet of paper. The speaker has to instruct the listener how to reproduce the plan as accurately as possible on the blank sheet of paper without seeing it. As an examiner, produce a scoring matrix with a list of the language, that you expect to be used by the test-taker beginning has been done for you. While listening to your partner, tick off the language items that your partner has actually used. Run the activity and reflect on this tool of the scoring procedure. (Formats of oral tasks with scoring matrixes can be found in the book: Brown G. & Yule G., 1997).

B. Ask your peer to share with you “the most memorable event of yesterday”. Use the criteria of the “top performance” given below to assess the performance of your partner. Reflect on the criteria as the assessment tool taken from A. Hughes (Testing for language Teachers. CUP, 1996: 102).

Accuracy	Pronunciation is clearly intelligible. Grammatical and lexical accuracy is generally high. There are some errors that do not destroy communication.
Appropriateness	The language is generally appropriate to function. The overall intention of a speaker is always clear.
Range	A fair range of language is available to a candidate. No overt search for words is evident.
Flexibility	A candidate is able to take the initiative in the conversation, to adapt to new topics, to change the subject.
Size	Language turns are fairly short but there is some evidence that more complex utterances and longer discourse can be produced.

**Activity 2.** For assessment of reading skills.

A. The following operations are necessary to test if the task is to evaluate candidates’ language performance in reading: scanning the text to locate specific information, skimming the text to obtain the gist, identifying examples in support of an argument, restoring the sequencing relations between parts of the text, inferring from the

text. Techniques for testing reading include multiple-choice, sequencing, cloze, information transfer, comments, drawing conclusions. In the multiple choice tests candidates give evidence of successful reading by ticking off one out of a number of alternatives (usually out of three, four or five alternatives). True-False questions are just a variety of the multiple choice format. E. g. “Choose the picture (A, B, C, D), which the following text describes”. In the cloze test the task is to complete the gaps in the text.

Do the following cloze activity and reflect on the problems you had with completing the gaps in the text. *“A man goes out of prison ... twenty years. He decides to go ... to the neighborhood where he lived. ... he gets there he cannot ... the place. Everything has changed a .... The places he used to ... have all disappeared. Even the pub has .... He is very tired and would like to have ... to eat. He goes into a small ... and has a coffee and a sandwich. When he takes ... his wallet he finds a ... ticket in it. He then remembers that the ... thing he had done before being arrested was to take a ... of shoes to the shoemaker's. He ... to go there and try. What a wonderful thing! The shoemaker is still at the ... place. He gets into the shop and tells the ... that about twenty years before he ... him a pair of shoes to have them .... The shoemaker has a look at the ticket and ...: "O. K. Come back tomorrow. They will be ready then. " Some things ... change” (Answer key: after, back, when, recognize, lot, know, moved, something, cafe, out, shoe, last, pair, decides, old, shoemaker, gave, fixed, says, never).*

**B. Information transfer** demands on candidates to supply information from the text in a table, map, picture etc.

Read the text and draw a picture of the eye from description.

<b>Text</b>	<b>Picture</b>
<p><i>“The eye is the second most complex part of the body after the brain. We all have a blind spot in each eye where the optic nerve leaves the back of the eye-ball – the retina. The iris (the colored part of the eye) consists of more than 25, 000 nerve endings, all of which are connected to the brain. There is a small</i></p>	



*opening in the front part of the eye-ball – the cornea, through which the light gets into the eye and onto the retina. This opening is covered with a lens. The eyelid covers two-thirds of the eye-ball”*

**C. Restoring the sequencing relations between the parts of the text** can be done in at least two ways. Candidates can be given a rambling order of text fragments, which they are expected to rearrange in the correct sequence. As an alternative, candidates are given a text and a separate passage. Their task is to decide where in the text this separate passage belongs.

Sequence correctly the sentences of the given text. Work individually. The limit of time is three minutes. The first choice has been done for you.

a) <i>The bus driver said, "That's the ugliest baby I've ever seen. "</i>	<b>1b</b>
b) <i>A woman got on a bus, holding a baby...</i>	<b>2</b>
c) <i>The man said, "Why, he's a public servant and shouldn't say things to insult passengers. "</i>	<b>3</b>
d) <i>"That's a good idea, " the man said.</i>	<b>4</b>
e) <i>"Here, let me hold your donkey. "</i>	<b>5</b>
f) <i>In a huff, the woman slammed her fare into the fare box and took an aisle seat.</i>	<b>6</b>
g) <i>"The bus driver insulted me, " she fumed.</i>	<b>7</b>
h) <i>"You're right, " she said. "I think I'll go back up there and give him a piece of my mind. "</i>	<b>8</b>
i) <i>The man seated next to her sensed that she was agitated and asked her what was wrong.</i>	<b>9</b>

**Activity 3.** Comments usually require the world knowledge. Candidates can be given a text and are asked to explain the meaning of certain words or circumstances. For this they will have to display their historical, social or cultural background.

Describe the situations, in which the following signs may appear. What does this test check?

Signs	Comments
<p>a) <i>Helmets must be worn on site.</i>            b) <i>Silence is requested during services.</i>            c) <i>We regret that goods can not be exchanged.</i>            d) <i>A service charge will be automatically added to your bill.</i>            e) <i>Private.</i>            f) <i>Thieves will be prosecuted.</i>            g) <i>These premises are under electronic surveillance.</i>            h) <i>Keep clear.</i>            i) <i>The management can not be held responsible for the theft.</i></p>	

**Activity 4.** For testing listening skills.

All the tasks that have been set for listening should be done “while-listening”. The tape is usually played twice. A couple of minutes are allowed after the tape has been stopped for the test-takers to go over their answers once again. Candidates are to perform the following operations: listen for specific details, obtaining a gist of what they hear, follow directions, follow instructions, interpret the text. Techniques for testing listening can include multiple-choice, sequencing, information transfer, instruction and direction following, comments, drawing conclusions (Hughes, A. 1996. Testing for language teachers. CUP. P. 134-140).

Follow the directions given by J. Heaton (Classroom Testing. Longman. 199: 50), draw a map and put a cross where the bank is.

*Get off the bus, turn right, go up nearest crossing, far corner of next crossing – supermarket. Down – roundabout. Cross the street on which you stay. Take left, then right. Go straight. Second building from the corner. NatWest Bank.*

**Street map:**

**Activity 5.** For testing writing skills.

The following tasks are taken from popular tests: “You are asked to give a talk about your life abroad. Write down what you will tell the people”, “Write your own thoughts on the saying “Brevity is the mother of talent”, “Being born into a wealthy family: a curse or a blessing?” etc.

“**Testing writing** can include the operations of **completing, describing, explaining, comparing and contrasting, reasoning** on paper in written form. **Completion** is done with the forms that may turn out to be useful in the real world. E. g. You want to join a travel club so that you can travel cheaper. Complete the application form:

- Mr. or Ms.

---

- Family name

---

- Date of birth

---

- Nationality

---

- Present address

---

- Occupation

---

- Which UK airport will be most convenient for you?

---

- Which county/s are you intending to travel to?

---

- Proposed date of departure

---

- Proposed duration of stay outside the UK

---

- Reason for journey

---

- How do you intend to pay for your ticket (in cash, by check, etc.)?

---

- How did you hear of our travel club?

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- Date I\_\_ \_\_ I\_\_ \_\_ I\_\_ \_\_ I\_\_ \_\_  
Signature

**Describing** format is used to test students' abilities to describe their message to an addressee. E. g. You have got a picture that you want your friend to use as a logo. There is no way you can show the picture. Write a description of the image that you want to be used as a logo. **Explaining** format is often used in the "letter-of-complaint" task. The subject of testing in this case can be the ability of the test-takers to describe the matter of complaint and the ways to put it right. **Contextual** format means that the examinees are given brief notes of a public address and the task is to "unfold" these brief entries into full text. **Written response** format consists of the task to read a letter from an official or a clerk and to write a response, focusing on the chunks of the text, which have been underlined. The "legend" for the response is provided. This can be "biography data", "previous letter sent to the clerk by the test-taker", "background situation for this exchange of letters" etc. **Comparing and contrasting** format is used to test the ability to write a "balanced argument", in which all "pros" and "cons" are equally represented. **Reasoning** is tested in writing essays (techniques of "testing writing" can be found in Hughes, A. 1996. Testing for language teachers. CUP. P. 75-100).

Write six short stories (each student writes only one story), describing the experience on the road and having in mind one of the given headings A-F. Do not write heading! Put your stories together and try to match the numbers of the texts and the headings. Have you been successful in writing the text adequate to the chosen heading?

- A. *Driving on an icy road.*
- B. *An accident on the road.*
- C. *A jam on the road.*
- D. *A terrible fog.*
- E. *Your old car.*
- F. *Coming to help.*

**Activity 6.** For testing language sub-skills.

A. **Testing grammar** can be done with **multiple choice** items, **paraphrase** (say it differently using a different beginning of the sentence or a different word), **sentence completion**, **cloze procedure** (e. g. testing the knowledge of prepositions or articles), **error correction** etc.

Read the text below and look carefully into each line. Some of the lines are correct, and some have a word, which should not be there. If a line is correct, put a tick **X**. If a line has a word that should not be there, write this word in the right column.

Sentences	Tick or word
<p>a) <i>Last Sunday was definitely not a good day for me.</i>            b) <i>It was all started when I got into my car and it refused to start.</i>            c) <i>I immediately realized that I had left the lights on.</i>            d) <i>I telephoned to my friend and he came round and helped me start it.</i>            e) <i>I then drove into town to see my brother.</i>            f) <i>I waited for him for an hour despite of the freezing weather</i>            g) <i>There was nothing I could do but drive back home</i>            h) <i>He did not even apologize himself for not waiting for me</i></p>	

(After Paran A. 1996. *First Certificate Gold. Practice Exam. Longman. P. 41*).

B. **Testing vocabulary** is essential to demonstrate linguistic skills. Test tasks can include **synonyms** (Choose the alternative ABCD, which is closest in meaning to the given words. E. g. Gleam: a/shine, b/glitter, c/glare, d/glittering. Answer key: “gleam” has the implication of feeling joy. That is why “shining” is closest in meaning to it). **Definition** task can have a multiple choice format (“Loathe” means a/ to dislike intensely, b/ to hate the look of, c/ to feel sick at the smell of. Answer key: “to dislike intensely” is the best definition). **Gap filling or cloze procedure** can also be used in testing the vocabulary. Tasks with **pictures** can be as follows: Write down the names of the objects that you see in the picture. This technique is restricted to concrete nouns. Another technique is **elicit words from definitions** (E. g. ... is a person who performs

operations on patients... is what becomes of boiling water ... is what a coward needs. Answer key: surgeon, steam, courage).

Read the text below and decide which answers *a,b,c,d* best fit each space.

Text	Answers
<p><i>The findings of a 1 ... survey showed that teenagers do not spend as much money as their parents suspect. The survey 2 ... three hundred teenagers from 3 ... Britain. Although they have more cash, worry about debt is 4 ... among the teenagers. The economic recession seems to have encouraged 5 ... attitudes to money.</i></p>	<p>1. a/late b/recent c/latest d/fresh            2. a/included b/contained c/counted d/numbered            3. a/entire b/all over c/complete d/the whole            4. a/gaining b/heightening            c/increasing d/building            5. a/careful b/suspicious c/reserved d/cautious</p>

(After Paran A. 1996. *First Certificate Gold. Practice Exam. Longman. P. 16-17*)

**Activity 7.** Choose a test and administer it in your classroom or among your peers. Indicate the **goal** of testing (speaking, writing, reading or listening, vocabulary or grammar), the testing **format** (multiple choice etc.) and the **contents** of testing (make concrete the grammar subject or the area of topical vocabulary, the oral topic, the subject of the text for listening or reading etc). Complete the following chart:

Goal of testing	
Format of testing	
Contents of testing	
Language level of the test	
Individual scoring (mean)	
Test discrimination index	
Highest result	
Typical errors	
Recommendations	

### Activity 8. Integrated task

- Describe your testing situation (whom you are going to test, where and when)
- Describe the goal of your testing
- Give a rationale for testing as related to your goal
- Describe the format of the chosen test
- Describe the testing procedure (the number of learners, the time of the day and the duration of testing)
- Describe the results of test analysis
- Give recommendations for further teaching.



**Activity 9.** Watch the video by Jeremy Harmer “The Practice of the English Language Teaching. Mistakes and Feedback” (<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yabHZHr7Klo>) and write a list of techniques for feedback and errors correction described in the video.

### Activity 10.

A. Study the Word Knowledge Matrix (See: Vocabulary Games: More than Just Wordplay by Lorenzutti//English Teaching Forum, V. 54, No 4, 2016:3) and define criteria for evaluation of vocabulary skills.

	<b>Recognize</b>	<b>Recall</b>	<b>Produce</b>
Phonological form			
Orthographic form			
Conceptual meaning			
Part of speech			
Register			
Lexical field			
Collocations			
Frequency of usage			

B. Work out the assessment and evaluation tools for a lecture which you want.

### Key reading:

1. Educational Testing service. // TOEFL iBT Sample questions. Princeton. NJ: ETS, 2013. [www.ets.org.toefl.ibt/prepare/sample-questions](http://www.ets.org/toefl-ibt/prepare/sample-questions).

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3. Hedge T. *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000. –Pp. 375-378, 384-401.
4. Fulcher G., Davidson F. *The Routledge Handbook of Language Testing*. –London: Routledge, 2012.
5. Heaton J. B. *Classroom Testing*. –New York: Longman Publishing, 1990.
6. Hughes A. *Testing for Language Teachers*. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003.
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8. Nichols J. O. *A practitioner’s handbook for institutional effectiveness and student outcomes assessment implementation*. (3rd. ed.). –New York: Agathon Press, 1995.
9. Shay S. *Portfolio assessment for program evaluation*.// *Assessment Update*. 1997, (9), 2. – Pp. 8-9, 13.
10. Walvoord B. E., Anderson V. J. *Effective grading: A tool for learning and assessment*. –San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1998.
11. Wright B. D. *Evaluating learning in individual courses*. //In *Handbook of the undergraduate curriculum*. J. G. Gaff & J. L. Ratcliff (Eds.). – San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1997. –Pp. 571-590.

## **THEME 11. EDUCATION-METHODOLOGICAL COMPLEX: DESIGN AND EVALUATION**

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**Objectives of the lecture** are to familiarize learners with the main constituents of the education-methodological complex (EMC) or course design and train them to select material, design and evaluate EMC, course syllabus and materials.



**Learning outcomes of the lecture:** By the end of this lesson, students will be able to

- recognize/know differences between curriculum, syllabus, course;
- understand the EMC and syllabus structure and content;
- evaluate teaching materials presented in the EMC and CB;
- select and adapt teaching material for a certain context of teaching;
- design course curriculum and EMC for a theoretical and practical course;
- identify assessment tools, evaluation criteria and create them.

### **Questions to be discussed:**

1. Modern requirements to education-methodological provision.
2. Design of an education-methodological complexes.
3. Evaluation of teaching material.
4. Constructing a module and a case.

### **Spark:**

1. Reflect on the questions:

How would you define the terms “course program”, “curriculum”, “syllabus”, “education-methodological complex” based on your academic experience? What should, or may, each item contain?

Why should we know how to design EMC?

What does EMC include?

### **Input material:**

#### **1. Modern requirements to education-methodological provision**

Modernization of higher education in the Republic of Uzbekistan put the foundation for designing up-to-date printed and electronic education-methodological complexes (EMC).

EMC is the aggregate of standard, organizational, regulatory and teaching materials in **printed** or **electronic** version, which is represented as a structure of didactic components or modules for

conducting all types of lessons and the assessment of students in certain subjects and aims in more complete implementation of educational and training tasks proposed by the curriculum.

**Electronic education-methodological complex (EEMC)** is a multimedia software product for educational purposes, ensuring the continuity and completeness of the didactic cycle of the learning process and containing organizational and systematized theoretical, practical, control materials based on the principles of interactivity, information openness, remoteness and formalization of knowledge assessment procedures.

The EMC and the training materials included in it should provide for a coherent presentation of the teaching material, reflect the current level of the development of science, using modern methods and technical means of instruction that allow undergraduates to learn the material and learn how to use it in practice.



EMC is constructed on the basis of the higher education regulations (See government legislation document related to EMC design as project, 2017), educational program or syllabus as regulatory, management and instructional document, defined content, capacity, teaching and learning order as well as algorithm of knowledge and skills obtaining taking into consideration students' future specialty.

Program, in its most simple, essential, commonly understood form, is the "what" of education. It is crucial to academic performance and essential to culturally responsive pedagogy. Even the most "standard" curriculum decides whose history is worthy of study, whose books are worthy of reading, which curriculum and text selections that include myriad voices and multiple ways of knowing, experiencing, and understanding life can help students to find and value their own voices, histories, and cultures. In other words, the curriculum is a program of instruction and education whose purpose is to achieve broad goals and related specific

objectives which are planned in terms of a framework of theory, research and professional practice.

Thus, the program with the teaching plan is a normative document that defines the content, scope, order of studying and teaching discipline, as well as an organizational document regulating the order of mastering the educational material that meets the requirements of the State Educational Standard and takes into account the specifics of training undergraduates in a chosen field or specialty.

In Master's course, significant results and rationality of education process are achieved through theoretical courses on philological disciplines, in which the theoretical conception of the disciplines is formed and acquired for their further application. The attention to the theoretical level in education is paid, firstly, due to reasons of conducting further research work and, secondly, it serves as a base for potential philologists.

EMC are worked out by a teacher(s) of the department which provides the teaching of the discipline according to the State Educational Standard and curriculum of masters' training for a certain discipline.

The main functions of the EMC are: 1) informative, involving the inclusion in the content of the EMC of the necessary array of scientific knowledge; 2) transformational, adapted to the level of study at the magistracy; 3) systematizing, designed to structure the educational material into a system for complex perception; 4) organizational and procedural, providing guidance to the educational process; 5) fixing and self-control assimilation of material; 6) self-educational, allowing to use this material for independent work, i. e. as an autonomous means of teaching; 7) research, providing a high theoretical level of the material presented and the formation of research skills and abilities for undergraduates; 8) integrating, revealing the place of the academic discipline in the system of sciences; 9) coordinating, determining the place and importance of the created teaching aids, forms and methods of teaching (compare with Likov, 2008:9).

EMC correlates with course design. Before an EMC included only Syllabus, Coursebook, Work book and Teacher's book. But nowadays it includes other components.



- Why do teachers need constructing EMC?
- Do teachers create EMC for practical and theoretical courses?
- What functions does EMC fulfill?

## 2. Design of an education-methodological complexes



According to requirements of the Ministry of the Higher and Secondary Specialized Education of the Republic of Uzbekistan, EMC consists of

- syllabus;
- teaching material;
- material for independent study
- glossary
- basic and additional sources
- assessment tools
- supplementary material

EMC presupposes 1) introducing the teaching material in the logical sequence, 2) reflection of modern trends of science development, 3) using innovation technologies, 4) obtaining teaching material for vocational application.

EMC design for theoretical courses proposes the following stages: 1) working out the syllabus for the subject which is included in the MA curriculum for a certain specialty; 2) designing the lectures and preparation theoretical material (of the lectures) and practical ones for the seminars on the subject according to the State Educational Standards or curriculum; 3) defining the course work and MA thesis themes, didactical and assessment materials, etc.

In the chart you will see the stages of projecting a course.

**Beginning of** 1) formulation of general aims, 2) analysis of students' needs for the course.

**The stages of creating the course:** 1) formulating the teaching objectives; 2) selection of the teaching material; 3) organization of the teaching material; 4) analysis of teaching technologies; 5) creation of the system of exercises (activities) and organization of the process of teaching; 6) creation of the assessment tools;

**Organization of the course:** 1) entry testing; 2) teaching on the basis of the program material; final assessment of achieved results by students; 3) revising the material of the program.



The future teachers need to train how formulate appropriately syllabus components. **Goals and objectives** identify the expected outcomes and scope of the course as determined by an instructor or course designer, restricting the domain of knowledge for learners.

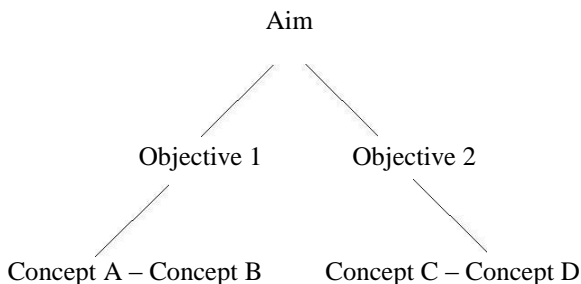
**Topics** to be covered specify the content that an instructor feels is important.

**The grading or evaluation** scheme tells learners what kind of leaning activities are to be valued (e. g. assignments, tests, papers, projects), that is the currency of learning in this particular course.

To help students manage their learning by identifying outside resources and/or providing advice.

**Goals and objectives:** clearly stated aims and objectives are the foundation stone on which the edifice of your course outline is then constructed. Aims are broad statements identifying the general educational outcomes you want a graduate of your course to be able to display, while Objectives are the concrete measures by which these will be implemented, and are usually expressed as relationships between specific concepts (See *Figure 5*). One of the aims of a course in Development Studies, for example, might be to examine the role of the state in different developing countries

**Figure 5. Relationships between specific concepts of the syllabus**



Let's deal with the course content and sequencing on the basis of Internet material ([www.brown.edu/Departments/Italian,Study...](http://www.brown.edu/Departments/Italian,Study...)). After establishing what educational outcomes a teacher hopes learners will achieve, the next task is to decide what specific content will best facilitate this process. The number of "chapters" corresponds to the number of weeks in the semester. A good book should have an introduction, body and conclusion: a good course out-line does likewise, with the 'body', the largest part, typically subdivided into three or four substantive parts. The teacher should start by giving names to each of these major parts, and then do the same for each pair of lectures/seminars which must be held each week of the semester. The teacher might want to include a three-line summary of what issues or questions the lecture will address. Doing this well before the semester helps to order teacher's sense of what particular material will be included, and where, and also enables learners to have some clear expectations about each class as they prepare for it. Having decided upon the course content the next step is to work out what order it is to be presented. The obvious goal in upper division courses is to progressively increase the degree of difficulty, and to ensure that different subject areas have a natural affinity and articulation with one another. For introductory or survey classes, however, this task is at once more necessary and more difficult, since a broad range of material of roughly equal difficulty has to be covered. A helpful strategy for developing both quality content and sequencing is to lay out your lecture topics into a

‘conceptual map’, or flow chart. This helps to clarify whether there is a clear logic and sequence to each component of the course. Distributing such a chart early in the semester is also good for learners, who may not otherwise make the necessary connections between different components of the course until later in the semester. Ensuring that “everyone’s on the same page” is vital for effective teaching and learning.

Only at this point does one then consider which texts to use. The selection of reading material and textbooks is subservient to course objectives; it comes after deciding what students to have acquired from the class.

Teachers must provide teaching process with material. That’s why they must select material which is appropriate to the given subject. For most of us a course-book (CB) is a resource, power factor or model for learning/teaching process. However, teachers should use not only one course-book (CB). The EMC based on some CBs embody knowledge and standards for progress and provide a basis of examination. There are voices claiming that the use of CB may most often generate dependence on the materials in it, which is far from ideal as it reduces the importance of the individual contributions that good teachers make at all levels in the learning process. It can stifle innovation and it severely limits flexibility. That’s why teachers should work out material themselves. Material should correspond to learners’ needs. They should match the aims and objectives of the approved syllabus or educational program in terms of content, skills and communicative strategies. It is very important that CBs should facilitate learners’ progress and take them forward as effectively as possible towards achieving the objectives. The organization of the course must be relevant to the items presented in the “A Made-to-Order Form for Instructional Observation (Peer Version)” on the 88 page of this book. EL teachers have often to create or adapt much of the material they use. Since creating materials from scratch is very challenging and time consuming, most teachers become skilled at adapting materials originally designed for other purposes.



Several options that teachers have when they want to adapt published materials for their particular teaching contexts include the following:

- Deleting material that is inappropriate, irrelevant, etc.
- Adding material or activities to better target language expectations of the EL context
- Reducing or Simplifying material or activities to make them more appropriate or less difficult or to give them less emphasis
- Modifying materials or activities to make them more demanding or accessible to students.

This can include the following:

- ✓ Extending activities to emphasize the lesson focus
- ✓ Replacing texts or activities with more suitable material
- ✓ Branching – providing options to students for working through existing readings or activities
- ✓ Reorganizing material to better fit teaching context or course goals



What components are included into EMC?

What components does a syllabus consist of?

What is the content of the course?

Why should a teacher design a syllabus? Is it difficult for young teachers to do it?

Why do teachers have to select and adapt the material?

### **3. Evaluation of teaching material**

There are different and various reasons for material evaluation. To identify particular strengths and weakness in CB already in use, so that a teacher could make most of the strong points and could strengthen the weaker parts of the CB by adapting, adding or



substituting materials from other sources. This type of evaluation is done by comparison with other CB, therefore a standard procedure and a common set of criteria should be applied. Selection of the CB is organized to enhance teacher-development by giving teachers useful insights into the nature of different materials, besides to promote a range of published and electronic materials.



The approaches for evaluation of CB, in accordance with Cunningsworth (1995) are following:

1) in-depth approach which is characterized by its active nature as seeking some information about the material in line with an agenda that one has already decided on;

2) impressionistic approach which is more receptive by looking for anything that is noteworthy and interesting;

3) extra approach which is the combination of both approaches 'involving an impressionistic overview of the whole and an in-depth examination of the representative samples of the material will form a sound basis for evaluation and for the ensuing choice of the most suitable CB for adoption.

At the same time Ellis (1997) distinguishes **two types of material evaluation: a predictive evaluation** designed to make a decision regarding what materials to use, and **a retrospective evaluation** designed to examine materials that have actually been used. He emphasizes two principal ways in which teachers can carry out **predictive evaluation**: one is to rely on evaluations carried out by 'expert' reviewers and the other one by teachers who can carry out their own predictive evaluations. These instruments are generally organized in a manner that reflects the decision-making process. And that idea behind these guides is to help teachers carry out a predictive evaluation systematically.

The other type of evaluation, namely evaluating materials **retrospectively** takes on special importance. According to Rod Ellis (1997) such an evaluation provides a teacher with information which can be used to determine whether it is worthwhile using the materials again, which activity 'work' and which do not, and how to modify the materials to make them more effective for future use and also serve as a means of 'testing' the validity of a predictive evaluation, and may point to ways in which the predictive instruments can be improved for future use. And he gives a great attention, as a purpose of his article, to begin to address the question of **how retrospective evaluations of materials can be carried out**. He again divides retrospective evaluation into *impressionistic evaluations* and *empirical evaluations*. That is, during the course in impressionistic evaluations teachers assess whether particular activities 'work' usually with reference to the enthusiasm and degree of involvement manifested by students, while at the end of the course they make summative judgments of the materials. While *empirical* evaluations are less common, if only because they are time-consuming. However, teachers report using students' journals and end-of-course questionnaires to judge the effectiveness of their teaching, including the materials they used. While empirical evaluation is divided in itself to micro and macro-evaluation. One way in which an empirical evaluation can be made more manageable is through micro-evaluation. A macro-evaluation calls for an overall assessment of whether an entire set of materials has worked. To plan and collect the necessary information for such as empirical evaluation is a daunting prospect. In a micro-evaluation, however, a teacher selects one particular teaching task in which he/she has a special interest, and submits this to a detailed empirical evaluation. A series of micro-evaluations can provide the basis for a subsequent macro-evaluation. However, a micro-evaluation can also stand by itself and can serve as a practical and legitimate way of conducting an empirical evaluation of teaching materials (Ellis, 1997).

From a pragmatic point of view, the following checklist seems to be useful for evaluation of an EMC or EL course-book for practical lessons (these criteria were summarized from the author's experience

and the books: 1) Cunningsworth, A. 1995. Choosing Your Coursebook. Oxford: Heinemann; 2) Balan R., Ceham A., et al. 2003. In-service Distance Training Course for Teachers of English. Romania: Polirom).

<p><b>Aims and approaches</b></p>	<p>1. Does the EMC or CB cover all the components of the national curriculum?  2. Do the aims of the EMC or CB meet the learners' needs?  3. Is the EMC or CB suited to your teaching context?  4. Is it relevance for learners and teachers?  5. Is it flexible? Does it take into consideration different teaching and learning styles?  6. Is there succession with previous stage (forms) of teaching?</p>
<p><b>Design and organization</b></p>	<p>7. Is the content organized in terms of: a) topics and situations; b) structures and functions; c) skills?  8. Is the organization of the structure clear and understandable?  9. Is there enough material for revision and recycling?  10. Is there any material for individual study?  11. Is the layout clear?  12. Are the illustrations clear and relevant to the activities?  13. Are the instructions clear and easy to follow?</p>
<p><b>Content</b></p>	<p>14. Does the content make relevant with real life situations?  15. Are there relationships among various topics and situations?  16. Does the linguistic material (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation) cover the texts and verbalize speech intentions?  17. What types of activities are used in EMC or CB? Are they variable?  18. Is the vocabulary to be learned: a) appropriate for the level; b) useful in terms of students' needs?  19. Does the EMC or CB include material for development of pronunciation and intonation skills?  20. Are the structures and functions contextualized?  21. Are the topics relevant to students' interests and age?  22. Is there enough variety and range of topics, situations?  23. Do the topics reflect cultural aspect?</p>

	<p>24. Does the material contribute to developing intercultural competence?</p> <p>25. Is the material authentic or semi-authentic?</p>
<b>Skills</b>	<p>26. Does the language material (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation) cover the texts and verbalize speech intentions</p> <p>27. Are all skills developed and in what balance are they presented?</p> <p>28. Are there instructional strategies to practice skills interactively?</p>
<b>Activities</b>	<p>29. Are assignments clearly organized?</p> <p>30. Is there a balance between controlled activities and less controlled and free activities?</p> <p>31. What is the balance of skill-getting and skills using activities?</p> <p>32. Do the activities stimulate students' creativity?</p> <p>33. Are challenging questions to stimulate discussion presented?</p>
<b>Methodology</b>	<p>34. Is the approach to language learning appropriate to the teaching/learning context/age and language level?</p> <p>35. What are the didactic principles in structuring the teaching process used by the authors?</p> <p>36. What forms of interaction and technologies are used by the authors?</p> <p>37. Are there any guidelines for teachers included?</p> <p>38. Are there instructions for testing and scoring/markings?</p>

Evaluation criteria can be given as following in the chart.

1. Instructional approaches for material organization: goals and objectives of study; material selection and logical organization, specificity of lessons organization, the character of exercises and activities.
2. Correspondence with the context of teaching and learning: Are there communicative inputs and outputs? What is the level of learners? Are tasks and activities relevant to the context? Is there a balance between sub-skills and skills? Are they successful? What stimuli are used for learning motivation?
3. Authenticity: Is the material authentic from the positions of language usage, text and instructions authenticity?
4. Efficacy of aids: Are there verbal and visual aids? Are illustrations,

pictures, photos colored and interesting and contribute to the cognition?



- What are reasons for material evaluation?
- What approaches to material evaluation are suggested by educators?
- What criteria are used for material evaluation?

#### **4. Constructing a module and a case**

It is important for an English teacher to be aware of the core of module constructing for the effective organization of the learning process.

Modules and cases are considered as innovative technologies for creation and organization of the teaching process at the higher educational level of training specialists.

The module is understood nowadays as created by teachers teaching material with clear instructions for obtaining certain knowledge and skills. Learners' activity with modules has some principal differentiations from a traditional system of teaching. Within it the content of teaching is presented in separate modules as a bank of information and instructions of its application.

Module teaching demands creation of the module program. Before constructing such a program a teacher should single out the main ideas of the course, formulate the main goal and select the content of ELT for each block.



The EL teachers should be aware of the main principles for constructing a module. They are:

1. A set of particular goals of teaching elements provides the achievement of each integrative goal of a module.
2. The basis of managing and monitoring of the process of acquiring knowledge and skills is a feedback.
3. Teaching material must be presented in an accessible, laconic and expressive way and in the

interactive form on the basis of learner-centered approach.

4. The structure of the module should be corresponded to the logic of this or that type of an educational establishment.

The succession of acquiring knowledge and skills by students must be taken into consideration, while working out a module program, it refers to the following items:

1. Perception is defined as “catching” of the learning objects.

2. Comprehension of knowledge occurs in the process of analytic-synthetic activity (analysis, synthesis and generalization).

3. Memorization is to cumulate knowledge in mind. There are 3 types of memorization: 1) a primary memory. It is important for keeping a learned material in the mind for a long time; 2) involuntary memorization. It occurs in the process of operations with the subject of learning; 3) voluntary memorization. It is formed in the special organized conditions.

4. Application of knowledge connected with involving learners into activity for solving problems, and transferring knowledge into different spheres. Acquiring material means to understand, memorize and learn it in different situations.

5. Generalization of knowledge. It is the process of transferring knowledge from single to general. The primary generalization (during perception) connects with the forming of general representation of the subject. Local generalization (conceptual) related to inner core of the subject, in case students acquire its parts. Thematic generalization means acquiring the system of concepts and final generalization presupposes acquiring the whole systems of concepts.

6. Systematization of knowledge proposes the process of regulation of the learned material in the system.

The steps for constructing a module:

1. Formulation of the integrative goals in each module.

2. Entry testing to reveal the current level of knowledge and skills and readiness of students for further study.

3. Determination of the particular goals and creation the teaching and assessment elements in each module (tasks, activities for development certain knowledge and skills).

4. Creation of structural-logical schemes for summarizing of the teaching material.

5. Creation of exit testing tools.

The next technology is *a case-study* which includes an event or an issue that presents a certain problem. Learners are then asked to detect the problem or dilemma, identify where the problem began, provide details, explain the problem and find solutions. The case-study method encourages learners to think critically and creatively and they are prepared for real life situations that can happen anywhere at any time, especially in the workplace. An instructor should be well prepared for the case-study classes in order to create dynamic classroom activities that would stimulate thoughts and creativity and, at the same time, increase learners' English language or other competence. Case-studies help teachers teach all problems of subjects effectively through combination of knowledge, experience, creativity and critical thinking. There are many case-studies, discussions for classroom activities, professionally-oriented conversation topics, case study methods, etc.

Case studies can be a useful tool in all theoretical and practical courses. They can focus on issues of special interest and can be an ideal complement to EMC. Designing case-studies requires competence in two areas, the methods of teaching and content of teaching. Competence in selection of the content of case-studies is as important as the teaching methods we use to present this content. In case-study an instructor has less control with case discussion than other forms of teaching. Below the main steps of designing and organizing cases (Silverman, 1997) are presented.

1) *Clarify objectives:*

– What do you want students to learn from discussion of the case?

– What do they know already that applies to the case?

– What are the issues (central and peripheral) that may be raised in discussion?

– Can the case “carry” the discussion (appropriate to your objectives)?

2) *Plan and prepare.*

- How the case and discussion will be introduced
- Preparation expected of students (written, submitted, papers)
- The opening questions
- How much time is needed for the issues to be discussed
- Concepts to be applied and extracted in discussion
- Concluding the discussion
- Evaluating the discussion (students, your own)
- Evaluating the participants (graded for participation)

3) *Running a case-study.*

– To get started select a short case-study that covers the skills for your students to practice.

– Read it several times and consider how it fits with students-learning objectives for the class (you need to think about why you are teaching the case at this time).

– Arrange the classroom so that students can talk face-to-face.

– Prepare a set of questions for students to write out as homework before running the case in class.

– Prepare another set of questions to move students through the stages of case-analysis for class work.

– At the end conduct a teacher-led summary and conclusion discussion, assessing what your students have achieved.

Let’s see the sample of the case-study in Methodology of teaching foreign languages:

1) *Topic for discussion:* Is Methodology of FLT an independent academic discipline?

*Content of case:* material from books on Methodology of FLT.

2) *Topics for discussion:* What is structure and content of professional competence of EL teachers? What qualifications are important for EL teachers?

*Content of case:* material from books related to these topics.

Another sample for the ESP class on the case “Marketing a product”



Today you are Marketing Executives. Invent a product or service and market it and then present your idea to the class. You have to design an advertisement for commercial television or magazine. Please divide your presentation into three parts:

1. Describe the product of service.
2. Describe the advertising method used.
3. Explain, why you have chosen certain things in your advertisement, i. e. beautiful landscape, people, etc.



- What is a module?
- What principles are for a module designing?
- Why should we design cases in training EL specialists?
- What steps should we follow to create cases?

### **Follow-up activities:**

**Activity 1.** Read the given instruction (taken from: [www.languages.oberlin.edu/blogs/ctil/2015/...](http://www.languages.oberlin.edu/blogs/ctil/2015/...)) and think about the language using by a teacher.

- *Use accessible, inclusive language.* Students may not yet be versed in your field, so avoid unnecessary jargon and technical terms. Make sure your syllabus/course is accessible to students from diverse backgrounds and does not inadvertently make some feel excluded.
- *Set the right tone.* Think about the learning environment you want to create in your course and use your syllabus to help you do this.
- *Make sure your course title is easy to understand.* Students may choose courses by skimming a list of course titles and are likely to skip over a course if they do not understand its title.



**Activity 2.** Study the given components of a course. Design a four weeks module (8 hours) on Methodology of FLT. The given components and questions help you select and design a course.

1. Objectives: What impact on students' knowledge, skills and practices does the course seek to achieve?
2. Content: What issues in the module generally and specifically does the course cover?
3. Organization: What are the components of the course and how are these sequenced?
4. Pedagogy: What instructional strategies are utilized by the course facilitator and what learning activities are students engaged in?
5. Assessment and evaluation: What forms of assessment are used within this module? How is the course evaluated?

**Activity 3. A.** Study the given content in the table (taken from: [www.coursehero.com/file/11688202/Syllable..](http://www.coursehero.com/file/11688202/Syllable..)) and comment on each point. Analyze a syllabus on the basis of this table.

<b>Criterion</b>	<b>Beginning</b>	<b>Emerging</b>	<b>Recommended</b>
Course Description	Instructor name and contact info, class time and location	in addition: course prerequisites (if any) course description	in addition, how the course fits into the larger program/department curriculum, field, supplemental readings, and resources
Overall Tone	Mechanical, dictatorial	teacher-oriented	student/learning-oriented (e. g.: first person)
Course Outcomes	not articulated	stated in general, but vague and immeasurable	listed with appropriate, descriptive verbs that lend themselves to

<b>Criterion</b>	<b>Beginning</b>	<b>Emerging</b>	<b>Recommended</b>
		terms	measurement and seek higher levels of learning
Course Format	vague, or cryptic descriptions of course expectations and how class time will be used	mutual role expectations for students and an instructor are explained, together with various teaching methods and modes	role expectations and class format are explained in such a way that students understand the underlying rationale and benefits for them
Instructor Beliefs and Assumptions	little or no accounting of an instructor's teaching philosophy, beliefs or assumptions about learning	section describing an instructor's beliefs or assumptions about teaching and learning that guide the course	well articulated and thought out rationale that includes the values and/or experiences that guide an instructor's teaching practice
Class Schedule	little or no information on what course topics will be covered each week	course topics broken down by class period	fully articulated and logically sequenced course schedule with chronological topics listed for each class, along with required readings and preparation necessary from students
Assignments Required	course assignments listed but with no due	course assignments listed with clear due dates	assignments listed with due dates, with explanation of late policy and other

<b>Criterion</b>	<b>Beginning</b>	<b>Emerging</b>	<b>Recommended</b>
	dates		requirements that might affect grades
Academic Policies and Procedures	little or no information	description of academic integrity policy	information about all pertinent academic policies, including academic integrity, accommodating students with disabilities, class attendance
Assessment of Students' Learning	little or no information about how students will be graded; any information that is included reinforces a grade-focus	each graded assignment is clearly described with its relative value towards the overall course grade	each assignment includes descriptions of its rationale for inclusion in the course and what students should get out of completing it; use of rubrics with quality criteria specified
Alignment	no clear connection between stated course goals/outcomes and assessment schema	the connections between some assignments and stated course goals/outcomes are apparent	all assignments are linked with a specific course goal/outcome and are likely to provide sufficient evidence to adequately assess each goal/outcome
Diversity of Teaching & Assessment Methods	course teaching and assessment methods are similar; e. g.: all lectures; all tests	evidence an instructor has employed a diverse set of teaching and assessment methods	diverse assessment methods and evidence that an instructor has taken into account the diversity of students in choosing teaching and

<b>Criterion</b>	<b>Beginning</b>	<b>Emerging</b>	<b>Recommended</b>
			assessment methods
Continuity of Feedback to Students on Their Learning	little or very infrequent venues for giving students feedback on their progress in the course	adequate opportunities for students to get feedback on their progress in the course	all course requirements have sufficient means by which an instructor can keep students adequately appraised of their relative progress in the course
Opportunities for students to provide evaluative Course Input	students' only opportunity to provide input on their experiences in the course to an instructor is at the end of the course	Instructor has developed and scheduled a mid- semester course evaluation opportunity for students	Students are encouraged to provide an instructor with regular input on how they are experiencing the course throughout the semester

B. Adapt it to your class focusing on the following instructions.

- *Make sure the syllabus is visually appealing.* Make it easy for learners to skim the syllabus and find key information. White space, indenting, bold, italics, underline and large/small caps can help make your syllabus easy to read.
- *Think about questions and concerns learners might have about your course.* Use the syllabus to answer as many of these as you think appropriate.
- *Consider how you will use it.* How will you get learners to read your syllabus? Will you review it with them the first day of class? How will you know what questions learners have about the course?

**Activity 4.** Survey is a tool technique to facilitate project-based work. The advantage of using survey project at the higher education level in integrating different skills and improving students' critical thinking. For example:

1) interpretation skills as comprehension and expression of the meaning of a input variety, such as experience, data, beliefs, and rules where two sub-skills are involved: a) categorization of information and 2) clarification of meaning

2) self-regulation skill (meta-cognition) to monitor and evaluate one's own work and conclusions, adding that the method can be as simple asking.

Design instruction for conducting project work for linguistic and non-linguistic institutes.

**Activity 5.** This form contains items that should be helpful in evaluating EMC (taken from Weimer, Parrett & Kens in the book "How am I teaching. Forms and activities for acquiring instructional input" 1988).

Analyze any EMC on EL practical or theoretical course on the basis of the given criteria by ticking "+" and "-".

**Course syllabus:**

- Identifies instructional resources.
- Outlines the sequence of topics to be covered.
- Describes evaluation procedures.
- Includes a class or activity schedule or calendar.
- Lists major assignments and due dates.
- Includes a statement or description of course objectives.
- Structures so that the information is clear and easily understood.

**Assignments** (as they appear on the syllabus or in the written descriptions elsewhere):

- Produce meaningful and challenging learning experiences.
- Include a variety of activities that are responsive to varying students' interests, abilities, and learning styles.
- Are appropriate to course objectives and content level.
- Are spaced at appropriate intervals in the course.
- Are challenging but not over burdensome.
- Prepare students for more complex courses in this subject area.

**Handouts:**

- Are relevant additions and/or elaborations to the course content.
- Are structured so that the content is clearly communicated to readers.

**Course-book or material:**

- Is appropriate to course level.
- Is clearly related to course objectives.
- Is generally acceptable in terms of departmental standards.
- Presents content in a systematic and logical order so as to enhance the understanding of someone unfamiliar with the topic (Note: Assess content order based in sequence the instructor has assigned it).
- Presents material interestingly so as to encourage reading.
- Supplementary reading lists.
- Contains relevant and current material.
- Supplement course content.
- Includes content that is challenging yet not inappropriately difficult.
- Specifies location of supplementary materials.
- Includes information to direct reading in terms of its relationship to course content.
- Lecture Outlines (Provided for students).
- Communicates a sense of proportion and detail that is consistent with content.
- Provides enough information to assist the note-taking process without making taking notes unnecessary.
- Includes space for students to write additional information.
- Is enhanced by lecture presentation in class.

**Study questions/Review materials:**

- Prepare one to perform successfully at exams.
- Cover content that is covered at the exam.
- Are designed so that their completion facilitates students' retention and understanding.
- Do not force students to focus on large quantities of material that are irrelevant to exam content.
- Provide adequate opportunity to practice problem-solving skills.
- Visual materials (as in prepared slides and transparencies).
- Illustrate aspects of the content that are enhanced by visual representation.
- Are clear and "Graphically" illustrate the content.

- \_\_\_ Include written elaborations that are clear and easily read.
- \_\_\_ Contain manageable amounts of material, so excessive amounts of time are not required to copy down the material.

**Overall conclusions:**

- \_\_\_ Compared with other course materials you have seen, these are better than average.
- \_\_\_ As demonstrated by these materials, the content selected for inclusion in this course is appropriate and justifiable.
- \_\_\_ These materials communicate an appropriate level of an instructor preparation and concern.

**Activity 6.** Study some characteristics of effective language learning materials (A) and sequence for identifying and preparing EL materials (B) given below. Following these characteristics and recommendations select and adapt the supplementary material for any ESP coursebook.

A.

<i>Learners' Affect</i>
Materials should achieve impact
Materials should help learners feel at ease
Materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes
Materials should help learners to develop confidence
What is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant & useful
<i>Learners' Engagement</i>
Materials should require and facilitate learner-engagement & self-investment
Materials should allow students to problem solve, discover, and analyze
Learners' attention should be drawn to linguistic features of the input
Materials should provide variety: in roles & groupings, in type & purpose
Materials should provide learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve meaningful communicative purposes
<i>Learners' Styles and Preferences</i>



Materials should take into account that learners differ in learning styles
Materials should allow students an opportunity to progress at their own rate
Materials should not rely too much on controlled practice, but allow for creative use of language and learning through trial and error
<i>Learners' Needs and Development</i>
Materials should draw on what students know (their experiences)
Materials should focus on (authentic) language needs outside of the classroom and expose learners to language in authentic use
Learners must be ready to acquire points being presented in the materials
Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback
Materials should take into account that positive effects of instruction are usually delayed
Materials should help students develop specific skills and strategies

*(Drawn from Graves, 2000, p. 152-155, and Tomlinson, 2011, p. 6-23)*

**B.**

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Determine the needs and preferences of students and institutions/corporation</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Determine what sort of language contexts the course will focus on (e. g., lectures, business meetings)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Decide how to present the language in the course (e. g., topic, function, situation, grammar)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Determine what language skills and sub-skills to focus on, based on needs analysis</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Decide if the syllabus should have stand-alone lessons/units, or ones that build on each other</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Based on the needs analysis, determine the types of activities that will be used in the course (e. g., individual, pair, group, whole class)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Decide on material design</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Prepare materials</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pilot the materials; collect and collate feedback</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Revise the materials based on classroom experience and feedback</li> </ul>

*Adapted from R. Barnard and D. Zemach (2003, p. 316)*



**Activity 7.** The chief of the chair appointed you to be responsible for organizing the English Language Book Club for the 1<sup>st</sup> year students. You should involve teachers and students and design a program. Follow the given questions as steps for program designing.

1. Who should start the English language book club?
2. Who should be invited to join the book club?
3. Should I involve book club members for decision-making about material for reading?
4. How quickly should students read materials?
5. Are there technological aids that could be useful?

**Key reading:**

1. Allen J. B. Functional-analytic course design and the variable focus curriculum. //C. J. Brumfit (ed.). *The Practice of Communicative Teaching*. – Oxford: Pergamon, 1984. – PP. 3-24.
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6. [http://www. brown. edu/about/administration/sheridan-center/teaching-learning/course-design/creating-syllabus/tips](http://www.brown.edu/about/administration/sheridan-center/teaching-learning/course-design/creating-syllabus/tips)
7. [http://www1. umn. edu/ohr/teachlearn/tutorials/syllabus/index. html](http://www1.umn.edu/ohr/teachlearn/tutorials/syllabus/index.html)

8. Махкамова Г. Т. Проектирование учебно-методических комплексов в магистратуре. –Т.: Tafakkur qanoti, 2012.

## TESTS

1. What is the goal of the course of Methodology of teaching special subjects?
  - A. to choose the correct forms, methods, aids and ways of teaching at higher schools
  - B. to acquire the theory and practice of FLT at different types of educational establishments.
  - C. to teach how to organize lecture courses and practical lessons at linguistic universities.
  - D. to acquire the theoretical and practical matters of methodology of teaching special subjects for effective pedagogical activity at higher educational establishments.
  
2. Exclude the item which is not a pedagogical component
  - A. Classroom management
  - B. Learning mechanism
  - C. Assessment
  - D. Methods
  
3. What item does not characterize students' fluency?
  - A. Language accuracy
  - B. Interrupting
  - C. Sustaining
  - D. Appropriateness
  
4. Psychological component of FL teachers includes. . .
  - A. Cognitive knowledge
  - B. Knowledge of classroom assessment:
  - C. Knowledge of learning processes and individual student's characteristics
  - D. Knowledge of different instructions.
  
5. Exclude activities which are not directed to teaching accuracy
  - A. Drills
  - B. Controlled conversation
  - C. Coherence and cohesion
  - D. Letter writing

6. Find an item which is not related to the principle of quality management

A. Orientation on consumer.

B. Leadership.

C. Process-oriented approach (strategic and tactical planning, process management which has beginning, development and ending stages).

D. Problem-solving and expertizing.

7. Structuring of learning objectives and the lesson process, lesson planning and evaluation means. . .

A. Adapting

B. Constructing

C. Mastering

D. Developing

8. The world trend of developing the educational system or modern postulates of a new educational paradigm are:

A. From “good education for all life to a life-long learning”

B. From obedience to initiative.

C. From qualification to knowledge

D. From knowledge to competencies.

9. Exclude the item which is not the aim of teaching fluency.

A. To provide practice in the selection of appropriate language

B. To provide practice in unpredictability

C. To provide controlled practice

D. To provide practice in using language to fulfill objectives

10. What principle is not used in teaching a theoretical course?

A. Learnability

B. Objectivity

C. Historical and dialectic development

D. Integrity of theory and practice

11. What principle of systemacy for teaching theoretical course means

A. Expresses the definiteness, initial basis, clearness and justification of all changes in constructing and developing a teaching process within a theoretical course. This principle allows establishing or revealing cause and effect and relationships between building elements to use information-processing and statistic data.

B. The teaching process is dealt with as a complex and discrepant usually gone from not knowing to knowing, from not full knowledge to full knowledge, from cognition of phenomena to cognition of their essence, inner conformity with a law and relationships, directions and trends of knowledge development. This principle gives opportunity to evaluate and provide cognition process in research doing.

C. Studies indissolubility and continuity of theory and practice, evaluates practice as source, goal and criterion of truth and scientific cognition as one of the means of progressive modification of reality. Integrity of theory and practice is the key assumption of teaching disciplines of specialty because practical activity of specialists is defined by increasing the role of scientific theory. In this case practice is a reflection and incarnation of theory.

D. Teaching process is a complex system operating of information-processing and communication-driven data which includes information components, means of teaching and methods of teaching. Information field of teaching process determines content of teaching theory which is expressed by a system of the didactic and other related to teaching concepts.

12. Analysis and synthesis presupposes. . .

A. a mental distraction of some indicators or features of some subjects/objects with the aim of deeper exploring it or creating of ideal object.

B. an establishment of something like or relevant to an event/thing, transformation of simple to the complex, transmitting characteristics of some object to the other one.

C. studying, exploring, and evaluating a subject or thing through distribution operation. The teaching and research are the processes of studying relationships of and attitudes to components/elements and exploring the whole item through its components or related items.

D. on the basis of the obtained knowledge the new one is defined about subject or thing or group of things, which have the common properties. This method is successful when the particular action, inference, definition concluding from the general rule, axiom, assumption and be as an effect of the particular take place.

13. Which of them is induction as logical method for obtaining knowledge.

A. The general rules or assumptions are inferred on the basis of studying peculiarities of some things. By the help of induction in the teaching process the cognitive activity is going from single to general judgment. This method is related to evaluation and comparison of facts, things, and events.

B. On the basis of the obtained knowledge the new one is defined about subject or thing or group of things, which have the common properties. This method is successful when the particular action, inference, definition concluding from the general rule, axiom, assumption and be as an effect of the particular take place.

C. When judgments and inferences in a certain degree of generality are applied to new knowledge. This method allows defining some definitions on the similar subjects.

D. During scientific search or justifications first supposition appears which then is justified from general to particular.

14. Objectives of management are. . .

A. determination of management strategies; decision-making; carry out the accepted decisions

B. problem-solving; decision-making; carry out the accepted decisions

C. determination of management strategies; carry out the accepted decisions; being responsible

D. determination of management strategies; decision-making; following the orders

15. Exclude inappropriate aim of teaching accuracy
- A. To provide controlled practice
  - B. To provide practice in using language to fulfill objectives
  - C. To reactivate/revise known language
  - D. To integrate new and old language

16. The term “inter-language” refers
- A. to development of teaching process
  - B. to development stages involved in moving from L1 to L2/FL.
  - C. to preventing bicultural difficulties
  - D. to evaluation of students

17. The content of practical courses at linguistic universities includes. . .

- A. different types of activity for oral and written speech development
- B. specific ways and techniques of lesson organization
- C. professionally-oriented information
- D. activities for teaching professional skills

18. Lectures and seminars on linguistics introduce into. . . .

- A. the theory and history of language, give information about topical issues, current achievements, and acquaint with reference books
- B. development of scientific thinking and be the basis of students’ specialization
- C. the specialization in the chosen scientific area or topic
- D. systematization of practical knowledge of students for their further extending.

19. The destination of theoretical courses on specialty is to study

- A. methodology of the research in the field of their future specialty
- B. generalization and systematization of practical knowledge



C. the theory and history of language, give information about topical issues, current achievements, and acquaint with reference books

D. the specialization in the chosen scientific area or topic

20. The scientific work allows. . .

A. learning linguistic material in order to become a master of joining theory with practice, i. e. applying theoretical material and developing skills of self-study.

B. increasing information about their qualification

C. developing academic skills

D. learning material in the chosen area

21. Match hypotheses with their characteristics

Contrastive Hypothesis

A.

1. Language is a means of communication and interaction.
2. L2 acquisition leaned on the L1 acquisition: factors, inter-language, tolerance to the errors.
3. During language learning process learners paraphrase, reconstruct utterances, guess meaning of unknown words, avoid unknown topics, use the means to compensate gaps.

Identity Hypothesis

B.

1. Linguistic basis of teaching and contrastive characteristics of linguistic items in the contacted languages – interference and transposition, methodological typology of difficulties.
2. Behaviorism theory of teaching: input – output with the help of imitations and drills for habit-formation

Interlanguage Hypothesis

C.

1. Postulate of universalism of language acquisition.
2. Naturalistic method – atomization of all latent structures in learners' psychic setup and mechanisms of language acquisition. The process of language acquisition is considered as a creative process of language construction where a learner filters off useful information.
3. Teaching is organized on the basis of visual/verbal aids,

simple structures and situations. It focuses on the self-correction.

- A. Inter-language Hypothesis
- B. Contrastive Hypothesis
- C. Identity Hypothesis

22. Independent work correlates with

- A. learning material
- B. errors correction activity

C. learners' autonomy as ability to take care of one's own learning.

- D. active learning

23. What does approach to FLT mean?

A. a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles

- B. a set of derived procedures for teaching a language
- C. instructional strategies
- D. laws and assumptions

24. Exclude the item which is not appropriate to teacher's interaction

- A. Gives directions, commands or orders.
- B. Praises or encourages
- C. Thinks and does activities
- D. Criticizes or justifies authority

25. Exclude inappropriate item which is not related to subject-matter of the theoretical course

- A. Theoretical, cultural, didactic
- B. Factual, theoretical and reference
- C. Practical and methodological
- D. Factual, theoretical and methodological

26. Choose the item of the pedagogical material presented in a theoretical course

- A. theoretical, didactic, reference-oriented
- B. theoretical, methodological, didactic
- C. cultural, didactic, reference-oriented
- D. didactic, reference-oriented, factual

27. Exclude inappropriate item to the content of methodological material

- A. Approaches.
- B. Principles.
- C. Ideological material.
- D. Research methods.

28. Find appropriate item related to a theoretical course study at MA level

- A. acquiring academic knowledge and skills for operation with them in professional and research activity
- B. acquiring theoretical and practical material to do research projects
- C. acquiring language skills
- D. acquiring communicative competence

29. The EMC consists of. . . .

- A. Teaching plan, Syllabus, teaching material, glossary, basic and additional sources, assessment tools
- B. Syllabus, teaching material, glossary, basic and additional sources, assessment tools, supplementary material
- C. Syllabus, teaching material, basic and additional sources, assessment tools, supplementary material
- D. Teaching material, glossary, basic and additional sources, assessment tools.

30. The main components of the syllabus on theoretical subject is

- A. Goals and objectives, topics, reading material
- B. Goals and objectives, content, technologies
- C. Goals and objectives, content, learning outcomes

D. Goals and objectives, content, assessment

31. Identify the explanation of the goal and objectives.

A. the expected outcomes and scope of the course as determined by the instructor or course designer, restricting the domain of knowledge for the learner.

B. covering materials that the instructor feels is important.

C. leaning activities are to be valued in the particular course.

D. identification material and resources and providing advice.

32. Exclude form of the lecture which is not used by the lector.

A. Problem-solving lecture

B. Visualization-lecture

C. Reading and note-taking

D. Analytical lecture

33. Exclude inappropriate type of the lecture

A. Informative lecture

B. Discussion-lecture

C. Review lecture

D. Introductory lecture

34. Exclude inappropriate linguistic method of the research

A. comparative

B. distributive

C. componental

D. experience summarizing

35. Find an explanation of the transformation method

A. general and specific features of analyzed phenomena within one language or related and unrelated languages are established. In the process of linguistic universals' analysis (on morphological, phonetic, semantic, syntactic levels) their structural features, similarities and differences are determined.

B. based on the relationship of language structures and their content. This analysis is used to study syntactic and word-building models, as well as for analysis of other tiers of the language. For example, with the help of transformational analysis, it is possible to

determine the word-forming relations between words or when translating syntactic constructions.

C. identifies and determines the ways in which words are related to each other. This method is based on the binary principle.

D. helps to reveal the history of words down to their ancient forms and values, based on the facts related languages. In etymological studies, great attention is paid to the characteristics of the oldest phonetic and morphemic structure of the word and the assumption of the initial motivation for the meaning of the word.

36. The statistical method is. . .

A. a sample of any material; its distribution is presented in the form of digital data (tables), graphs, etc., and also involves the calculation error and sampling adequacy, probabilistic and statistical interpretation of the results.

B. on the basis of a certain subject-thematic correlation, a set of words is selected and subjected to special study.

C. proceeds from the fact that the unit of analysis is the elements of the linguistic unit – the nominative-communicative and the structural. Identification of the essential characteristics of objects of reality, the means of nominating which is a word or phrase.

D. qualitative analysis of the results of experiment.

37. ESP is

A. approach to teaching

B. form of education

C. profile of education

D. type of education

38. A predictive evaluation designed. . .

A. to examine materials that have actually been used.

B. to make a decision regarding what technologies to use

C. to examine materials for selection

D. to make a decision regarding what materials to use

39. A retrospective evaluation designed

A. to examine materials that have actually been used

B. to make a decision regarding what technologies to use

- C. to examine materials for selection
- D. to make a decision regarding what materials to use

40. Assessment is

- A. evaluation and grading
- B. the systematic collection and analysis of information to improve students' learning
- C. revealing the level of language performance
- D. identifying goal and learning outcomes

41. At what level the interdisciplinary links are defined at non-linguistic institutes.

- A. material and technologies
- B. content, activities, assessment
- C. content, operations, instructions
- D. content, instructions, assessment

42. What is the third phase of experimental teaching

- A. Verification
- B. Organization
- C. Interpretation
- D. Implementation

43. The stage of experiment organization presupposes

- A. quantitative and qualitative characteristics of the results of experimental data
- B. development of instruction and assessment tools
- C. development of a hypothesis, the collected material is analyzed and systematized to substantiate a working hypothesis, the goal of training and tasks for achieving the goal is determined, a methodology for teaching specific facts of the language is developed
- D. Formulating the objectives, analyzing the results and formulating relevant recommendations

44. Choose appropriate set of pedagogical research methods

- A. study and summarizing of the best practices of FLT, scientifically-fixed observation, trial training, experiment

B. critical analysis of the literature, study and summarizing of best practices of FLT, comparison, experiment

C. study and summarizing of best practices of FLT, associative experiment, trial training

D. trial training, statistics, testing, transformation

45. Choose the method which integrates itself all others.

A. Questionnaire.

B. Testing.

C. Interview

D. Experiment

46. In accordance with the competence-based approach students must master the competences related to the research activity except one:

A. Information-research competence

B. Methodological competence

C. Cultural competence

D. Empirical competence

47. Placement tests provide information to

A. identify students strengths and weaknesses

B. relate to the language courses taught to the examinees

C. help to place students at the most suitable stage of the teaching curriculum, bearing in mind their level of the language achieved

D. measure learners' language ability regardless of the training they may have had or the vocabulary and topics they may have studied

48. Exclude the notion which does not correspondent to the meaning of a module

A. discipline

B. course

C. system

D. technology

49. There are different types of tests:
- A. proficiency tests, achievement tests, diagnostic tests and placement tests
  - B. multiple choice, gap-filling, matching, remodeling tests,
  - C. information transfer, ordering tasks, editing tests, sequencing
  - D. all the answers are correct
50. What changes have been taken place in the local methodology of FLT in Uzbekistan?
- A. in strategy of teaching and learning
  - B. in EL syllabuses and goals
  - C. in goal, content and assessment
  - D. in material design
51. How can we improve inter-language errors?
- A. via remedy work
  - B. via communicative exercises
  - C. via explanation of the material
  - D. via speaking
52. Why should we apply the principled eclecticism?
- A. because the Communicative language teaching is inefficient
  - B. because we should apply different methods
  - C. because no one method can satisfy the teaching and learning needs and styles
  - D. because the teaching material is changed
53. What types of the lesson are used in the primary classrooms?
- A. visual lesson
  - B. skills and task-based lesson
  - C. language-centered lesson
  - D. PPP, ESA
54. Accuracy activities focus on
- A. controlling speed of the speech
  - B. reproduction or production of correct language
  - C. making up situations
  - D. developing reflective skills



55. Fluency activities focus on  
 A. accurate using of language units in the sentences  
 B. developing language sub-skills  
 C. language accuracy improving  
 D. allowing students to experiment and be creative with the language.

56. The successful approach to teaching spelling must be envelops other sides of linguistic units. This approach is called. . . .  
 A. Whole-language approach  
 B. Communicative approach.  
 C. Imitation approach  
 D. Comprehension-based approach

Keys

1 – D	16 – B	26 – C	41 – C
2 – B	17 – A	27 – C	42 – A
3 – A	18 – A	28 – A	43 – C
4 – C	19 – C	29 – B	44 – A
5 – C	20 – A	30 – D	45 – D
6 – D	21 –	31 – A	46 – C
7 – B	A. Interlanguage	32 – C	47 – C
8 – C	Hypothesis	33 – B	48 – D
9 – C	B. Contrastive	34 – D	49 – A
10 – A	Hypothesis	35 – B	50 – C
11 – D	C. Identity Hypothesis	36 – A	51 – A
12 – C	22 – C	37 – A	52 – C
13 – A	23 – A	38 – D	53 – D
14 – A	24 – C	39 – A	54 – B
15 – B	25 – A	40 – B	55 – D
	25 – D		56 – A

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## GLOSSARY

### A

**Academic meaning-making** – A constructivist orientation that focuses on helping students actively understand academic disciplines.

**Accuracy** – correctness of the language use or producing language with few errors.

**Achievement assessment** – A test to measure what students have learned or achieved from a program of study; should be part of every language program and be specific to the goals and objectives of a specific language course. These tests must be flexible to respond to the particular goals and needs of students in a language program. It therefore relates to the week's/term's work, the course book, the syllabus. It is oriented to the course and represents an internal perspective.

**Action-research** –A thoughtful approach to social problem solving that includes seven key dimensions: analyze a problematic situation, gather additional useful information, define the problem, hypothesize a solution, act to solve problem, observe the results, and make a judgment as to how best produced.

**Active methods** – learners are more active during a teaching process than a teacher.

**Activate** – The phase at a lesson where students have an opportunity to practice language forms. See “controlled practice”, “guided practice”, and “free practice”.

**Active** – Related to students' engagement and participation. For example, listening is perceived to be a passive skill, but is actually active because it involves students in decoding meaning.

**Active listening** – A technique whereby a listener repeats (often in other words) what the speaker has said to demonstrate his/her understanding. Active listening is an especially useful alternative to directly correcting a student's error.

**Active vocabulary** – Vocabulary that students actually use in speaking and writing.

**Administrative problem-solving** – A strategy that refers to solving problems that are administrative rather than educational in



nature. The distinction is important because administrative and educational problems are often confounded. For example, solving a busing problem, which is administrative, does not necessarily help teachers solve the educational problem of improving students' literacy.

**Age groups** – learners are divided according to the age or stage of education

**Algorithm** – a set of well-defined rules for solving a problem in a finite number of steps.

**Alternative assessment** – An assessment in which students originate a response to a task or question. Such responses could include demonstrations, exhibits, portfolios, oral presentations, or essays. (Compare to traditional assessment).

**Analytic scoring** – is when the rating is divided across language features and each is given a separate score. For example, vocabulary, fluency, content, and grammar are each given a number of points.

**Analysis** – breaking down the whole into its parts so that the organization of elements is clear.

**Application** – use of abstractions in particular and concrete situations.

**Approach** – the theory about the feature of language and language learning that stands as the source of practices and principles in language teaching.

**Aptitude** – a natural ability to do something or to learn something. The rate at which a student can learn a language, based on raw talent. Aptitude does not seem to be related to attitude; a gifted student can have a poor attitude.

**Assessment** – the measurement of learners' potential for attainment, or of their actual attainment. A learner's potential can be assessed through various tests or measurement of attainment. Assessment can be diagnostic, formative, or summative. The use of self-assessment and self-evaluation is increasing.

**Assessments scales** – gives an opportunity to define the language proficiency of students in accordance with syllabus requirements.

**Attitude** –A complex mental state involving beliefs, feelings, values and dispositions to act in certain ways. Attitude affects a student’s ability to learn, but is unrelated to aptitude.

**Authentic assessment** – An assessment presenting tasks that reflect the kind of mastery demonstrated by experts. Authentic assessment of a student's ability to solve problems, for example, would assess how effectively a student solves a real problem.

**Authentic evaluation** – The activity of reviewing how a learning activity facilitates active meaning-making for students. This is an ongoing type of evaluation that is culminating phase of a teacher’s day-to-day use of the decision-making cycle (planning, acting, observing, and reflecting). This evaluative activity usually involves realistic, performance-based activities. Portfolio assessment is often used as a base for authentic evaluation.

**Authentic material** – the material is designed for native speakers (newspapers, radio programs, interviews); **non-authentic** – is specially written for language students and it may be simplified, cleaned-up, less background noise, less overlap of students.

**Authentic task** – assignment that has a real-world application. Such tasks bear a strong resemblance to tasks performed in nonschool settings (such as home, an organization, or the workplace) and require students to apply a broad range of knowledge and skills. Often, they fill a genuine need for students and result in a tangible end product.

**Automaticity** – A learner’s ability to recover a word automatically, without straining to fetch it from memory.

## **B**

**Backwash** – is the effect, positive or negative, that a test has on teaching and learning that precede it.

**Basic categories** – approach, method, goals, means.

**Basic skills** – e. g. the basic skills for YLs to do smth., or development listening and speaking skills of YLs.

**Behavioral psychology** – Also called behaviorism, the belief that learning should be based on psychological study of observable

and measurable psychology only; psychological theory based on stimulus-response influenced audiolingualism.

**Benchmark** – Statement that provides a description of students' knowledge expected at specific grades, ages, or developmental levels. Benchmarks often are used in conjunction with standards.

**Benchmark performances** – Performance examples against which other performances may be judged.

**Bottom-up information processing** – students learn partially through bottom-up information processing, or processing based on information present in the language presented. For example, in reading bottom-up processing involves understanding letters, words, and sentence structure rather than making use of the students' previous knowledge.

**Brainstorming** – A group activity where students freely contribute their ideas to a topic to generate ideas.

**Build-up approach** – works in practice where a learner is moving from a controlled practice, through guided work, to free communication, with an increasing emphasis on choice of what to say along the way.

## C

**Calling** – A view of teaching that recognizes, and even celebrates, the personal and social value of the educational profession. Possessing a sense of calling is a virtue for constructivist teaching.

**Case-study** – It is based on the analysis of the real life or an imaginative problem/situation.

**Category** – a class or division of people or things regarded as having particular shared characteristics.

**CEFR** – European Standard for Teaching, Learning and Assessment.

**Classroom management** – a general term used to describe how teachers use classroom space, pace their classes, mediate participation and behavior, and engage students in productive and active learning. The management of classroom processes such as how a teacher sets up a classroom and organizes teaching and

learning to facilitate instruction. Includes classroom procedures, groupings, how instructions for activities are given, and management of students' behavior.

**Cloze** – Type of gap fill where the gaps are regular, e. g. every 7th or 9th word. The technique can be used to assess students' reading comprehension or as a practical activity.

**Cloze test** [klōz] a test in which one is asked to supply words that have been removed from a passage in order to measure one's ability to comprehend text, a test of the ability to comprehend text in which the reader has to supply the missing words that have been removed from the text at regular intervals.

**Coaching** – An instructional method in which a teacher supports students while they perfect old skills and acquire new skills.

**Cognitive dissonance** – A feeling of discomfort engendered by experiences that are perceived to be in conflict with fundamental constructs.

**Cognitively guided instruction** – An instructional strategy in which a teacher assesses what students already know about a subject and then builds on students' prior knowledge. Students typically are asked to suggest a way to represent a real problem posed by a teacher. Guided questions, encouragement and suggestions further encourage students to devise solutions and share the outcome with the class.

**Cognitive processing skills** – Hypothesizing, drawing of inferences and resolving of ambiguities and uncertainties; prediction, evaluation of information, and synthesis.

**Collaboration** – A facilitative type of human interchange or professional relationship in which teachers actively support and encourage one another's reflective practices. Collaborative efforts can focus on pragmatic reconsideration, critical reasoning, and critical engagement. Collaborative approaches are exchanging, modeling, coaching, supervision, mentoring.

**Communication** – The mutual process through which persons interpret messages in order to coordinate individual and social meanings. The process by which a person, group, organization (the sender) transmits some type of information (the message) to another

person, group, organization (the receiver). The simultaneous sharing and creating of meaning through human symbolic action.

**Communicative competence** – A set of knowledge and skills for achieving the goal by using communication. The role of language learning is to achieve communicative competence. Communicative competence has various models. One of them has four parts, which we call language competencies: (1) **Grammatical competence** is how well a person has learned the features and rules of the language. This includes vocabulary, pronunciation, and sentence formation. The main question is: How well does a person understand English grammar? (2) **Sociolinguistic competence** is how well a person speaks and understands various social contexts. This depends on factors such as status of those speaking to each other, the purpose of the interaction, and the expectations of the interaction. The main question is: how socially acceptable is the person's use of English in different settings? (3) **Discourse competence** is how well a person can combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve different types (genres) of speaking or writing. The main question is: How well does one properly combine all the language elements to speak or write in English? (4) **Strategic competence** is how well a person uses both verbal forms and non-verbal communication to compensate the lack of knowledge in the other three competencies. The main question is: Can a person find ways to communicate when he/she lacks some knowledge of English?

**Competence learning model** – especially when we take specialized courses, learning seems to take place in four stages. We begin with unconscious incompetence: we do not know how much we do not know. Once we begin our course of studies, we become consciously incompetent: we know how much we do not know. From there we proceed to conscious competence: we have functional knowledge and can perform competently, but we have to think about what we are doing. Finally, after we have had enough experience, we become unconsciously competent: we know it and we can do it, and we do not much have to think about it. This model applies to a great deal of language learning, to TEFL training and many other areas of study.

**Comprehension** – grasp of basic meaning, without necessarily relating it to other material.

**Comprehensible input** – Language that is understandable to learners.

**Construction** – creation or design smth.

**Constructivist learning** – A complex interaction between students' personal purposes, their prior knowledge and dispositions, and the requirements for specific subject-matter inquiry.

**Content words** – Words that carry meaning; usually nouns, verbs and sometimes adjectives and adverbs.

**Context clues** – Clues used when guessing word meanings; clues that provide students with meaning or comprehension based on the environment in which a word is found.

**Context sensitivity** –The thoughtful responsiveness of teachers to the unique circumstances of their work. This is one of the characteristics of progressive decision-making.

**Contrastive analysis** – Comparing two languages to predict where learning will be facilitated and hindered.

**Controlled practice** – Language practice where students are restricted in their choice of language, usually to a single answer, for example, a gap fill (see "Free practice" and "Guided practice").

**Cooperation** – A type of human interchange in which the parties have dialogue with, help or support one another. Cooperation differs from collaboration in the following ways. Through cooperative professionals can be supportive of one another, they do not work at establishing mutual interests and common ground; nor do they engage in a more penetrating analysis and evaluation of one another's practices. There is a lack of mutual support for personal-professional reflection, that is, for pragmatic reconsideration, critical reasoning, and critical engagement.

**Course** – a subject or a module.

**Creative** – imaginatively and aesthetically engaging students in learning activities. Cultivating creativity is a virtue for constructivist teaching.

**Creative construction hypothesis** – Hypothesis in language acquisition which states that learners gradually develop their own rule systems for language.

**Criterion-referenced test** – A evaluation instrument in which students demonstrate the competences they have had the opportunity to practice.

**Critical engagement** – A type of critical examination of one's personal-professional knowledge. It is the reflective process of becoming attuned to the tacit awareness, feelings, and metaphors that inspire one's teaching.

**Critical reasoning** – A type of critical examination of one's personal-professional knowledge. It is the reflective process of consideration of good reasons for particular teaching decisions. It is the examination of why something should be done in a particular way.

**Critical period** – a period during someone's development in which a particular skill or characteristic is believed to be most readily acquired or a period in a lifetime during which a specific stage of development usually occurs. If it fails to do so, it cannot readily occur afterwards

**Constructivism** – Theory suggesting that students learn by constructing their own knowledge, especially through hands-on exploration. It emphasizes that the context in which an idea is presented, as well as students' attitude and behavior, affects learning. Students learn by incorporating new information into what they already know.

**Correction** – brings modification into a teaching process on the basis of the past control data.

**Culture** – The sum of the beliefs, attitudes, behaviors, habits and customs of a group of people.

**Creative thinking** – In education, innovative and adaptive thinking based on the ability to identify problems, form hypotheses, and apply novel and appropriate solutions to unfamiliar and open-ended tasks.

**Cultural blunder** – is a stupid or careless mistake, related to cultural knowledge.

**Curriculum** (plural *curricula*) – A plan of instruction that details what students are to know, how they are to learn it, what a teacher's role is, and the context in which learning and teaching will take place.

**Curriculum design** – the general framework or blueprint for an educational program. Without a curriculum design, educational services would lack coherence.

## D

**Decision-making** – In teaching, thinking processes employed by teachers in planning, conducting and evaluating lessons or aspects of lessons, particularly when different instructional choices are involved, two kinds of decision-making are often referred to: 1) **pre-active decision-making**: decisions that are made prior to teaching, such as determining the content of a lesson; 2) **interactive decision-making**: unplanned decisions made during a lesson, such as a decision to drop a planned activity.

**Decision-making cycle** – An approach to teaching that integrates four thoughtful phases: 1) fluid planning, 2) teaching enactment, 3) participant observation, 4) pragmatic consideration.

**Didactic** – is the coherent framework for a teacher's planning of learning units. Consideration of students' individual pre-conditions, the educational framework, identification of learning objectives, content and assessment criteria, as well as a choice of relevant pedagogical teaching/learning methods.

**Deductive teaching** – Also known as deduction, from the verb “to deduce”; a teaching technique in which a teacher presents language rules and students then practice those rules in activities. Deductive teaching is usually based on grammar-based methodology and proceeds from generalizations about the language to specifics. (See “Inductive teaching”.)

**Delayed copying** – A teacher writes a short familiar sentence on the board, gives students time to look at it, erases it, and then they see if they can write it.

**Descriptive grammar** – Grammar that is described in terms of what people actually say or write, rather than what grammar books



say the grammar of the language should be. See “prescriptive grammar”.

**Diagnostic test** – A test to diagnose or discover what language students know and what they need to develop to improve their language abilities; may be used before a course of study and combined with placement test.

**Dictation** – A technique in which a teacher reads a short passage out loud and students write down what a teacher reads; a teacher reads phrases slowly, giving students time to write what they hear; the technique is used for practice as well as testing.

**Discourse** – language (spoken or written) that has been produced as a result of an act of communication.

**Drills** – language practice exercises designed to give learners many opportunities to use the correct forms and thus to establish correct habits. They are designed to demonstrate the regularity of the rule they exemplify and to fix it through repetition in the learners mind.

## E

**Educational-methodological complex (EMC)** – is the aggregate of standard, organizational, regulatory and teaching materials in **printed** or **electronic** version, which is represented as a structure of didactic components or modules for conducting all types of lessons and the assessment of students in certain subject and aims at more complete implementation of educational and training tasks proposed by the curriculum.

**E-learning** – learning via computer and internet tools.

**Electronic educational-methodological complex (EEMC)** – is a multimedia software product for educational purposes, ensuring the continuity and completeness of the didactic cycle of the learning process and containing organizational and systematized theoretical, practical, control materials based on the principles of interactivity, information openness, remoteness and formalization of knowledge assessment procedures.

**Emotional means** – relating to a person's emotions, emotional means concerned with emotions and feelings.

**Empathy** – is the ability to share another person's feelings and emotions as if they were your own. It plays a great role in development and stabilization of interpersonal relations evaluated as important communicative quality of a personality which allows creating an atmosphere of openness, confidentiality, sincerity and disclosure of creative potential.

**Empirically-sound argument** – An argument that can be supported by evidence gathered through careful research, either formal or informal. Argument as a key referent for the problem-solving approach of teacher character.

**Epistemology** – is the science about nature of knowledge and its enlarging. It is interpreted as the process of the uninterrupted structuring with the help of mental schemata (frames), appeared as a result of people's interaction with the environment. Thus, it is related to the forming and developing of structural forms of knowledge.

**Evaluation** – judging the adequacy of ideas or material for given purposes.

**Exhibition of mastery** – A type of assessment in which students display their grasp of knowledge and skills using methods such as skits, video presentations, posters, oral presentations, or portfolios.

**Experiment** – A scientific procedure undertaken to make a discovery, test a hypothesis, or demonstrate a known fact.

**Experiential learning** – A way of learning from experience by balancing acting and observing with participation and thoughtful detachment.

**External influences** – external factual influence on successful learning as language policy, parents, language environment, etc.

**Extroversion** – concentration on the external factors

## **F**

**Feedback** – Reporting back or giving information back, usually to a teacher; feedback can be verbal, written or nonverbal in the form of facial expressions, gestures, behaviors; teachers can use feedback to discover whether a student understands, is learning, and likes an activity. Feedback has two main distinguishable components: assessment and correction.

**Fluency** – ability to speak or write as naturally and easily – but not necessarily as accurately – as a native speaker can. It is natural, normal, native-like speech characterized by appropriate pauses, intonation, stress, register, word choice, interjections and interruptions.

**Formative assessment** – is an ongoing process of gathering information on the extent of learning, on strengths and weaknesses, which a teacher can feed back into their course planning and the actual feedback they give learners. It is often used in a very broad sense so as to include non-quantifiable information from questionnaires and consultations.

**Form-focused instruction** – The teaching of specific language content (lexis, structure, phonology). See “language content”.

**Free practice** – Practice-activities that involve more language choice by a learner. Students focus on the content rather than the language. Used for fluency practice.

**Function words** – Also known as form words, empty words, structure or structural words and grammar words; these words connect content words grammatically; function words have little or no meaning by themselves. Examples include articles, prepositions and conjunctions.

**Functional syllabus** – Syllabus based on communicative acts such as making introductions, making requests, expressing opinions, requesting information, refusing, apologizing, giving advice, persuading; this type of syllabus is often used in communicative language teaching.

## **G**

**Grammatical syllabus** – syllabus based on the grammar or structure of a language; often part of the grammar translation method.

**Group work** – independent work carried out simultaneously by groups of people on a task or tasks.

**Guidance** – is a broad term with different aspects. Furthermore, different countries have different practices and different regulations on guidance. Guidance refers mainly to the support of a student,

either in educational administrative questions or at a personal and social level. In this project, we have added a distance-training aspect, where guidance is also understood as professional assistance and instruction from a distance. In mobile guidance, mobile phones are used for the support of a student at a distance. Very little research has been done on mobile guidance and its potentials.

**Guided practice** – An intermediate stage in language practice – between "controlled practice" and "free practice" activities; this stage features allow for some creativity from students.

## **H**

**"Hands-on/minds-on" activities** – Activities that engage students' physical as well as mental skills to solve problems. Students devise a solution strategy, predict outcomes, activate or perform the strategy, reflect on results, and compare end results with predictions.

**Heterogeneous grouping** – Grouping together students of varying abilities, interests, or ages.

**Heuristic method** – A method of problem-solving using exploration and trial and error methods. Heuristic program design provides a framework for solving a problem in contrast with a fixed set of rules (algorithmic) that cannot vary.

**Higher-order thinking skills** – Understanding complex concepts and applying sometimes conflicting information to solve a problem, which may have more than one correct answer.

**Holistic** – characterized by comprehension of the parts of something as intimately interconnected and explicable only by reference to the whole

**Holistic assessment** – is making a global synthetic judgment. Different aspects are weighted intuitively by a teacher.

**Holistic scoring** – when a performance is given one score overall and a teacher is not looking at separate features of language in the performance.

**Humanistic approach** – is an education theory that recognizes the necessity to facilitate free and creative development of a personality.

**Hypothesis** – a supposition or proposed explanation made on the basis of limited evidence as a starting point for further investigation.

## I

**Immersion** – method of teaching when children are involved in learning via integrated motivation.

**Individualized approach** – a division of learners into homogeneous groups in accordance with their level of the language performance, abilities, and social factors.

**Inductive teaching** – Instead of beginning with general principles and eventually getting to applications, a teacher begins with specifics – a set of observations or experimental data to interpret, a case study to analyze, or a complex real-world problem to solve. As students attempt to analyze the data or scenario or solve the problem they generate a need for facts, rules, procedures, and guiding principles, at which point they are either presented with the needed information or helped to discover it for themselves.

**Input hypothesis** – Hypothesis that states that learners learn language through exposure to language that is just beyond their level of comprehension.

**In-service teacher** – a person currently employed as a classroom teacher.

**Instruction** – Teaching, direction or order.

**Interference** – A phenomenon in language learning where the first language interferes with learning the target or foreign language or transfer the native language experience into foreign which leads to appearance of mistakes in the speech.

**Interlanguage** – The language a learner uses before mastering a foreign language; it may contain features of the first language and the target language as well as non-standard features. It is also concerned a lingua franca.

**Interlanguage fossilization** – is a stage during second-language acquisition. When mastering a target language, second/foreign language learners develop a linguistic system that is self-contained and different from both a learner's first language and the

second/foreign language. This linguistic system has been variously called inter-language, approximate system.

**Interlocutor** – In a conversation, this refers to the person you are speaking to.

**Interaction** – communication between people involving the use of language (e. g. between two people having conversation, between a writer and readers, between a speaker and a listener, etc.) or exchange of communication in which communicators take turns sending and receiving messages.

**Interactive method/technologies** – the methods based on the modern psychological conception of interaction, it is a cooperative activity of people during interpersonal communication; instruction using tasks that can't be fulfilled by isolated students but require co-operation.

**Intercultural communication** – The study of theories and practices related to interaction between people whose cultures are significantly different from one another or communication with representatives of different cultures using lingua franca. During inter-cultural communication misunderstanding, attribution can appear. That's why we can distinguish the intercultural interference because of individual's two cognitive bases relationship.

**Intercultural Competence** – a set of cognitive (mindset), affective (heart-set), and behavioral (skill-set) skills and characteristics that support effective and appropriate interaction in various cultural contexts

**Interdisciplinary** – means involving more than one academic subject or relating to more than one branch of knowledge.

**Intelligence** – in psychology, the general mental ability involved in calculating, reasoning, perceiving relationships and analogies, learning quickly, storing and retrieving information, using language fluently, classifying, generalizing, and adjusting to new situations.

**Integrative motivation** – learners are involved via game and other techniques organized in the latent form.

**Intrinsic** – belonging to the essential nature of a thing: occurring as a natural part of something.

**Intuitive problem-solving** – A strategy of solving problems through intuitions based on carefully cultivated relationship

## **J**

**Jig-saw activity** – is organized most often with the texts that are meant for reading or listening. A text is divided into several parts. Every participant has an 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 a part of the whole. These pieces can be brought together only in the course of active communicative efforts.

**Jiglo** – also belongs to interactive methods and can be used in a group work. A teacher cuts into pieces sentences of the whole text and learners must restore this text in the logical sequence. Learners work in groups and cooperate while restoring the text.

## **K**

**Knowledge** – remembering something previously encountered or learned.

## **L**

**Language acquisition** – the process, mechanism and result of learning language or obtaining language experience.

**Language and culture** – conception where interests of all sciences about human are crossed, the bounds between disciplines studied human beings are deteriorated because of the anthropocentric approach. The language embodies the people's originality, national perception of the world, national culture. A language plays a great role in creation of the world picture of some culture.

**Language content** – Language has three components, which are commonly taught as language items: 1) **Structural items** are grammatical points about the language. CL teachers frequently introduce these as examples or model sentences, and they are often called "patterns"; 2) **Phonological items** are features of the sound

system of the language, including intonation, word stress, rhythm and register. A common way to teach phonology is simply to have students repeat vocabulary using proper stress and pronunciation; 3) **A lexical item** is a new bit of vocabulary. It is sometimes difficult to decide whether an item is structural or lexical. For example, a teacher could teach phrasal verbs like “chop down” and “stand up” as lexis or structure.

**Language experience approach** – An approach based on teaching first language reading to young children, but adapted for use with adults. Students use vocabulary and concepts already learned to tell a story or describe an event. A teacher writes down the information they provide, and then uses the account to teach language, especially to develop reading skills.

**Language learning requirements** – To learn language, students have four needs: They must be exposed to the language. They must understand its meaning and structure. And they must practice it. Teachers should hold their students as able. They should not over-explain or make things too easy. Learning comes through discovery.

**Language of culture** – A set of signs, ways or means of verbal and nonverbal communication, which are objectified specificities of culture and reflect interaction with other languages and cultures.

**Language personality** – is multilevel and multi-componential set of language abilities and skills to be ready to speech behavior which are classified according to the language level and speech activities (speaking, listening, writing and reading).

**Language skills** – In language teaching, this refers to the mode or manner in which language is used. Listening, speaking, reading and writing are generally called the four language skills. Speaking and writing are the productive skills, while reading and listening are the receptive skills. Often the skills are divided into sub-skills, such as discriminating sounds in connected speech, or understanding relationships within a sentence.

**Learner autonomy** – autonomous learners understand the purpose of their learning program, explicitly accept responsibility for their learning, share in the setting of learning goals, take initiatives in planning and executing learning activities, and regularly review their



learning and evaluate its effectiveness There is a consensus that the practice of a learner autonomy requires insight, a positive attitude, a capacity for reflection, and a readiness to be proactive in self-management and interaction with others.

**Learning burden** – These are the features of the word that a teacher actually needs to be taught, and can differ dramatically from word to word. Especially in lexis, a teacher needs to reduce learning burden by, for example, reducing the number of definitions and uses presented.

**Learning factors** – For EFL teachers, four factors outside aptitude and attitude affect the rate at which a student learns a second language. These are (1) a student’s motivation, including whether it is instrumental or integrative; (2) the amount of time a student spends in class and practicing the language outside class; (3) a teacher’s approach to teaching; and (4) a teacher’s effectiveness and teaching style. The most important of these motivators are the first two, which are also the two a teacher has least control over. See also “aptitude”, “attitude” and “TEFL vs. TEFL”.

**Learning strategy approaches** – Instructional approaches that focus on efficient ways to learn, rather than on curriculum. Include specific techniques for organizing, actively interacting with material, memorizing, and monitoring any content or subject.

**Learning styles** – Approaches to assessment or instruction emphasizing variations in temperament, attitude, and preferred manner of tackling a task. Typically considered are styles along the active/passive, reflective/impulsive, or verbal/spatial dimensions.

**Lecture** – an educational talk to an audience, esp. to students at a university or a lyceum/college or a discourse on a particular subject given or read to an audience

**Lecture course-based assessment** – refers to methods of assessing students’ learning within the classroom environment, using course goals, objectives and content to gauge the extent of the learning that is taking place.

**Lesson plan** – An outline or plan that guides teaching of a lesson; includes the following: pre-assessment of class; aims and objectives; warm-up and review; engagement, study, activation of

language (controlled, guided and free practice); and assessment of a lesson. A good lesson plan describes procedures for students' motivation and practice activities, and includes alternative ideas in case the lesson is not long enough or is too difficult. It also notes materials needed.

**Lingua franca** – A language that is adopted as a common language among speakers whose native languages are different.

**Literacy** – The condition or quality of being knowledgeable in a particular subject or field: cultural literacy; information literacy, professional literacy, information-communication literacy.

**Logos** –Aristotelian concept associated with persuasion; proof or apparent proof provided by the words used in the speech.

**Logo-episteme** – knowledge about language/speech item which brings language and extra-language information.

## M

**Management system** – the system of organization and monitoring teaching process.

**Mental processes** – is done in the individual's brain, it is related to mental qualities and cognitive processes.

**Metacognition** – The process of considering and regulating one's own learning. Activities include assessing or reviewing one's current and previous knowledge, identifying gaps in that knowledge, planning gap-filling strategies, determining the relevance of new information, and potentially revising beliefs on the subject.

**Metacognitive guidance** –Mental reminders that help guide thoughtful activity. This thinking support can also be called scaffolding.

**Metalanguage** – Language used to describe, analyze or explain another language. Meta-language includes, for example, grammatical terms and the rules of syntax. The term is sometimes used to mean the language used in class to give instructions, explain things, etc. – in essence, to refer to all teacher-talk that does not specifically include the “target language”.

**Metacognitive learning** – Instructional approaches emphasizing awareness of the cognitive processes that facilitate one's own

learning and its application to academic and work assignments. Typical meta-cognitive techniques include systematic rehearsal of steps or conscious selection among strategies for completing a task.

**Method** – is a generalized set of classroom specifications for accomplishing linguistic objectives.

**Mistake** – deviation from the norms of a language caused by such non-linguistic factors as carelessness, tiredness, boredom, tension, etc.

**Mnemonic device** – device, such a string of letters or a line of verse, used for helping one to remember something.

**Model/modeling** – To teach by example; for example, a teacher who wants students to do an activity may first demonstrate the activity, often with a student volunteer. **Model** is a verbal or pictorial description or representation of a process; the way of looking at something; a representation of something else. Models may represent their referents physically, verbally, and/or visually. **Modeling** means demonstrating to a learner how to do a task, with the expectation that a learner can copy the model. Modeling often involves thinking aloud or talking about how to work through a task.

**Module** – each of a set of standardized parts or independent units that can be used to construct a more complex structure. Or it is one of the separate parts of a course taught at a lyceum/college or university.

**Multididactics** – theory and practice of teaching two or more languages.

## N

**Native speakers** – Those who speak the language in question as their mother tongue.

**Needs assessment/analysis** – Measurement of what students need in order to learn language and achieve their language learning goals; also may include consideration of the school syllabus.

**Non-native speakers** – Those who speak the language in question as an additional language. The language in question is not their mother tongue.

**Naturalistic contexts** – derived from or closely imitating real life or nature.

## O

**Objectives** – Also called lesson objectives or aims; statements of students' learning outcomes based on students' needs; objectives state specifically what students will be able to do in a specified time period; objectives are measurable and therefore involve specific and discrete language skills.

**Operation** – is a highly organized activity that involves many people doing different things or the action of functioning or the fact of being active or in effect. In methodology it means intellectual activity for acquiring knowledge and skills. A set of activities concerned with transforming resource inputs into desired outputs.

**Over-correction** – Correcting so much that students become reluctant to try out what they have learned.

## P

**Paradox of language acquisition** – The limited amount of comprehensible input that children receive is mathematically insufficient for them to determine grammatical principles, yet somehow they are still able to do so.

**Passive** – Opposite of active; the false assumption that the language skills of reading and listening do not involve students in doing anything but receiving information.

**Passive methods** – a teacher is in the centre of teaching and plays an active role but learners are passive.

**Passive vocabulary**–Vocabulary that students have heard and can understand, but do not necessarily use when they speak or write.

**Pedagogy** – The study of being a teacher, or the process of teaching. The term generally refers to strategies of instruction, or a style of instruction. Pedagogy is also occasionally referred to as the correct use of instructive strategies. In correlation with those instructive strategies the instructor's own philosophical beliefs of instruction are harbored and governed by the pupil's background

knowledge and experience, situation, and environment, as well as learning goals set by students and a teacher.

**Pedagogical component in professional competence** – It correlates with instructional competence of FL teachers.

**Pedagogical technology** – systematic method of creation, application and determination of the ELT process and acquiring the knowledge with the help of technical and human resources and their interaction for the aims of optimizing the forms of education (See *educational technology*).

**Peer correction** – Also known as peer review, peer editing, or peer feedback; in writing, an activity whereby students help each other with the editing of a composition by giving each other feedback, making comments or suggestions; can be done in pairs or small groups.

**Perception** – the process by which an organism assimilates, interprets, and uses sensory data.

**Performance assessment** – Systematic and direct observation of a student performance or examples of student performances and ranking according to pre-established performance criteria. Students are assessed on the result as well as the process engaged in a complex task or creation of a product.

**Performance criteria** – A description of the characteristics to be assessed for a given task. Performance criteria may be general, specific, analytical trait, or holistic. They may be expressed as a scoring rubric or scoring guide. (See rubrics and scoring guide.)

**Performance task** – An assessment exercise that is goal directed. The exercise is developed to elicit students' application of a wide range of skills and knowledge to solve a complex problem.

**Performative means** – relating to or denoting an utterance by means of which a speaker performs a particular act.

**Phonemic awareness** – Awareness of the sounds of English and their correspondence to written forms.

**Phonics** – syn. Acoustics, a method of teaching people to read by correlating sounds with symbols in an alphabetic writing system

**Portfolio** – the learners gather a collection of assignments and projects done over a long period into a file; and this portfolio provides the basis for evaluation.

**Portfolio assessment** – An assessment process that is based on the collection of students' work (such as written assignments, drafts, artwork, and presentations) that represents competencies, exemplary work, or a student's developmental progress.

**Practice** – A complex activity guided by the decision-making cycle of planning, acting, observing and reflecting.

**Pre-service teacher** – a student who is currently enrolled in a teacher preparation program

**Principle** – 1) a fundamental truth or proposition that serves as the foundation for a system of belief or behavior or for a chain of reasoning

**Process-oriented teaching** – focuses on the motivation and involvement in the activities with the expectation of different results in learners according to their aptitude.

**Product-oriented teaching** – is the shortest way for all the learners in the classroom to achieve the same result.

**Proficiency** – learners' ability to apply the language to the real world.

**Proficiency assessment** – is an assessment of what someone can do/knows in relation to the application of the subject in the real world. It represents an external perspective.

**Profile** – a record of a student's test results which display a series of assessments in various areas of language performance. They are mainly based on scales.

**Program** – teaching plan, planned series of future events or performances.

**Professional competence** – the ability to work successfully or efficiently as a teacher

**Proficiency level** – Describes how well a student can use the language (often categorized as beginner, intermediate or advanced).

**Proficiency tests** – General tests that provide overall information on a student's language proficiency level or ability; can

be used to determine entry and exit levels of a language program or to adjust the curriculum according to the abilities of students.

**Project-method** – is used to resolve a problem by tapping available resources and producing a final product for public presentation.

**Psychological component in professional competence** – knowledge about learning theory and cognitive features of learners.

**Postulate** – suggests or assumes the existence, fact, or truth of (something) as a basis for reasoning, discussion, or belief

## Q

**Questioning** – It is a technique used in FL classes. If someone has a questioning expression on their face, they look as if they want to know the answer to a question, proceeding from or characterized by a feeling of doubt or uncertainty.

**Questionnaire** – a set of printed or written questions with a choice of answers, devised for the purposes of a survey or statistical study, method of a survey which can be used at the pre-experimental or post-experimental stage of an experimental work.

## R

**Rapport** – Relationship, usually a harmonious one, established within a classroom between a teacher and students and among students.

**Realia** – Real or actual objects used as teaching aids to make learning more natural; can include forms, pictures, tickets, schedules, souvenirs, advertisements and articles from English magazines or newspapers, and so on.

**Recycling or spiraling** – Sometimes called the cyclical approach; the purpose is to repeat language items throughout the syllabus; each time a language item is encountered more detail about it is added; this allows students to build on prior knowledge.

**Remedial work** – in language teaching, generally all work which is aimed at putting right existing mistakes – hence most work after earlier stage is arguable remedial. Often, used outside language teaching only for work for particularly backward learners.

**Reversible approach** – where instruction, focusing on formal and rhetorical features of language, is linked to a set of communicative activities, focusing on acquisition and experimental learning

**Riddle**– is a puzzle or joke in which you ask a question that seems to be nonsense but which has a clever or amusing answer or a question or statement intentionally phrased so as to require ingenuity in ascertaining its answer or meaning, typically presented as a game

**Rubric** – is a tool used to score assessment that provides teachers with areas to focus on their evaluation.

## S

**Scaffolding** – A guide to professional inquiry that is based on the calling, caring, creativity and centeredness.

**Scan** – To read quickly for specific information; a reading stratagem.

**Scientific knowledge** – Knowledge that provides people with the conceptual and technological tools to explain and describe how the world works.

**Scientific inquiry model of teaching** – involves students into scientific activity during teaching process.

**Seminar** – form of the lesson, a small group of students meeting regularly under the guidance of a tutor, professor to exchange information, discuss theories, or a conference or other meeting for discussion or training.

**Sensitive period** – ability to acquire different language phenomena depending on learners' age, the choice of the teaching material, its complicity depends on the sensitivity of learners to it.

**Simulation** – is a technique to replicate in the classroom real-world situations for the purposes of communicative language teaching.

**Skim** – Quick reading just for obtaining the main idea or general information; a reading strategy.

**Social context** – The environment in which meanings are exchanged; can be analyzed in terms of the field of discourse, which refers to what is happening, including what is being talked about; the



tenor of discourse, which refers to the participants taking part in the exchange of meaning, including who they are and their relationships with each other (for example, a teacher and students); and the mode of discourse, which refers to what part the language is playing in the particular situation and what “channel” (writing, speaking or a combination of the two) is being used.

**Sociolinguistics** – Aspects of culture that affect communication with others; examples: social class, education level, age, gender, ethnicity. Also, see “communicative competence”.

**Speech etiquette** – is turn up of politeness which provides smooth communication in order to avoid conflicts and misunderstanding. (E. Bern).

**Standards** – Statements of what students should know and be able to demonstrate. Various standards have been developed by national organizations, state departments of education, districts, and schools.

**Standardized tests** – Assessments that are administered and scored in exactly the same way for all students. Traditional standardized tests are typically mass-produced and machine-scored; they are designed to measure skills and knowledge that are thought to be taught to all students in a fairly standardized way. Performance assessments also can be standardized if they are administered and scored in the same way for all students.

**Strategic competence** – See “communicative competence”.

**Student-centered learning** – An approach to teaching and learning in which a learner, his/her interests, enthusiasm and aspirations are taken as the starting point of an educational process. A learner is credited with taking responsibility for his/her own learning. A teacher/trainer is regarded, according to this model, as a facilitator of learning, rather than a dispenser of knowledge or skills. The learning process itself takes into account not only the academic needs of learners, but also their emotional, creative, psychological and developmental needs.

**Student feedback** – Information solicited from students by a teacher to assess the effectiveness of the teaching-learning process.

**Student-centered** – Also called a learner-centered, a way of teaching that centers on the goals, needs, interests and existing knowledge of students. Students actively participate in such classrooms and may even be involved in setting learning outcomes. Teachers in student-centered classrooms ask students for input on their goals, needs and interests and on what they know before providing them with study topics or answers to questions (for example, grammar rules). They may also ask students to generate (help produce) materials. A teacher is seen more as a facilitator or helper than the dominant figure in the classroom.

**Student and teacher** – Teachers have eight roles in the classroom. They are authorities and sources of knowledge; entertainers; caregivers; role models; counselors and sometimes friends; classroom disciplinarians; directors and managers; facilitators, coaches and guides. The most important person in the classroom is a student. A teacher's primary focus must be on effective ways to have a student practice using his/her language. Classes should be planned so they enable students to use just a little more language than they are comfortable with. This is known as "i+1" – an idea popularized by Stephen Krashen. This formula is short for "comprehensible input plus one." Comprehensible input is the language students can understand.

**Student-generated material** – Teaching material to which students have made a major contribution; the language experience approach, for example, uses student-generated material.

**Student teaching** – the time a teacher-educator spends as an intern in a classroom setting. Typically, this internship takes place over the course or semester, but this varies by program and by state.

**Structure** – the arrangement of and relations between the parts or elements of something complex or teaching content.

**Subjects of specialty** – theoretical and practical disciplines directed at mastering professional competence.

**Summative assessment** – sums up attainment at the end of the course with a grade. It is not necessarily proficiency assessment. Indeed a lot of summative assessment is norm referenced, fixed-point, achievement assessment.

**Survey** – To quickly read the headlines, subheads, opening and closing paragraphs, photo captions, pull quotes and other key materials in an article to get a sense of meaning; a reading stratagem.

**Syllabus or curriculum** – The longer-term teaching plan; includes topics that will be covered and the order in which they will be covered in a course or program of studies.

**Synthesis** – putting elements into a coherent whole.

**System of exercises** – organization of teaching actions in algorithm (logical consecutive) in accordance with increasing of language and operational difficulties.

## **T**

**Task** – is activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective and which necessitates the use of language.

**Taxonomy** – Is the process of naming and classifying things or results of classification into groups within a larger system, according to their similarities and differences.

**Teacher enactment** – An integral part of an empowered teacher's practice that builds on fluid planning, and is informed by participant observation and pragmatic reconsideration. This type of activity differs from teacher implementation.

**Technique** – It is a way for a teacher to organize a learner's activity or a procedure to complete a task. Through techniques we develop in learners productive, receptive and interactive skills that are necessary for effective communication.

**Technology** –In education, a branch of knowledge based on the development and implementation of computers, software, and other technical tools, and the assessment and evaluation of students' educational outcomes resulting from their use of technology tools.

**Technology of teaching** – techniques for teaching with the help of which a teacher achieves the goal of teaching.

**Technology in teaching** – usage of technical tools in the teaching process.

**Technological approach** – It is a well-planned project or design of the teaching process and it is based on the activity principle which means high level of motivation for FL acquisition and development

of language sub-skills (vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar) and skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing).

**TESOL**– Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

**Thinking skills** – Explanations, predictions, problem-solving strategies, and other higher order applications of subject-matter content.

**Traditional assessment** – An assessment in which students select responses from a multiple-choice list, a true/false list, or a matching list. (Compare to alternative assessment.)

**Two-pronged approaches** – integrating ‘accuracy’ and ‘fluency’ work where there is a focus on grammatical form and on discourse features, combined with focus on experimental learning through communication;

**Turn-taking** – behavior which exhibits the exchange of source and receiver roles during conversation.

**Task-based syllabus** – A syllabus organized around a set of real, purposeful tasks that students are expected to carry out; tasks may include telephone use, making charts or maps, following instructions, and so on; task-based learning is purposeful and a natural way to learn language.

**Teachable moments** – Times in a language class in which a teacher realizes that a point of information not in the lesson plan will help students understand a language point; teachable moments digress for a brief time from the lesson plan and can be valuable in helping students learning and keeping students engaged.

**Teacher talk** – The language teachers use when teaching; involves simplifying speech for students; it may be detrimental to learning if it is childish or not close to the natural production of the target language.

**TEFL vs. TESL** – TEFL is an acronym for teaching English as a Foreign Language; TESL, for teaching English as a Second Language. TEFL **usually** takes place in non-English-speaking countries, while TESL takes place in the English-speaking world. When we speak English as a foreign language (EFL), we are referring to the role of English for learners in a country where English is not spoken by the majority. English as a second language

(ESL) refers to the role of English for learners in an English-speaking country, i. e. usually immigrants. This difference is very important, because it strongly affects students' motivation. In particular, it affects their motivation to learn.

In non-English speaking countries, students have instrumental motivation, the desire to learn English to accomplish a goal. They may want to improve their job prospects, for example, or to speak to tourists. They 1) attend English classes with other non-native speakers, 2) can find reasonable work without English; have less economic incentive to learn English, 3) do not need English in daily life, 4) have both primary and secondary support-networks that function in their native language, 5) have fewer opportunities to practice using their English. They are learning, and their instructors are teaching, English as a foreign language.

In English-speaking countries, they have integrative motivation, the desire to learn the language to fit into an English-language culture. They are more likely to want to integrate because they (1) Generally have more friends and family with English language skills, (2) Have immediate financial and economic incentives to learn English, (3) Have more opportunities to practice English, (4) Need it in daily life; often require it for work, (5) Often attend English classes with students who speak a wide range of mother tongues. They are learning, and their instructors are teaching, English as a second language.

**Technique** – A way of presenting language material.

**Thematic syllabus** – Syllabus based on themes or topics of interest to students.

**Top-down information processing** – Students learn partially through top-down information processing, or processing based on how students make sense of language input – for example, through using students' previous knowledge or schema.

## U

**Uninterrupted sustained silent writing** – A technique in writing whereby a specified, relatively short period of time is set

aside in class for students to practice their writing without being interrupted. This helps build writing fluency.

## V

**Validity** – An indication that an assessment instrument consistently measures what it is designed to measure, excluding extraneous features from such measurement.

**Vocabulary** – importance of **Core vocabulary** (the most common 2, 000-3, 000 English words) needs to be heavily stressed in language teaching. There is no point in presenting exotic vocabulary until students have mastered basic, high-frequency words. Learners should be tested on high-frequency word lists for passive knowledge, active production and listening comprehension. Learners cannot comprehend or speak at a high level without these words as a foundation. Learners need to spend time practicing these words until they are automatic; this is known as building automaticity. Since there is often not enough class time for much word practice, teachers need to present their students with strategies for developing automaticity outside the classroom.

**Vocabulary-based syllabus** – Syllabus built around vocabulary; often associated with the grammatical syllabus and the grammar translation method.

## W

**Web 2.0** – is the form of telecommunication and the platform of the social services and offices which allow the users to receive information and produce them (create) or to be as co-authors.

**Worksheets** – Teacher-developed, paper-based activities to help students comprehend, use, and learn language; can be used in association with all skill levels and in individual and group work.

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